THE VOLUNTEER COMMUNITY

creative use
of human resources

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It is a privilege to introduce THE VOLUNTEER COMMUNITY *as the first major publication of the Center for a Voluntary Society. NTL welcomes the opportunity to introduce this new Center, which is adding to the work of our other Centers significant contact with and study of the volunteer sector of American society. We all share the conviction of the Center for a Voluntary Society that conditions are ripe today—and will be even more ripe tomorrow—for a great increase in voluntary activity and widespread citizen participation in the renewal and enrichment of our national life.*

VLADIMIR A. DUPRE
Executive Director, NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science

FOREWORD

The Center for a Voluntary Society is happy to make its publishing debut with this very exciting volume. From the summer of 1968, when the idea of such a Center was introduced, through its establishment in July 1969, to the present, the staff of the Center has had the stimulus and help of the authors, Ronald Lippitt and Eva Schindler-Rainman. Few people anywhere have had as much contact as they have with volunteers and voluntary organizations through research, consultation, and training. And they have been generous in sharing their experience, ideas, skills, and enthusiasms with their colleagues.

The Center for a Voluntary Society is committed to the goal of enlarging the voluntary component in all areas of our personal and national life. We want more people to have more freedom of choice and richness of opportunity in the use of their discretionary time. We seek to help both formal and informal

groups and organizations improve their practices and extend their influence. We realize, however, that we cannot reach our goals by working exclusively at the national level with national organizations.

It is in local communities, where men and women—and young people—live and work and play, that voluntarism can have its greatest impact on individual lives and on the quality of corporate life. This book, therefore, is addressed to the thousands of people who want the town or city or neighborhood in which they live to be exciting, creative, and challenging.

As you read this book you will sense the authors' deep conviction that people are ready to work together to build a better community. Both authors have a profound respect for and trust in people. But they are aware from their wide experience that the polarization and fragmentation of much of our common life make it difficult, if not impossible, for a great many people to find a way to participate constructively in the community. Instead of simply exhorting people to work harder, this book deals with the realities of community life. It is full of practical suggestions about designs for action and opportunities for individuals and groups. Once a few people catch the vision of a volunteer community, it can be spread rapidly through concentric circles of wider and wider involvement.

It is the hope of the authors, and of the Center for a Voluntary Society, that some individual or group or organization in every community will catch this vision and begin to try out the practical and tested ideas for collaboration and coordination that are proposed here. To the extent possible, the Center and the authors will be available for consultation and training of those who set out on the quest for the Volunteer Community.

JAN MARGOLIS *and* CYNTHIA WEDEL
Associate Directors, Center for a Voluntary Society

A FANTASY

In recent years, as I have pondered over the vicissitudes of
Democracy, it has often occurred to me to wonder what would
happen if, in the United States, all citizens who work for nothing,
who serve as volunteers, were suddenly to "go on strike."

This band of strikers would include all trustees of colleges,
universities and private schools; all members of local school
boards; all directors of private institutions and agencies; all
solicitors for community chests; all lay boards collaborating with
public institutions and agencies, all committee members of private
institutions and agencies; and that great host of citizens who
serve multitudes of educational, welfare, health and recreational
organizations in one capacity or another. How large would the
total be? I know of no reliable count but the total would certainly
fall in the neighborhood of twenty-five to thirty million persons.

What would happen if this corps of citizens who labor without
pay, who exercise their own free will in choosing the functions
they will perform, were to resign their posts, refuse to attend
meetings, to disengage themselves from all responsibilities?

It is difficult to imagine what American life minus its
volunteers would be like, but one may make a few assumptions.

Officials and professionals would, no doubt, continue to
operate their respective institutions and agencies, at least for
a time, but they would function in a lonely atmosphere. They
would find themselves insulated from the true public and in touch
with only that sector of the public which is represented by their
constituents and clients. There would no longer be a life-line
between their expertness and the experience of the people.
The transmission belt which shuttles back and forth between
Democracy on the one hand and Science on the other would
stand idle. They, the professionals, would soon be obliged to
devote large amounts of time and energy in securing funds
for the maintenance of their work and assurance for their
incomes. Public agencies would take on more and more of the
coloration of bureaucracies. Private agencies would, I believe,
gradually wither and die. And when private institutions no
longer exist Democracy will have committed suicide. Totalitarian

bureaucracies or dictatorships will take its place and freedom will disappear altogether.

I wish I knew how to induce volunteers to appreciate the significant role they play in furnishing vitality to the democratic enterprise. They are to Democracy what circulation of the blood is to the organism. They keep Democracy alive. They epitomize freedom and are to our society what the Bill of Rights is to the Constitution which governs us. The health of a democratic society may be measured in terms of the quality of services rendered by citizens who act in "obedience to the unenforceable".

The above phrase "obedience to the unenforceable" was used in a memorable address delivered by Lord Moulton before the Authors' Club of London and later published in the Atlantic Monthly. We live, said Lord Moulton, under the discipline of three domains: one, the positive law which prescribes rules of conduct and exacts penalties for disobedience; two, the realm of free choice which is covered by no statutes; and three, that domain in which neither positive law nor free choice prevails. In this sphere the individual imposes obligations upon himself. In this realm the individual is not wholly free, since he has accepted a responsibility. Although he knows that no law and no individual may compel him to fulfill this commitment, he also knows that he cannot disobey without betraying himself. This is the domain in which the volunteer lives, and as Lord Moulton concluded "the real greatness of a nation, its true civilization, is measured by the extent of this land of obedience to the unenforceable".

Eduard C. Lindeman

Introduction

This volume is a report of our study and reflections about the phenomenon of voluntarism and the present and future of volunteer activity. We hope that it will be useful as a resource, stimulus, and guide for staffs of public and private agencies using volunteers; for the organizers and leaders of "cause movements"; for consultants doing organizational development work with agency staffs; for professors of graduate students in such professional fields as education, social work, public health, public administration, recreation, labor and business leadership, community organization, and environmental planning; and for anyone else who is interested in developing wider involvement and new directions in his work with volunteers, in the United States and elsewhere.

We feel it is important to clarify your expectations, to define the ways in which this volume may be helpful and the areas in which it should not be expected to be the appropriate resource. For example:

- It cannot transmit "how-to-do-it" skills, but it can identify and clarify needed skills of innovative leadership, trainership, and administration of volunteer activity.
- It cannot provide the specifics of program design and activity, but it can give you ideas and models and suggest guidelines for adaptation to your own specific needs.
- It cannot provide the objectives of your particular program.
- It cannot provide you with the materials you need for recruiting, orientation, and training activities, but it will help you define needed training materials and will suggest approaches to producing or locating them and using them effectively.
- It does not attempt to present a social criticism or commentary on the major issues, confrontations, and value orientations in the field of voluntarism, nor does it present a general sociological theory about voluntarism, but it should help you develop a philosophical base for clarifying your own

priorities in the leadership and development of volunteer programs.

- It characterizes the development and functioning of voluntarism as a key aspect of a democratic society, but it does not take the position that all voluntarism is good.
- It attempts to link you to new practices and emerging ideas about voluntarism, to perspectives about the future of voluntarism, to the literature about voluntarism, and to the Center for a Voluntary Society.

Let's preview briefly the flow of our presentation. We begin in Chapter I with some assumptions about the relationship between democracy, voluntarism, and personal growth and development. We focus on the major tasks that must be confronted and creatively coped with by a democratic system, national or local. We look at ways in which there can be effective mobilization and use of volunteer time, energy, and wisdom to create and maintain an effective self-renewing society, community, agency, or small group.

In Chapter II we summarize 10 social trends that we think will have major relevance for the development of voluntarism. Chapter III contains an analysis of the variety of needs and opportunities for volunteers in every community and a review of some of the major new patterns and trends in the use of volunteers. In Chapter IV we explore the bases of motivation of those who volunteer, and we challenge professionals to extend their use of and trust in volunteers. Chapter V summarizes and analyzes the problems and practices of recruitment and orientation of volunteers, examining some of the new approaches to the involvement of traditionally underutilized volunteer manpower. In Chapter VI we explore goals, methods, and designs for the preservice and in-service training of volunteers. In Chapter VII we focus on the need for the training of trainers of volunteers, illustrating designs and activities for helping the professional to develop trainership skills and perspectives. We present in Chapter VIII a "case study of the future," describing what a community might look like in action when the resources and motivations of the great variety of potential volunteers are fully utilized for the growth of the community and for the personal development of individual citizens.

In a concluding Epilogue we attempt to help you make a bridge between this volume and your own back-home operating

situations, suggesting resources and methods you might use to implement any ideas you may have developed for experimentation and innovation. We also suggest ways of connecting to the resources of the Center for a Voluntary Society as a stimulus and opportunity for continuing growth and development in your leadership role. The Epilogue is followed by a comprehensive, classified, annotated bibliography of a significant selection of the available literature about voluntarism.

When we began this project, we agreed with the staff of the Center for a Voluntary Society that there was a critical need for scanning, reviewing, and evaluating the area of voluntary activity, because of the many exciting changes in this field and because of the predictable explosion of interest and the development of new programs in line with major social trends and social needs. We also believed that with the growing base of social science and concept development, it would be very important to help link theory concept, theory, and value to the methods, strategies, and skills needed for success in the effective recruitment and utilization of volunteers. We wanted to share the excitement and optimism we have gained from our own wide variety of experiences in helping communities, organizations, and cause groups develop their use of volunteer human resources. We also hope to give you some linkage to the many innovative new practices being devised by creative leaders working with new volunteer populations.

At the same time, we felt we should examine the serious problems of lag or discrepancy between the growing number of spontaneous action organizations and the traditionally organized groups, and between unplanned, ineffective efforts and successful implementations. Goodwill and motivation to contribute to human service and social change are proliferating in many directions from many sources, but often these efforts die or achieve only minor influence because of inadequate perspectives, methods, and strategies. These unsuccessful experiences are harmful to the motivating fiber of democratic voluntarism. Short-lived, ineffective cause efforts represent a significant waste of energy, funds, and human resources, as well as a great loss of potential contribution to the more constructive forms of social change.

As a consequence of sharing our thinking with you through this volume, we hope we may be able to initiate a continuing ac-

tive dialogue with many of you, involving exchange of concepts, values, and practices, and using the resources of the Center for a Voluntary Society as a mechanism for this linkage.

We want to express our deep appreciation to the staff of the Center for their stimulation and support in the development of this volume. Our special appreciation goes to Marge Schultz for her scholarly help in the preparation of the bibliography, to Jan Margolis for her continuing editorial help and creative suggestions, to Judith Kaplan and Collette Hallman for their assistance in the preparation of the manuscript, and to Karen White for helping to see the manuscript through to publication. In many ways, of course, our greatest indebtedness is to the numerous organizations and agencies that have invited us to work with them in the development of their programs, have shared their feedback from their experiences with us, and have led us to an ever-deepening appreciation of the vitality and creative resourcefulness that continually manifest themselves on the growing edge of our social system.

I Democracy and Voluntarism

Two basic premises about the relationship between democracy and voluntarism have guided us in the development of this volume:

- A democratic social system—nation, state, community, organization, or group—must depend to a high degree on the volunteered time and energy of its members for its maintenance, stability, growth, and development.
- A democratic social system provides the conditions for a personally satisfying, self-actualizing growth opportunity for each individual.

It is true that a variety of nondemocratic social systems have inspired volunteer commitment and energy and have cultivated the development of individual capacities, but the idea of the democratic system and the democratic person involves some specific value judgments about the desirable society and person and the desirable pattern of voluntarism. Therefore, we want to start by sharing our thoughts on the nature of democratic social systems and democratic personalities, and then link these ideas to the processes of volunteering which are the major focus of this volume.

The Structures and Procedures of Democratic Systems

To establish, maintain, and continually revise the social climate in which democratic processes can function and flourish requires a great deal of collaboration in the development of appropriate political, economic, legal, and organizational mechanisms and structures. Before we approach the need for voluntarism, it will help us to review those dimensions of a democratic system which seem to be required for the growth and maintenance of internal democratic processes and for effective external relations with interdependent systems of all types. Much

of the background thinking in this chapter is derived from *Autocracy and Democracy,* a study by R. K. White and R. Lippitt.[1]

The Structures of Opportunities for Participation. The democratic social system must provide opportunities for the widespread and continuing participation of its members in appropriate levels of decision making, planning, and action taking. The opportunity structures include a great variety of relationships, formal and informal, horizontal and vertical, geographical, etc. The concept of "outreach effort" is a critical aspect of the idea of participation. Often, providing opportunity for participation means setting up a structure of representation, that is, delegating responsibility to certain members to represent the various subgroups that have different interests and resources and will be affected in different ways by decisions and actions.

Participation may be of various types, depending on the function of the group. In our national society there are opportunities for participation in economic, political, occupational, cultural, and recreational life. The concept of "appropriate levels of participation" includes the ideas that there be appropriate designs for participation at all age levels and that there be equality of inclusion and participation for individuals of all political orientations and all racial, ethnic, religious, and economic backgrounds.

Procedures for Coordination, Linkage, and Conflict Utilization. In a pluralistic and fragmented democratic social system, made up of many types of individuals and groups, a major requirement is that the system establish procedures to provide for full communication, for orderly confrontation and conflict resolution, and for the coordination and blending of the energies and interests of the disparate subgroups. These procedures must be a creative substitute for the imposed hierarchical controls of autocratic systems.

As we will see in Chapter II, dealing creatively with internal polarization is one of the most critical challenges in our society, with great implications for voluntarism. As Kenneth Benne once said, our American democratic system has done fairly well with two elements of the ideological framework of the French revolution, i.e., "liberté" and "égalité," but very poorly with the third,

[1] White, R. K., and Lippitt, R. *Autocracy and Democracy.* New York: Harper and Brothers, 1960.

"fraternité." [2] In other words, we have not done well with the mechanisms for relationships between the "peer systems" which make up our democratic system. The procedures for intergroup cooperation, conflict utilization, and competition in most cases have not been worked through to develop more creative solutions than the "win-lose" solution.

Procedures for Planning. The continuous and sensitive monitoring of the future, its dangers and potentialities, is a critical responsibility of a democratic system. It requires the assignment of specialized responsibilities to gather data about the trends of change, to develop knowledge about the future by projection and analysis, and to make this knowledge widely available for creative participation in planning.

Often some of the more unsophisticated and uninvolved members of our society are accused of being oriented to the "here-and-now" rather than to the future and its consequences. But they are unlikely to become future-oriented unless they are given a sense of potency, of being able to have some influence on the developing future and some stake in its consequences. Leaders of democratic systems must recognize this fact and help the less powerful and the less advantaged to have meaningful and successful experiences in planning ahead.

Structures and Procedures for Internal and External Diagnostic Fact Finding. Another crucial requirement for a democracy is to be continuously sensitive to its many participants' varying degrees of need, desire, and readiness for change. A democracy must also achieve comparable sensitivity about other systems with which it is interdependent.

Therefore, the commitment of budget, manpower, and energy to diagnostic fact finding is crucial for analyzing both the internal functioning of the democratic system and the external relations of the system to other systems. Study of previous experience which may deepen understanding of the present and future is an important part of the analysis task. The more varied the subgroups that make up the system and the more rapid the processes of internal and external change, the more crucial it is to invest heavily in diagnostic research.

It is unfortunate that in times of political or economic stress and

[2] Benne, Kenneth D. "The Uses of Fraternity." *Daedalus,* Spring 1961. pp. 233-46.

change, when diagnostic fact finding is most needed, this is often the first thing to be cut out of the budget. Such a shortsighted policy greatly reduces the capability of the system to cope innovatively with change, transition, and crisis. One of the difficulties is that the critical research aimed at improving democratic processes is often not seen by leadership to have yielded as significant a payoff as research aimed at mastering the biological and physical aspects of the environment.

Support for Trying Out New Patterns. The wide base of involvement in diagnosis and planning in a democracy also provides a wide base of innovation for converting awareness of problems into ideas for change. In every phase of our American life—education, social welfare, family life, health care, recreation, governmental affairs—there is potential for experimentation with new models of social organization and social relationship. In the field of biological engineering, amazing improvements of agricultural practices have been made because of the support of demonstration farms and experimental stations for developing and trying out new practices. The research and development programs of our industrial enterprises have brought about the same kinds of miracles in improving physical technology. It is even more critical for a democracy's development and survival that it stimulate and support research and development in the improvement of the social processes.

Networks for the Dissemination of New Resources. The basic democratic idea of fairness, or equality of opportunity, suggests that when a new resource for the betterment of living is discovered, there is a commitment to disseminating this resource as rapidly and as widely as possible. Our national social system is remarkably backward in the development of mechanisms for disseminating the rapid accumulation of social inventions for a better life, such as new parental practices, new classroom teaching designs, new social work and health education skills, and new approaches to religious education.

One of the crucial facts about social evolution is that at any moment one can find scattered throughout the system the elements of innovation which will become the major evolutionary developments of the next 25 to 50 years. However, we lack the mechanisms to identify these elements of the future. We lack the

means for speading new practices through the system. Although it might appear that our highly developed mass media facilities would provide us with the most effective means in the world, the fact is that the major inventions in the areas of social relations and better living do not spread very well through these indirect channels of communication. In most cases a human linking agent or consultant-trainer is needed to help convert the information into the values and attitudes and skills needed for successful change. Dissemination of social innovations requires a network of human agents capable of consultative and educational leadership, similar to the network of extension agents who spread new agricultural practices.

The Identification, Mobilization, and Use of Human Resources. The development of a productive democratic system requires the rational and flexible use of human resources to fill the leadership and other roles. There must be widespread knowledge of "who is good at what" and a readiness on the part of all participants to make their contribution. For the individual in a democracy, there is a challenging confrontation between the freedom to "do your own thing" and the responsibility to try to contribute what is needed, when and where it is needed. The social system must find ways of supporting this freedom and responsibility as complementary and integrative. To do so has many implications not only for citizenship orientation but also for the education of the young—for the development of personal interests and potentialities, the actualization of abilities, and the integration of self-other orientations. The democratic system's greatest challenge and opportunity is to support the development of individuals whose personalities and value systems enable them to integrate self-actualization and membership contribution and to use the complementary resources of those with very different life-styles.

Opportunities for Continuous Education and Reeducation. Everything else can be perfect, but still the democratic system will lack quality of operation and productivity unless there is a major commitment of manpower and budget to preservice and in-service training for both the salaried and the volunteer functions. It is frequently assumed that "goodwill is enough" or that high motivation is what is needed or that the new challenge can be coped with because "we've done something like this be-

fore." But standards of excellence are the basis of success and the core of meaningful satisfaction.

In many respects it is valid to describe a democratic society as an educational or learning society, or, as John Gardner has called it, a self-renewing society. Looking at the characteristics of a democratic system which have been identified in the previous paragraphs we see much overlap with the characteristics Gardner lists for a society that has the capability of continuous renewal and reconstruction.

With the current rate of societal change it seems likely that an increasing number of individuals will have two or three different careers during their life span. To prevent serious loss of resources to society and traumatic transitions and failures by the individual, it is crucial to organize and support a continuing education process as part of our democratic system. But just as vital a part of the educational program as this preparation for the breadwinning jobs is training for the unpaid contributions of the volunteer.

As we review the educational needs of our system at the present time, we can identify several priorities. One is the vital need for leadership training on a wider scale for those who are in, or will move into, roles of leadership responsibility in the public and private sectors of the society. Another is the need for widespread "membership training" to help all participants in the system develop the values and skills of active initiative in effectively using and influencing the resources of leadership. A particularly great need is for an extensive program of "outreach involvement and training" to bring into active membership in the system the many individuals and groups who have not been given the opportunity to participate or who are now alienated from the establishment. The demonstration of realistic caring and meaningful collaboration is one of the priorities of our democracy at the present time.

Challenges the Democratic System Faces

The significant work of a democracy is both internal and external. On the one hand, it must meet the challenges of internal development and maintenance; on the other, it must effectively influence and contribute to the larger world of neighboring systems.

In the development and maintenance of the internal system, one of the tasks is to achieve sensitivity to the type and rate of change in the conditions of individual and group life, so as to guide policies and action programs for the support and improvement of the lives of all individuals in the system. Another challenge is to find ways to help all participants develop a meaningful response to the question "Who am I?" The democratic system must try to help all participants find opportunities for satisfying personal growth and development and productive political, economical, recreational, cultural, and social participation in the community.

The external challenge facing a democracy is to establish interdependence and trust with other types of social systems based on a variety of value orientations and styles of organization. The democratic system must find ways of functioning as a responsible member of the larger intergroup society and of building up its own resources to maintain reciprocity of respect and contribution in relation to the other systems. It must also work at maintaining the respect and loyalty of its own citizenry. It is crucial to maintain an active inquiry posture in the outside world and to strengthen the development of policies and plans for making contributions to the larger interdependent collectivity.

We are not talking here just about a national democratic system; the same internal and external tasks face states, local communities, and organizations living interdependently with other organizations within a community.

Personal and Interpersonal Products and Resources of Democracy

We believe that the cluster of concepts we refer to as democracy is a set of values about an ideal to be achieved. All efforts toward democracy, whether made at the individual, interpersonal, or organized group level, are still far short of the goal of a fully democratic state of affairs and a fully democratic individual. What would such a fully democratic individual be like? What kind of members does a democratic system want and need to develop? From research findings we have derived seven dimensions of personal and interpersonal orientation and behavior which we believe represent the personal growth objectives of a democratic system. It is important to review these at the present time because they will help us to think about voluntarism

as a source of strength for a democracy and of growth and development opportunity for the individuals who make up the system.

Self-Motivated Involvement, Commitment, and Participation. In the democratic personality and relationship, initiative and commitment come voluntarily from within. This does not mean that individuals do not provide stimulation and external sources of motivation for each other, or that group and social norms are not an important source of ideas and expectations that give us guidance in our membership roles. But in the context of a democratic process, an external source of stimulation and influence is voluntarily listened to and accepted as a potential resource rather than as a threat or a duty.

Confidence in Self and Openness to Others. It is a paradox of the democratic orientation that one must simultaneously have self-confidence and humility. The truly democratic individual must be able, on the one hand, to arrive at and present his own viewpoint and, on the other, to genuinely listen to the other fellow. He must never be too arrogant or too preoccupied to listen to opposing viewpoints. As White and Lippitt have stated,

> The fully self-confident person can pass easily from enthusiastic presentation of his own ideas to an appreciative open-minded listening to points of view of others. The democratic orientation requires the blending of openness to influence from others and influence from the self. Practice in this process with others and self is perhaps the most critical aspect of the education of the young in a democratic system.[3]

Openness means enduring the discomfort of listening to divergent points of view while not necessarily giving up one's own viewpoint. This democratic combination of individualism and listening to the alternatives of others requires a readiness to tolerate ambiguity and to get challenged by the search for what most closely approximates truth in a pluralistic world of varied messages, all of which usually have some element of truth to contribute.

Fact-Oriented Realism. Much of the flexibility and problem-solving orientation in a democracy derive from a data-oriented sensitivity to present and future potentialities. The motivation to strive for objective information and feedback from the prob-

[3] White and Lippitt, *op. cit.*, p. 229.

lem situation is quite complementary to the orientation of openness toward fellow participants. There is a close affinity between the scientific spirit and the democratic spirit. The scientist's sense of humility in the face of the immensity of the facts he deals with is psychologically akin to the true democrat's sense of humility in the face of the complexity of the ideas of other group members.

As will be seen later, the basic need for information in a democratic system generates one of the most important opportunities for volunteer manpower. Unfortunately, in many corners of our democracy today, placing a value on "finding out the facts" is often labeled a "cop out" or a substitute for taking direct action. We have failed to train many of our citizens, particularly younger ones, to understand that diagnostic fact finding is a crucial part of disciplined action which maximizes the possibilities of success and of high quality results. In the area of interpersonal group relations we all can think of examples of the backlash and side effects and frustrated failures that follow from a lack of "fact-oriented realism" to where the significant action really is or ought to be.

Freedom from Status-Mindedness or Position-Mindedness. The spirit of equality as a fellow member and fellow human is another of the vital elements of a democratic value orientation. The individual or group that is preoccupied with problems of hierarchy, position, and status is developing in an antidemocratic direction. The spirit of equality does not imply that different members have the same capacities, resources, or competencies. But it does mean that problems of status do not preoccupy individual thinking and relationships. It means that individual differences in ability and competence in some areas or aspects of a situation do not spread to other nonappropriate areas, and that an individual's self-evaluation is not distorted by some particular area of expertness or inexpertness. It means that there is a flexible movement in and out of positions of leadership or acknowledged expertness as situations and tasks change. There is sensitivity to "who's good at what" now. The spirit of equality also means sensing the possibility of setting personal goals of achievement and recognition and developing the psychological freedom to look up to and acknowledge the resources of others without finding them a threat to the self.

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The Basic Orientation of Fairness. The early inculcation of the value of fairness in the young ones who are growing up in a democratic social context has been noted by many observers of cultural groups. A commitment to the notion of the equality of rights and opportunities is essential to democratic relationships. When competitive self-assertion does not become a ruling theme, then psychological forces in a democratic culture push toward this equality. Perhaps the most significant themes of confrontation in our national community, and in the personal self-consciousness of the members of our society today, have to do with violations of fairness: unfair treatment of the young by the older generation, of the women by the men, of the nonwhite minorities by the white majority, and of consumers by producers. Some of the most important and exciting needs for volunteering are in coping with issues of unfairness. The achieving and "policing" of fairness are great internal challenges to the democratic system.

Friendliness, Emotional Warmth, and Acceptance. One of the most impressive and consistent findings of the comparative studies of democracies, autocracies, and laissez-faire societies is that there are significant differences between the democratic situation and other situations in the levels of emotional warmth or friendliness of relationships. Attitudes of friendliness and acceptance seem to be critically necessary to make a democracy workable. Reciprocal trust and friendliness are required to support openness, to prevent or dissipate status-mindedness, to make fairness feasible, and to support the objectivity needed for a rational inquiry orientation. The French philosophers of democracy emphasized the importance of this ingredient in stressing *fraternity* equally with *liberty* and *equality*. In fact, psychological warmth, acceptance, and trust are so crucial to all the other dimensions of the democratic process that today the question is often asked, "How, in view of the increasing fragmentation, depersonalization, and polarization of our society, can the necessary conditions of interpersonal connection, acceptance, and friendliness be achieved?" Our conclusion is that voluntarism (both being a volunteer and receiving attention and service from volunteers who care) provides one of the greatest potentialities for saving and strengthening our democratic system.

The Need for Volunteers, for Volunteering, and for a Design for Voluntarism in a Democracy

In Chapter II we will be reviewing in some detail the directions of societal change that are confronting us with critical needs for volunteer manpower. Before we take up these changes, however, we would like to make a few general derivations from our discussion of democracy to the needs for voluntarism. As we see it, a democratic system needs members with a high level of commitment to voluntary participation in the affairs of the system. In a way, our first criterion of democracy, which was widespread involvement and participation in the affairs of the society, is a statement of self-initiated, self-motivated voluntarism. Many social analysts have echoed the statement of former President Herbert Hoover that "the essence of our self-government lies outside political government. Ours is a voluntary society." [4] Secretary of Housing and Urban Development George Romney has been even more explicit:

> In every community and every state across the country we need a program for voluntary action by the people, not just government action for the people—many problems can be tackled right at home, human and social problems like education, mental illness, traffic safety, urban decay, crime, delinquency, and family deterioration, through the organization of voluntary effort. Nothing can melt such human and social problems faster than the willingness of one individual to involve himself voluntarily in helping another individual overcome his problems. [5]

Analysis of a wide range of volunteer activities reveals an interesting fact. Most volunteer activity not only represents a significant contribution of energy and skill and individual resources to the functioning of democracy, but also makes a significant contribution to the volunteer's own psychological health and self-actualization. Volunteering offers many experiences necessary to democratic personality development. It is our conclusion that the individual volunteer needs volunteering just as much as the community needs him. This will become clear as we review briefly some of the types of volunteer activities implied in the foregoing descriptions of the dimensions of a democratic system and of a democratic personality.

[4] Quoted in Cornuelle, Richard C., and Finch, Robert. *The New Conservative Liberal Manifesto.* San Diego: Viewpoint Books, 1968. p. 109.
[5] *Ibid.,* p. 115.

Outreach Efforts To Get Participation and Involvement. In all sectors of our society, and in relation to many different opportunities and activities, one of the most pressing needs is for a corps of volunteers to help reach out to involve the inactive, the uninformed, the uninvolved, and the unconnected. A volunteer network is the only feasible and effective resource for this type of effort. It is now recognized that the volunteers should come from every sector of the community in order to function as a credible outreach network. Examples of volunteer outreach efforts would include a network of teen-agers from all subcultures working to involve junior high students in drug education activities, and an interracial, interage team interviewing all types of non-involved youth and adults to identify interests and needs.

Communicating and Linking. At many points in our analysis of the functioning of the democratic system we have indicated a need for communication between the fragmented and often polarized sections of the community which have different values, orientations, expectations, and outlooks. The mass media and the written word cannot, by themselves, begin to do the job of providing channels of communication, linkage, and collaborative coordination between the many interest groups and organizations. Volunteers are needed as binding elements in the development of a functional community. For example, older citizens and young adults could be recruited and trained as mediators between students and faculty and between teen-agers and parents. In some communities influential volunteers have been able to take the initiative in convening get-togethers of the leadership of public and private agencies that had been competitive and conflicting in their programs.

Planning and Decision Making. Traditionally, most volunteers have been used to carry out programs of activity planned by professionals. But the evidence is that the fresh viewpoint of volunteers is critically needed in the long-range planning and decision-making councils of the community and its agencies. A wide variety of volunteers and paraprofessionals bring to bear on planning and decisions very different points of view from those of the professionals.

Diagnostic Fact Finding. Realistic understanding of the increasingly disparate opinions and influences in our democracy is a neces-

sity for effective problem solving. We have seen that the diagnostic research function is one of the most undeveloped functions in the democratic nation and community. The public opinion poll experts can do only a small part. What is needed is a continuing process of diagnosis and feedback. A network of volunteer manpower, trained and supervised by professionals, is critically needed to be the observing eyes and listening ears of any pluralistic democratic community which is seeking and exploring consensus on basic values and crucial actions. The experiences of a number of communities reveal that volunteers can be trained to do a very sophisticated job of fact finding through interviewing and observation, that they welcome the necessary training and discipline, and that they find such a volunteer experience very significant for personal growth.

Discovering and Recruiting Human Resources. George Gallup, based on one of his polls, claims that 61 million American adults would like to go to work to improve their communities if they knew what to do and how. He estimates that the time these citizens could contribute as volunteers would amount to 245 million hours a week.[6] But to begin to use such resources requires trained, competent teams of volunteers and paraprofessionals working with professional leadership to identify and recruit potential workers, link them to significant activities, and support their efforts. It is hard to imagine a more exciting volunteer job than that of being a prospector for undiscovered and underused human resources.

Taking Leadership in the Appropriate Use of Professional Expertness. The limited number of highly trained professionals in most of the areas of educational and social technology requires that we develop expertness and efficiency in making the best, most flexible use of professional expertise. The leadership and initiative of key volunteers is vitally needed here. Experimental evidence indicates that when students are trained in the attitudes and skills of making effective use of teachers they make great gains in learning, and that when hospital patients are trained to use nurses and doctors more effectively they get well more quickly.

A rapid increase in the recruiting and training of paraprofessionals and volunteers is needed to carry out many of the functions formerly performed inadequately by the overextended pro-

[6] *Ibid.,* p. 6.

fessional. Moreover, because of their special skills and connections, volunteers are best equipped to perform many new functions.

Protecting Equality of Rights and Opportunities. Welfare, recreation, social control, health, culture, educational services, and many other functions can be carried out effectively only if there is a widespread network of concerned volunteers ready to "be their brothers' keepers," to act as protectors, supporters, consultants, and educators. In many areas of economic, political, and social injustice, such as housing, food prices, educational opportunities, job placement, and child welfare, volunteers with a deep concern, skilled intelligence, and committed initiative are the critical leverage for justice.

Preventing an Individual from Becoming a Statistic. We noted that as a democratic system becomes urbanized and industrialized the phenomena of bigness and fragmentation get in the way of some very basic requirements of a democracy. To stay involved and committed to participation one must feel that he is being reacted to and treated as a unique individual with unique needs and interests and with an influence on what goes on around him. Classroom instruction must be individualized; help and attention in the community must be personalized. As the society continues to become more complex and the needs for personal service multiply many times, there will be an increasing lag between the number of trained professionals and the magnitude of the service job to be done. The professionals will more and more have to become the recruiters, trainers, and supporters of teams of volunteers who will carry out the basic work of human relations and individualized support for the growth and development of each child and adult.

The Need for the Opportunity To Volunteer

In the preceding paragraphs we have identified some of the needs a democratic system has for the volunteer energy, time, and competence of its members. In Chapter IV we will see how much every individual needs the opportunity to be of service in order to grow toward self-actualization as a democratic caring-for-others person. The days of unequal opportunity for volunteering are passing, the days of the condescending "lady bountiful" and the fascinated slum explorer. The trends today are toward the

true voluntarism of a democracy, where giving and receiving are reciprocal, where humility arises from genuine caring and respect rather than from concern for the future of one's soul. A married couple we interviewed recently who had been serving three years in a pool of volunteers leading discussion groups on mental health films told us with conviction and excitement, "We're sure our volunteering has done more for us than we have for the groups we've met with. We keep learning things about ourselves that strengthen our marriage and help us to be better human beings." This is closer to the picture of voluntarism in a democracy, and of voluntarism in America as we see the trends developing.

II Societal Trends Affecting Voluntarism

The present frontiers of voluntarism can be discerned by understanding the present nature of our democratic society. The future frontiers of voluntarism can be foreseen by collecting the best predictions available about this society's future directions, and by making derivations about the emergence of new needs and opportunities for volunteer manpower.

In this chapter we want to pull together societal trends predicted in a number of studies about the future. We have selected the trends we believe have the most implication for change in the individual volunteer's opportunities and functions, and for change in the number and kinds of people who will be available as potential volunteers. These trends can also be viewed as having implications for the policies and programs of the organizations and institutions that use volunteer manpower. Here our purpose is primarily to be future-oriented and to stimulate our imagination and yours to think about images of potential. We shall be returning to these images in Chapter VIII when we present an illustrative model of human resources utilization.

We have selected eight general trends of the future for brief review in the remaining sections of this chapter, and in each case we have suggested some illustrative derivations relevant to voluntarism. We hope these derivations will provide a "start-up" for additional reflections of your own about implications for planning and for action.

The Increasing Rate and Complexity of Social and Technological Change

The Trend. The analysts of the future are in general agreement that we can expect a continuing acceleration of the rate of change in the conditions of human life. Among the results of this acceleration of change will be an increase in the complexity of the social

problems to be coped with and an increase in the interdependence between the various parts of the society as they attempt to solve them.

Until very recently, most of our directions for action came from largely unexamined traditions and social norms, which provided guidance based on the assumption that the core conditions of life would remain pretty much the same. Whitehead has summarized our current confrontation very clearly:

> Our sociological theories, our political philosophy, our practical maxims of business, our political economy, and our doctrines of education are derived from unbroken traditions and practical examples from the age of Plato . . . to the end of the last century. The whole of this tradition is warped by the vicious assumption that each generation will substantially live amid the conditions governing the lives of their fathers and will transmit these conditions to mold with equal force the lives of its children. We are living in the first period of history for which this assumption is false.[1]

Much of the content of the educational curriculum is out of date almost as soon as new books are published and new teachers are trained to teach it. Industries and other large organizations are experimenting with various concepts of flexible or temporary systems, including temporary manpower teams chosen for their complementary skills, to cope with current problems and to plan for the future. There is a great emphasis on the procedures for organizational renewal and change. The increased complexity of the problems to be solved will require new patterns of teamwork between public and private resources of money and manpower, as well as many new social inventions for collaboration, coordination, and interdependence between groups, organizations, states, and nations in solving problems. Teamwork linking the elders, the middle-aged, and the young will be critical. So will the allocation of a greater proportion of budget and manpower resources to continuous diagnostic fact finding and systematic planning.

Implications for Voluntarism. In the face of the rate and complexity of change, there is a tendency to become dependent on the experts. They, after all, have been involved in producing all this change, so why shouldn't they be able to tell us how to cope with it and live with it? This antivoluntarism trend must be counter-

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[1] Whitehead, Alfred North. *Adventures of Ideas.* New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. p. 117.

acted. The experts, because of the necessary specialization of their training and orientation, cannot be expected to provide the wide perspective necessary for innovative social problem solving. There will be many needs and opportunities for volunteers to contribute their sensitivity and perspective and value judgments in creatively dealing with and planning for change.

One of the important and undeveloped functions for volunteers which we noted in Chapter I is that of fact finding and diagnosis. Along with the increasing rate of change there will be an increasing accumulation of social inventions attempting to deal with and guide the change. We will need collaboration of the mass media and networks of volunteers in scanning for the most inventive models of solutions and in disseminating them to the public. There will be a great need for many volunteers to work on the frontiers of social change.

The trend of accelerated change obviously has major implications for organizations as well as for individual volunteers. The likelihood of rapid obsolescence of structure and function becomes greater as the rate of environmental change increases. Organizations will need to be resourceful in developing mechanisms of self-renewal and in creatively using all potential manpower resources. One of the problems will be the tendency for preoccupation with survival and internal change to divert energy and attention from the larger environment of interdependence with other agencies and organizations, at a time when more and more interdependence of effort and coordination of activity will be required. Volunteers with broad perspectives can be a great resource for organizations coping with these requirements of external interdependence.

Separation and Polarization of Social, Economic, and Political Groups

The Trend. It is generally predicted that the explosion of expectations and demands for a better life will continue to generate distrust and competition, polarization and conflict between different segments of society. A continuing development of the cohesion and potency of the peer culture among the young will widen the gap between the generations, as will the increase in the number of young people. Youth's faith in the ability of the older generation to give guidance in coping with the present and the emerging future will continue to decline. Female confrontations of the male-

dominated political and economic functions will intensify, as will the attack on the double standard in sexual mores. A coalition of all racial minorities is likely to confront the racial majority. The poor are developing an increasing sense of potency and outrage in their growing conflict with the affluent. The divisions between the radicals, the liberals, and the conservatives in political life are becoming more sharp. In various areas of our economy battle lines are being drawn between consumer groups and producers. Campuses are being increasingly disrupted by divisions between administrators, faculty, and students. New bases of conflict continue to emerge on the international scene. Issues of population pressure, food supply, industrialization, and territorial control will continue to create and aggravate conflict in the foreseeable future.

Faced with the uncertainties and complexities of change and the haunting images of a better life, groupings based on religion, skin color, age, etc., would seem to furnish some hope for security and for potency in achieving goals. But the solving of complex social problems, as well as the creating of conditions for personal mental health and creativity, clearly require the building of communities of interest and action and acceptance across the lines of current social cleavages and conflicts. The necessary interdependence between polarized groups in turn requires the development of new models of creative compromise which integrate the dimensions of conflict in the meeting of needs and the solving of problems.

Implications for Voluntarism. One of the critical needs and exciting opportunities will be for volunteers, along with professionals and paraprofessionals, to become skillful in taking the third party role in conflict resolution, working to develop acceptance of the difficult concept of creative compromise and demonstrating the feasibility of dealing creatively with conflict.

Another implication is that the great variety of betterment-seeking cause groups continually being formed will be rallying points for the recruitment and intensive involvement of volunteers. The proportion of volunteers giving their time and energy to social cause groups rather than to traditional voluntary agencies will probably continue to increase.

On the other hand, many of the established community institutions and agencies, such as the churches, welfare agencies, youth-serving organizations, and school systems, have great potential for initiating integrative efforts toward new communities of interest

that cut across the present polarizations. Goals of community improvement, environmental improvement, educational improvement, child care improvement, and health improvement (e.g., the fight against drug abuse and alcoholism) are shared by diverse groups and can become the basis for widespread collaborative effort, attracting the energy and commitment of all sectors of the community and providing opportunities for many exciting new frontiers of volunteer effort. Hopefully, new and more representative decision-making bodies will be formed, embracing young and old, black and white, consumer and producer, volunteer and professional.

Search for Personal Meaning, Identity, Self-Renewal, and Interpersonal Connection

One of the effects of the increasing complexity and "massness" of society is the individual's increasing sense of impotence and depersonalization. His anchorage to a small, secure, interpersonal "home base" and community of primary relations is replaced by a medley of influence attempts, demands, expectations, and invitations to divide his loyalties and diffuse his energies in many often competing and conflicting directions. In this context of social flux individuals are forced to rethink their answers to the question "Who am I?" Issues of self-evaluation, self-conception, vocational and citizen roles, family roles, and interpersonal relations must be faced.

The Trends. As we look into the future we can expect a great intensification of the current trends of search for meaningful philosophies of life, search for bases of security and intimacy in new patterns of interpersonal connections and new inventions for rejecting depersonalization and "doing one's own thing" as a protest and a defense against the mass society. This experimentation and search will take many forms, both personal and collective. More time and money will be invested in programs of self-improvement and sensitivity training. There will be much experimentation with new forms of collective living. Many creative attempts will be made to adapt the basic forms and practices of religion to contemporary life situations. There will be a tremendous growth in adult education programs. The protests against bureaucracy and standardization in the processing of human needs and services will take many new innovative forms.

Implications for Voluntarism. It will be quite impossible for the great increase in demand for personalization of services to be met by professional manpower resources. Much of the leadership of the expanding programs of self-study and relationship development will have to come from teams of trained, mature volunteers and paraprofessionals. Much of the tremendous expansion of personal counseling services will be supported by the development of teams of paraprofessionals and volunteers under the leadership and supervision of professionals. George Romney's concept of "one helping one," quoted in our first chapter, offers a challenge and an opportunity for voluntarism to help deal with one of the most critical of our social problems, depersonalization, and with one of the most exciting images of potential, the search for new, more satisfying answers to the questions "Who am I?" and "Who are we?"

The Changing Nature and Meaning of Work, Achievement, Leisure, and Consumption

The Trends. The General Electric "Study of the Future" notes,

> There will be a growing demand that a job be meaningful. The notion that hard or unpleasant work must be tolerated because it is unavoidable will have less and less acceptance. The concept that work is a *duty* and leisure must be earned will be more and more challenged.[2]

One of the traditional core values of our society, that self-esteem or self-worth is based on high achievement, is being challenged from many quarters today. Kenneth Benne points out one of the key issues of our current transition: "Work as we have known it may well disappear in the not too distant future from the lives of many persons." But he adds,

> The important part of school life still for most educators is *school work*, not school play or the acts of voluntary service undertaken by students in fulfilling their civic role inside and outside the schools. . . . We seem strangely unprepared as people, psychologically and morally, for this pervasive change that is going on around and within us. So long as self-esteem is tied up in our patterns of evaluation and action with gainful employment, the skills, the arts, and sensitivity required for tasteful and creative consumption and play, for voluntary services to self and others, for voluntary civic services and reconstruction will remain in the periphery of social life and education.[3]

[2] "A Study of the Future" is an unpublished study made by General Electric.
[3] Benne, Kenneth D. "Education and the Social Sciences," a chapter in the forthcoming volume, *Social Science in the School: A Search for Rationale,* edited by Irving

In this period of transition and rapid flux a number of values, old and new, are struggling for clarification and actualization. Is work a duty or an opportunity for voluntary commitment? Is a given standard of living something which much be earned by arduous work achievements or is it a right going along with membership in the society? Is the consuming of goods and services just as important and creative an act as the producing of goods and services? Is improvement in the skills and sensitivities of living harmoniously with others as important as improving the skills of productive work achievement? Are cooperative interdependence and concern for meeting the needs of others as important as competitive assertiveness in "getting ahead"? Automation and cibernation are steadily changing the nature of our technological environment, the needs of workers, and the number of working hours. At the same time the processes of value confrontation and experimentation with new patterns of living are changing the images of potentialities for living in this changing world.

Implications for Voluntarism. The steady increase in the amount of discretionary time available to people means that there will be a vast increase in the amount of volunteer time available and in the variety of persons potentially available as volunteers. At the same time, the continuing improvement in the quality of living will mean an increase in the desire for human services of various kinds, creating many new and exciting frontiers for voluntarism.

The predictable explosion in the demand for adult education, with particular emphasis on self-improvement and cultural sensitivity courses, will create the need for large numbers of trained paraprofessionals and volunteers to help on this educational frontier. Volunteers will also be needed as guides to the various cultural and leisure time resources of the community and as leaders of recreational, educational, and religious programs.

The Postindustrial Economy

The Trend. Already today over half of the paid positions are human service jobs rather than thing-production jobs. By 1975

it is predicted that at least 75 percent of the work roles in our society will be in human service. In this postindustrial society, improvement of the quality of living and learning means finding methods to improve the delivery of human services. Research and development will focus on improving the patterns of interpersonal relationships rather than on improving the skills of working with tools and materials.

Today, teaching the generic skills of people-helping is still unheard of in most schools. As we look ahead, we can predict dramatic changes in the concepts of occupational training and in the amount of school time devoted to the applied behavioral sciences. Preparation for both paid and volunteer human service roles will begin with the first grade and continue throughout the school years. In several pioneering school systems it is already a policy for every child above the third grade to function as an educational aide to a younger child on a volunteer basis every week.

Looking into the future, we also see growing emphasis on the skills and values involved in being an intelligent, sophisticated, sensitive consumer of services. One of the interesting images of the future which we find in several organizations and communities today is the development of "human resources banks," which are really directories of "who is good at what" and "who is ready to be used by others." A very effective social studies unit for third grade children on "How To Learn from Grown-Ups" is another example of concern for improving the consumption of services. With the tremendous increase in the variety of opportunities, seductive influence attempts through the mass media and other promotion efforts, and the multiplicity of groups inviting membership, it is critical that the major focus of education be on helping the young, and their elders, become critically selective and personally integrative in their choice of activities, relationships, and involvements.

Implications for Voluntarism. We foresee the development of "delivery of service teams" made up of volunteers, paraprofessionals, and professionals. Because the economy will not support a very large increase in the ratio of professionals to clients, there will be a large demand in education, medicine, and other fields for recruitment and training of volunteers as aides and co-workers.

Hopefully, another implication is that every individual from early childhood on will have opportunities and training to volunteer for significant people-helping efforts, so that he will develop the values, the motivations, and the skills to be an effective volunteer and will view volunteer activities as vitally important opportunities for self-growth and for making his contribution to the community.

Changes in the Institutions and Programs for the Socialization of the Young

The Trends. One of the most rapidly emerging social trends, and one that is of great concern to many adults, is the tendency for youth to take over the direction of their own education and socialization processes. A number of studies suggest that the movement toward self-socialization on the part of the young is not so much a rejection of their elders as it is an expression of disappointment with the lack of relevant guidance they have been receiving. Supporting this interpretation is the enthusiasm with which the young respond to invitations to go into partnership with their elders in dealing responsibly with community and national problems such as political elections, environmental deterioration, and civil rights. They eagerly seize opportunities for useful apprenticeships in social agencies and in the work world, opportunities to become involved in meaningful religious experiences, and opportunities to contribute their own artistic products—music, art, dance, and others—to the total richness of our cultural life.

Of course, there are also serious forces of destruction, alienation, and irresponsibility in youth's self-socialization process which sometimes manifest themselves in the fierce autonomy of "doing our own thing" and in the aggressive acts of rebellious violence. These would seem to predict an accelerating trend of polarization, separation, and conflict between the generations and a decline in influence by adult socialization agents and agencies, were it not for other trends which suggest the emergence of a different pattern or at least a parallel pattern. We see older peers becoming linkers and mediators between elders and the young. We see an increasing number of sensitive and sophisticated adults identified with the youth culture winning acceptance and

providing linkage and resources in the development of meaningful dialogue and reciprocality of influence with the established power systems. We see senior citizens teaming up with the young in rational and creative strategies for influencing the establishment. We see the leadership of the peer culture beginning to use the consultation of professionals to develop the resources and skills needed for effective transition into core participation and influence in the larger society. Clearly much of the future creativity and stability of our society depends on the directions in which this socialization process will move. The youth are tremendously in need of the problem-solving technology and long-range strategic thinking of the applied social science professionals. At the same time they are disillusioned and distrustful about the availability of noncoercive help from the older generation.

The trends in the socialization of the young child are another area of great interest. People are getting married at an earlier age, and the attitudes toward marriage are changing rapidly. There is experimentation with various patterns of collective living in which children have an environment of a variety of parental figures rather than just two. Women are meeting with some success in their demands that the community develop child care services to permit mothers to compete and collaborate equally with fathers in employment and in community service activities. As a result of these trends, more children are experiencing a greater variety of nonparental adult socialization agents at an earlier age.

Implications for Voluntarism. The traditional youth-serving organizations will be required to reorient their policies, their programs, and their structures to meet young people's demands for relevance and shared power in decision making and program planning. The days of traditional programs of youth work and youth service are clearly numbered. Obsolescence is rapid now and will accelerate.

It seems safe to predict that there will be a great and growing need for sensitive adults—old, middle-aged, and young—to discover significant roles as volunteers in linking the younger generation to meaningful opportunities for collaboration and involvement in the larger community. As the young experiment with such complex areas as drug use, premarital and nonmarital sex relations, political activism, and alternatives to the current

economic system, they have great need for the perspectives, confrontations, and emotional support of nonauthoritarian helping adults or older young people.

It will certainly be impossible for professional manpower to cope with the greatly increased demand for child care and parent substitute services. Volunteers will be needed here. The parent education and marriage education fields will also offer many opportunities for trained volunteers.

Our Natural Environment and Human Resources

The Trends. As we look ahead we can see a rising tide of sensitivity to the exploitation, pollution, neglect, and scarring of our natural environment, and to the creation of ugly and dysfunctional man-made environments—cities, mass-constructed suburbs, commercial forests of signs, and deafening waves of discordant noise. Rational approaches to problem solving will be at a premium for a while. There will be many Pied Pipers of cultish solutions, and many demands for followership. And there will be many defensive maneuvers to avoid the energy and expense of large-scale air and water clean-up, beautification, population dispersion, architectural relevance, and local and regional planning. It seems safe to predict more widespread citizen involvement than ever before in political and economic problems that have relevance for everyone. Because these problems will loom so large in the future, they will present a great potential for constructive dialogue and collaboration between the generations.

Our misuse and lack of use of our human resources is just as tragic a scandal as our misuse and overuse of our natural ones. Our indices of gross national product and of level of employment are misleading, because they hide the true facts about the tragically low level of motivated energy being contributed by our total potential manpower pool, as well as the great misappropriations of time and energy. We can look ahead to many explosions of discontent and efforts to deal with our misuses of human resources. Women are beginning to protest once again the stereotyping that limits their roles and contributions. The blacks and other neglected minorities are being heard on their exclusion from opportunities to develop and use their talents appropriately. Large numbers of the young are expressing their discontent by withdrawing from achievement-oriented activities

and from the development of the knowledge and skills required for full contribution.

Although the rate of obsolescence of particular job roles is increasing, we have made relatively little progress in providing opportunities for reorientation and retraining for new careers. Poor use of the information we have from social psychology about how to make working conditions interesting means that great masses of our workers work at a very low level of motivation, spend a great deal of energy on peer collusions to restrict their output, and get their satisfactions from success in conflicts with management rather than from pride in work. The exploitation and pollution of our natural environment are indeed serious, but the underdevelopment and dissipation of our human resources are just as dangerous for the vitality and future of our society.

Implications for Voluntarism. The political action projects, both local and national, required to cope with the issue of quality of environment must depend primarily on volunteer energies. To avoid blind alleys and false starts the volunteers will of course need to use effectively the most expert help available, but volunteer effort will be the real basis for any success in winning and guaranteeing a future for ourselves in a livable habitat.

As we have indicated earlier, the organization and use of human resource banks can be a tremendously important and exciting effort for volunteers. One of the greatest needs here is to find ways to induce more and more fellow citizens to get out of their passive rut and to give their time and energy to activities that promote personal growth and improve the community. Enticing others to explore and develop their human potential is indeed an exciting challenge for volunteers and their professional helpers.

Involvement in a World Society [4]

The Trend. Related to the first trend we identified, that of the increasing rate and complexity of change and the necessary increase in the interdependence of those segments of the society involved in coping with the change, is the trend toward international collaboration in problem solving. Many of our current

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[4] Much of our discussion here has been derived from Kenneth Benne, *op. cit.*, p. 5.

and future problems require international or worldwide effort if there is to be any chance of successful coping: the problems of peace, population, pollution, poverty, food supply, and natural resources, among others. As Benne puts it, "Both human survival and effective meeting of human needs require effective actions on a world scale along with the development of adequate instrumentalities to form, inform, and sanction such actions." But, Benne continues,

Efforts by nationals to bring world-minded attitudes and criteria to bear in criticism and improvement of national policies, whether in public forms or in educational programs, are condemned or suspended as traitorous or disloyal by large segments of the totally committed or deeply anxious segments of the national population, and not infrequently by the national governments.

In our current phase of national and world development, "nationalism" is still linked in the minds of vast numbers of people with liberation and freedom and redefinition of personal identity. Citizenship has been defined in national terms, and no effective alternative citizenship concept has been developed. The rationality of those in many nations who now advocate a transfer of allegiance from national symbols and authorities to transnational ones is, as Benne says,

... forced into conflict with their loyalty when questions of "national good" and "world good" come to the fore in choice and in action. The energy and thought tends to dissipate itself in rationalization of national loyalties and into subversions of these loyalties rather than to inventing ways of reconciling world and national interest and of advancing both.

One of the great challenges of the future will be to invent and test out new ways of accepting and dealing creatively with confronting multiple loyalties within the self. We have referred to this previously as discovering the potential of creative compromise. One of the barriers to personal and collective growth toward effective membership in a pluralistic world is the negative connotations we have ascribed to the idea of compromise. Here indeed is a major challenge for reeducating ourselves and educating the next generation.

Implications for Voluntarism. A good starting point in preparing for the future would be to set up opportunities for ourselves and for the younger generation to join in significant probing dialogues with persons of different national cultures. The initiation

and leadership of such activities could be a very challenging function for volunteers. Initiating exchanges of information and points of view with groups in other countries has proved to be a very feasible and meaningful pattern, as yet undeveloped in most schools, recreational and political systems, and communities.

Many of our national volunteer organizations have international counterparts and connections. Most of them have developed some programs of international exchange. These could be the focus and the leverage for interagency collaboration in the development of large enough programs of international dialogue to begin to have political and economic significance. The opportunities for volunteer leadership seem very substantial. The freedom of the policy-making volunteers from immediate operating demands would facilitate openness to change.

Conclusion

We hope this discussion of societal trends with implications for the development of voluntarism has been a springboard for your own thinking about the future. In the next chapter, we want to turn our attention to the many trends emerging *within* the world of voluntarism which will also have a significant impact in the years ahead.

III Emerging Changes in the World of Voluntarism

The trends and changes emerging in the world of voluntarism are exciting because they indicate that voluntarism is becoming one of the major means of providing human services. That is, agencies and institutions, both private and public, are extending their activities, programs, and services through a greatly increased use of volunteer manpower. As the number of hours, days, and years of paid work decline, more and more people will be involved in meaningful volunteer activity. Indeed the Nixon Administration has made it very clear that voluntarism is one of the ways in which the citizens of this country can increase their help to each other and to themselves, and thus make the democratic system work more effectively. As we look at emerging changes and the current and future need for volunteer manpower, we can make several assumptions.

Some Background Generalizations

The needs for human service in today's complex, interdependent, and changing society go far beyond the economic potential for paid services. For example, the support for the public school and for other public and private agency programs is not likely to provide a base for any changes in the ratio of professionals to clients. The teacher-to-student ratio will tend to remain about 1 to 25 or 30. At the same time, there is need for more personal and individualized services. The clear implication is for the development of teams of volunteers and paraprofessionals working with professionals to extend services.

The role of the professional in many human situations is becoming that of manager. He is in-service trainer or consultant to team members, leader of planning and evaluation, coordinator of the teamwork of those working with him. This is a new role for the professional person. Instead of giving direct service to clients, he is really giving his direct service to members of the team.

The outreach, involvement, and caring efforts needed in working with the neglected, the rejected, and the powerless require a mobilization of the efforts of a widespread network of local volunteers—people who live in the same area as the clients and who become skillful in helping their peers. Local volunteers avoid the communication gaps and distrust that often arise between professionals and clients of different racial, ethnic, economic, and educational backgrounds.

There is a serious lack of preparation for competent and motivated voluntarism in the early learning experiences of children, particularly of those in underdeveloped neighborhoods. Most of the training for voluntarism and the development of attitudes and values concerning volunteering should occur during the early years of school. The curriculum and the educational experience program should emphasize the giving and receiving of help. Many schools are offering very exciting opportunities for peers to help each other and for older students to work with younger students. Such opportunities need to be a part of the upper elementary and early secondary school years, followed by opportunities for in-school and out-of-school apprenticeship.

The school, through tutorial and cross-age projects, can provide many opportunities for career explorations, in addition to training for the volunteer role. During these explorations of occupational roles, the students need to have a continuing "practicum seminar" providing opportunities for them to relate their field experience to their classwork and to share and analyze personal experiences, value problems, inquiries about the world of work, analyses of occupational trends, and connections between the requirements of various types of occupational roles and academic training.

One of the needs of citizens in a democratic society is to be able to help voluntarily in the problem-solving processes of the society. Yet, in almost any newspaper, one can find illustrations of avoidance by neighbors or fellow citizens when collective action is needed to solve a problem. Much experience and skill can be gained through training and volunteer work involved with social problem solving. For example, when students have received training in skills revelant to solving campus problems and have then had some successful experiences with collective and collaborative action, they are much more able to make decisions, solve prob-

lems, and help others do so. They are also more willing to take risks. An example of such training is a volunteer curriculum where teams of four students each identify a problematic aspect of their environment with which they would like to try to work. In their laboratory course they study the methods of action research and problem solving and carry through a diagnosis of their problem situation, developing a strategy for problem solving with consultation from the teacher and others, including their peers. They then carry through a voluntary action effort and an evaluation of its success.

In a world in which a small percentage of the population will be able to provide all of the goods and services for the rest, it will be extremely necessary to provide avenues of meaningful volunteer activity for people who are not fully employed. It will be increasingly important that agencies and institutions offer worthwhile opportunities for volunteer participation.

Members of the various generations do not now communicate well with each other. To improve their dialogue possibilities and bridge some of the communication gaps between them, they will need opportunities to work together in intergenerational volunteer teams. Examples of this kind of activity include tutorial projects with olders and youngers working as teams to tutor older people who need to learn the English language, and intergenerational teams visiting lonely patients in nursing homes.

Policy making and action taking in a democracy assume and require widespread involvement and are totally dependent on commitment of volunteer time and energy. As the society becomes larger, more differentiated, and more diffuse, as its functions of maintenance and growth become more complex, more volunteer time and energy must be given to citizenship activities if the society is to continue to evolve as a democratic one. As the rate of social change increases, and as change becomes a more complex process, there is increased need for the perspective and energy of volunteers to create the necessary confrontations to the establishment manned by professionals and technicians.

Traditionally, volunteers have been recruited only from the upper and upper-middle class white Protestant sectors of the community. There has been and still is unequal opportunity to volunteer. Because of the chances for personal growth and social recognition provided by volunteering, as well as the great need

for volunteers with special sensitivity to the alienated and neglected members of the community, there must be an active effort to spread the opportunities for voluntarism throughout the community.

Trends Toward Greater Volunteer Utilization

As our society has been changing, so have the values and practices regarding the use of volunteers. Some of the recent trends in the world of voluntarism may help us look ahead to fuller community utilization of volunteers.

One obvious trend is that *the importance of volunteering and voluntarism is being discussed more widely* at all levels of the society and the community. The federal administration and many state and local governments are promoting and supporting the use of volunteers. For example, one recent piece of legislation provides that public social welfare departments must have volunteers on their advisory committees and in other roles and must hire or promote a civil servant to be the director of these volunteers.

Another trend is for both private and public employers to put *more emphasis on the value of volunteer service on the part of their employees.* While it is not entirely new for private businesses to encourage their executives and subexecutives to participate in community affairs and to have their wives participate, it is now increasingly felt that workers from all levels should become active volunteers in the community. The Pacific Telephone and Telegraph Company, for example, encourages employees through small group training to participate in political, social, and educational activities in their communities.

A great effort is currently being made to recruit *new volunteer manpower,* including people who have never volunteered before, especially those from the economically poorer sections of our communities. The volunteer opportunities include a variety of decision-making and service activities. There is a strong trend to involve educational, recreational, and health students in the social services of the community. Greater efforts are being made to recruit retired volunteers, and there is an increasing trend to use technical and professional resources on an extracurricular basis. Professionals are being recruited to give their volunteer time to tutorial projects, urban action commissions, fair housing committees, and other

causes. There are also increasing numbers of young volunteers anxious to serve, often more than the agencies can place.

In another trend, volunteers are serving as *links between the institution and its clients.* Examples are the doctor's aide who is a link between the doctor and the patient; the paraprofessional who serves as a community aide and tries to link parents to the school and vice versa; the public health center aide who informs community residents of available services for which they are eligible.

Among the new patterns of volunteer participation is *the use of pairs.* For example, a middle class volunteer is paired with a local poverty area volunteer to lead a new youth group in a poverty area. Another new pattern is *the use of teams of professionals, paraprofessionals, and volunteers* to work together in classroom teaching, medical service, child care activities, social work services, tutoring, and many other areas of community activity. New ways are being found to divide service to clients by analyzing the different resources of the professional, the paraprofessional, and the volunteer. In other words, there is some search to see who can do what piece of the job best.

The concept is emerging that *volunteers are an important and integral part of the service team.* Many agencies and organizations are finding that fewer volunteers want desk and clerical jobs. They prefer social action and direct service to clients. There is a growing emphasis on this new volunteer role.

Another development is *the career ladder of voluntarism,* which encourages moving up or over from one job level to another. In some cases this means using volunteer experiences as training for, and stepping stones to, paid career jobs in such fields as education, recreation, health, probation, and parole. In other cases it means that types of work formerly labeled professional are now being entrusted to skilled volunteers. For instance, a family service agency is recruiting volunteers and training them to be assistants or aides to the social worker. They are learning how to make home visits and how to counsel selected clients.

Not only new levels of work, but also *many new settings are now open* to volunteers. Volunteers are sought for various roles in the field of corrections, long closed to them. Public schools are achieving significant extension of their services by allowing volunteers to work directly with children in educational activities.

City and state governments are beginning to recruit volunteers for important functions in relation to planning and urban renewal. The development of the "Hot Line" movement with over-the-phone counseling by trained volunteers is another new kind of volunteer opportunity. The counselors must deal with a variety of problems such as mental illness and threatened suicide.

Another trend we have found in many areas is that *the clients of agencies are becoming volunteers themselves.* In one project where volunteers were educating people to participate in local elections, many of the learners in turn became volunteer teachers of others, because of their enthusiasm for the project. Another example is the welfare client who now sits on welfare department advisory committees.

As volunteers representing a broader cross section of the community are being used in new patterns and new settings, agencies are beginning to realize that they *need to include budget items for incidental volunteer expenses,* such as transportation, parking, conference registration, and meals. Both local and national organizations are now picking up these tabs for their volunteers.

We have noticed another interesting trend in our observations of the world of voluntarism: there is *more use of volunteers on a temporary or ad hoc basis.* Volunteers may be recruited to do short-term tutoring, to act as temporary advisers, or to work on a crash project, for instance, without necessarily being recruited to serve the agencies forever.

There is a *new emphasis on the importance of training for the volunteer.* New opportunities for volunteer training are being offered by university extensions, by adult education departments, and by agencies acting in a group for this purpose. These opportunities include courses and seminars for the new volunteer, the board member, and the direct service volunteer. Increasingly, the volunteer is being sought to help plan his own training so that it will meet his needs. Often the training is given at various points in the volunteer's career, rather than all at the beginning, so that it becomes of ongoing and maximum use to him. A corollary trend is toward more training of volunteer trainers; that is, more volunteers are being trained to train other volunteers. In community action programs local people have been trained in particular community skills and then trained to help other people learn to participate. Also, more audiovisual training materials are avail-

able and being developed. They deal with such topics as white racism and better human relations in the school. There is likewise an increase in the use of behavioral scientists as consultants to help in the training of volunteers and volunteer trainers.

Some of the professional schools are becoming concerned about the need for better training of professionals to work with volunteers. These include schools of social work, education, medicine, recreation, and public health. It is necessary for professionals in all the "people-helping" fields to have skills in the recruitment, orientation, training, retraining, supervision, and development of volunteers.

Another very significant development in voluntarism is the *emergence of autonomous volunteer movements* to supplement the traditional agencies and institutions. Various types of action and process groups have mobilized volunteer efforts—for example, those formed to protect consumers from unfair practices in relation to rent, food, prices, legal services, and credit. Some groups have developed "watchdog" programs manned by volunteers. Others are providing consultation and educational services to consumers to help them better use the human and material resources available in the medical, social, legal, health, welfare, and recreational fields. Often, these voluntary cause groups are grass roots organizations whose members really know and understand the need for their services. The following are some of the characteristics of these groups:

- There is usually a conscious effort on the part of the leadership to build a participatory democracy.
- They are energized around specific social issues.
- They often have a high mortality rate or short life span, often because their causes are temporary ones.
- They are able to take risks that many of the establishment organizations cannot take, because the viability of these voluntary cause organizations depends on continuously meeting needs of members, rather than organizational needs per se.
- By and large, they are poorly funded and understaffed.
- They are highly suspicious of establishment help and demand that "outsiders" take an advocacy role.
- They operate informally and devise only such ground rules as seem necessary.
- They seem to find it hard to collaborate with other groups

which have similar goals but come from other racial, regional, and economic levels.[1]

Trends of Resistance to the Use of Volunteers

Running parallel to the trends toward a fuller mobilization of volunteer manpower are trends of resistance to the active and widespread use of volunteers. The efforts to use volunteers in new areas and to promote them to new levels of responsibility are met in some quarters with cautiousness, resistance, and rejection. One type of resistance arises from the increasing pressures of professional and technical training and certification. In the pursuit of a higher quality of professionalism, protective associations seek to maintain standards and to clarify the boundaries of professional competence. Traditionally, there has been a very distinct and complete separation between the professional and the volunteer. The *increase in ambiguity about competence* increases the professional's resistance to extending fuller participation to the volunteer as a member of the service team and allowing him to do more meaningful and more "professional" tasks. The specific and highly individual resources of both the volunteer and the professional are not used to their fullest in situations where such resistance is a factor.

The current trend for the professional to become more of a trainer and consultant to teams of volunteers and paraprofessionals results in *much less contact between the professional and the client.* The professional loses the immediate interpersonal reward that flows from the response of clients. In many cases he feels threatened by the volunteers' moving into the most meaningful direct contact with clients—for example, when volunteer case aides deal directly with the client while the professional social worker deals only with the case aide.

Often, as the need for volunteer training expands, the professional becomes more and more aware of his *lack of background and ability to be a trainer.* His feelings of incompetence in this area lead him to resist further programs of volunteer mobilization.

Changes in the professional curricula are slower than changes in the outside world. In many cases, therefore, the *local volun-*

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[1] These characteristics were identified by Harold Kellner in "Grass Roots Voluntarism," a proposal for an action-research program in the Boston metropolitan area.

teers have more relevant information and skills than the professionals. This situation is, of course, threatening to the professionals and often leads them to resist maximum utilization of the volunteers.

Particularly in metropolitan areas, today's *volunteers are often recruited from the same area as the clients* of the human service organizations. Consequently, they may have a much closer association with the clients, more sensitivity to their situation, and greater ease in getting accepted than the professionals have. This state of affairs, which the professionals naturally perceive as a threat, makes it hard for them to give the necessary help and support to the volunteers. It is particularly apt to arise where the middle class white professional is working with clients and volunteers of a different race, age, and social and economic background.

Many volunteers are proving difficult for the professionals because they may be *very articulate about their expectations* and their status, and critical of their assignments if they don't like them or don't understand them. Many volunteers are finding in some of the newer, more autonomous cause programs greater excitement, more freedom from restraint, and wider opportunities for meaningful participation than in the traditional volunteer roles and agencies.

Further hampering the appropriate use of volunteer manpower are the *lack of interagency sharing* of program priorities and client populations and the lack of collaboration in the identifying, recruiting, and training of volunteers. Thus a highly competitive orientation develops, and a possessive attitude about "our clients" and "our volunteers."

One of the bases of tension between volunteers and professionals is *the tradition of "confidentiality"* which has excluded volunteers from the inner workings and records of many agencies. As volunteers assume more responsibility this tradition becomes dysfunctional, but professionals still tend to use it as a basis for resistance to full volunteer participation.

A number of *myths maintained by professionals* contribute to their resistance to volunteers: "They don't get paid, so they can come and go as they please"; "They hire us, so they think they are better than we are and can fire us"; "They are volunteers and therefore not professionally competent"; "They only

spend a few hours a week, and they are not as committed as the professional"; "They meet their needs and not ours, and they take too much professional time to consult with and to supervise"; "They crowd an already crowded facility"—these are some of the myths.

As we look at these causes of professional resistance in light of the changes toward more widespread use of volunteer in more significant roles, we can predict that a great deal of tension will continue to develop. Many professionals will continue to resist using volunteer and paraprofessional manpower fully. Obviously we need to work with professionals in the professional schools and on the job to help them develop more favorable attitudes toward the use of the vast resources of volunteer manpower.

A Taxonomy of Voluntarism

Perhaps it will be of interest to consider ways in which to classify the world of the volunteer today. One way might be according to the sectors of the society using and/or providing volunteers. These would include—

1. *Public agencies,* that is, governmental tax-based organizations (public school systems, public welfare systems, community mental health centers, mental health hospitals, correctional agencies, public health facilities, recreational systems, museums, and others).

2. *Privately financed agencies and/or organizations,* such as YM-YWCA, Girl Scouts, Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Girls Clubs of America, family service agencies, volunteer bureaus, community centers and settlements, and many others. Also included here would be the business sector—particularly those businesses encouraging their personnel to get involved in volunteer efforts in the community.

3. *Extraestablishment efforts* (grass roots action-oriented cause organizations, including, for example, student protest groups, some of the neighborhood and community efforts that work on specifics like lack of garbage collection, political groups such as youth for a given candidate, draft counseling groups, and other local and national action groups). Most of these work toward a political or other special cause with great energy and fairly informal procedures.

Volunteers are used in these three sectors on policy- and decision-making bodies such as boards of directors, in giving direct service, and in implementing policies and decisions through direct action. Service may be the primary focus and may sometimes result in action. Examples of direct volunteer service include transporting sick persons to the hospital, finding public health nurses to help the sick, and instructing in baby care. Such efforts may result in the establishment of maternal and infant health projects for young mothers. Service to Head Start youngsters by volunteers has resulted in action to get better quarters, better curricula, and better human resources for these youngsters. On the other hand, action as a primary focus may also result in service: an action-oriented project to get all the neighbors in a given census tract to register for voting might include helping them learn where and how to vote.

Another way to look at the volunteer world is to divide it by the functions of the community, in each of which there are needs and opportunities for volunteers. These functional subcommunities include—

1. *The recreation and leisure time community* (public and private recreational and leisure time efforts, as well as commercial and business recreational efforts).

2. *The cultural community* (both public and private cultural efforts including the arts, dance, music, writing, drama, and museums).

3. *The educational community* (public, private, and parochial schools, and both formal and informal adult education).

4. *The economic community,* including private business.

5. *The political community,* including governmental functions as well as political organizations.

6. *The welfare community* (private and public welfare efforts and some union efforts in relation to the welfare of the worker).

7. *The religious community,* including volunteer opportunities such as the teaching of Sunday School and the providing of a variety of programs and educational activities for younger and older people in church settings.

8. *The health community* (public, private, and business health facilities and opportunities).

9. *The social control community,* including police, court, probation, corrections, and parole efforts and activities.

10. *The mass communication community,* including TV, newspapers, radio, and other varieties of mass communication, on both large and small levels.

11. *The physical, geographic, or ecological community,* including opportunities for volunteers to serve as physical planning aides, newcomer welcomers, statistical documenters, etc.

A third way to classify the volunteer world is to divide it into two basic categories of volunteer manpower, the underutilized and the fully utilized. Potential volunteers who are underutilized include—

- *Elders.* The older segment of our population plays a very small role in the volunteer world, considering the number of elders there are and the resources they have to offer.
- The *nonjoiners,* or unaffiliated persons. Most recruitment efforts are aimed at people who already belong to something, such as the PTA or a church, and therefore can be motivated through that organization. Traditionally very little has been done to recruit, select, and place the person who is not already in an organization or group.
- *Men,* especially single men. The middle-aged married white businessman may be found on many boards and committees, but generally there are far fewer men than women working as volunteers. The primary need of many organizations is for male volunteers.
- *Minority group members.* People of all races, including poor whites, depending on the community, may find themselves in minority groups which are largely ignored in the recruitment of volunteers. Buddhists, Moslems, Jews, and members of other religious minorities, as well as those people not belonging to any religious body, are also among the underutilized potential volunteers.
- *Persons lacking formal education.* The person who has not had at least a high school education is often looked down upon by the professional recruiting him. As yet, many of the application blanks for volunteer workers still ask that the volunteer indicate his level of education.
- *Poor people,* who have not been given the opportunity to volunteer until very recently. Here are some unbelievably rich sources that have traditionally been untapped.
- *Persons in rural areas.* Agricultural extension agents tell us

that it is difficult to get rural people, who may live far from their neighbors, to volunteer.

- *The young.* Though recently encouraged to tutor, the young still find volunteer opportunities hard to come by.
- *The nonconformists.* College students with long hair, persons who do not believe in God and say so, are often implicitly excluded from the more established volunteer programs (if only by the oath of the organization, which may require that one indicate his religious affiliation).
- *Physically and mentally handicapped persons.*
- *Institutionalized persons,* whether they be in prison, forestry camps, mental hospitals, or foster homes.
- *Blue collar workers* in some areas.

  Clusters of highly utilized volunteers include—

- Middle-aged, white, married (usually Protestant) women.
- Middle-aged, white, married business and professional men.
- Persons with religious affiliation and motivations.
- Upward mobile business and professional men.
- Educated black and brown men.
- Visible, experienced volunteers, that is, volunteers who are so active that everybody in the community knows and wants them.
- Members of certain social groups such as the Junior League, the Junior Chamber of Commerce, and others.

Conclusion

We have seen that the world of voluntarism in the United States is experiencing some massive changes. These changes necessitate new techniques and new procedures to find, recruit, select, place, orient, and train volunteers. A new book at in-service training must also be taken. Mobility of job ladders within an organization or between organizations must be developed. Evaluation, quality control, horizontal referral and linkage, separation, termination or graduation, awards and procedures for recognition—all are functions requiring innovation and creative utilization of the resources that are available. So far most organizations and agencies do very little to help each other in such areas as the finding of underutilized segments of the population. Little has been done in interagency cooperation for the purpose of volunteer orientation and training. The changing world of voluntarism demands new action in these directions.

IV The Motivational Dynamics of Voluntarism

In the previous chapters we have seen how important it is to the present and future creative functioning and development of democratic systems to increase the amount, the quality, and the variety of volunteer service. In this chapter we want to focus on the motivation of volunteers. Successful voluntarism will come about only if individuals feel motivated toward it. "Improvement in the delivery of services" remains an abstract phrase unless more and more individuals become motivated to volunteer their time and energy, to make the commitment, and to achieve the skills needed to provide these services.

Understanding and supporting the motivation of the individual volunteer are critical. The forces that influence and determine the decision to volunteer one's time and energy are located both inside and outside the individual decider. Common motivating forces include the feelings of "I want to because it sounds fun and interesting," "It's my duty to help," "Something needs to be done," "They want and need me," and "Unless I join in and help they can't be successful." Each of these is a quite separate and distinct force.

Of course, before the decision to volunteer can be faced at all, the opportunity to volunteer must be made available to the individual. Administrators and other professionals have to define activities as needing volunteer help and have to decide to recruit volunteers. The forces that determine these decisions of the professionals and policy makers are again both internal and external. Again, they vary widely, from the feeling of "I need their help" to "Policy and budget require me to work with volunteers" to "They need me and I need them" to "They are a necessary evil, more bother than help."

In this chapter we want to look at motivational dynamics both within the life space of the volunteer and within the life

space and organizational space of the professional who uses volunteers. We hope the following questions will help us in our exploration of the motivation of the volunteer:

1. What are the key forces involved in the individual decision to volunteer or to avoid volunteering? To put a significant proportion of one's discretionary time and energy into volunteer activity or to make only a minor contribution?

2. What forces guide the decision as to the type of volunteer activity one will commit oneself to?

3. What are the bases of the decision to make a commitment to personal learning, to develop the skills needed to make a high quality contribution in one's volunteer work?

4. What are the bases of the decision to continue or discontinue volunteer work after a period of service?

In exploring the life space of the users of volunteers we need to try to understand the motivational bases of—

1. The decision to perceive and accept the need for volunteers.

2. The decisions to define and provide particular volunteer jobs and to recruit particular volunteers for these roles.

3. The decision to give priority to the support and training of volunteers.

4. The commitment to learn from and to be influenced by interaction and collaboration with volunteers.
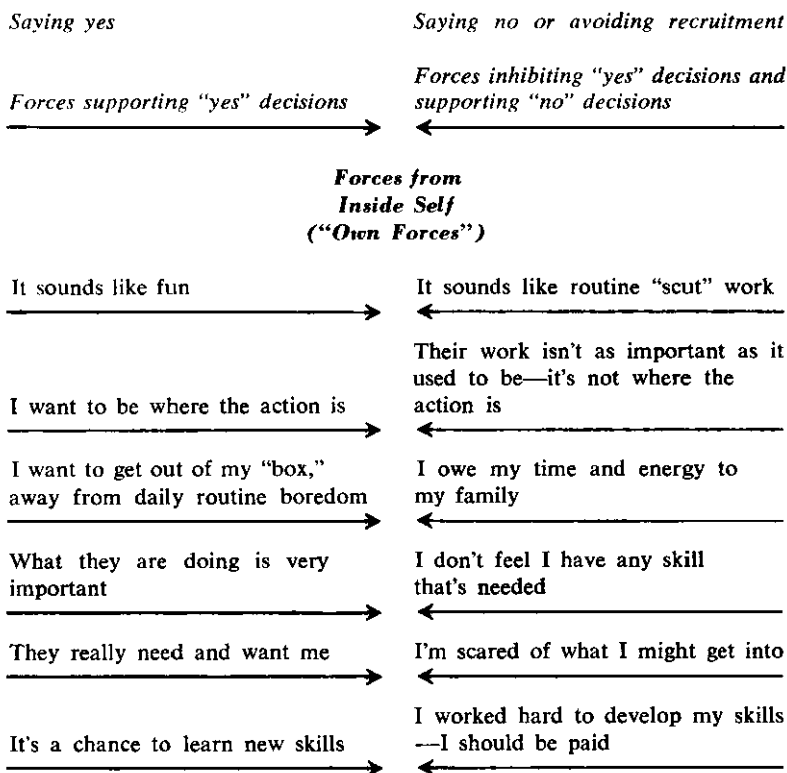
To Volunteer or Not To Volunteer

Let's assume for a moment that we are listening in to the thoughts of individuals trying to decide whether to commit their volunteer time and energy to some activity or program. We find we can organize what they are thinking in several ways. First of all, we can break down the forces motivating them into two main groups: those pushing toward a "yes" and those pushing toward a "no" decision on volunteering. These two sets of forces are listed in the decision force field in figure 1, which follows the model of Kurt Lewin.[1] Each set is further subdivided into motivational forces that come from inside the self (what Lewin has called "Own Forces"), those that originate outside the self, in the relationship one has with other persons and the membership one has in certain groups ("Interpersonal and

[1] Lewin, Kurt. "Frontiers in Group Dynamics: Concept, Method, and Reality in Social Science; Social Equilibria and Social Change." *Human Relations* 1:5-41; June 1947.

Group Member Forces"), and those based on characteristics of the total situation of the decision maker: issues of geography, time and space, transportation, economics, etc. ("Situational Forces").

All the forces shown in figure 1 are not operating in any one person as he faces any one decision, of course. The list is a summary across a number of persons and decisions. Moreover, these forces are not equally strong, and they do not have the same strength for different persons. If we were representing a particular person making a particular decision, only some of the forces would be relevant, and their strength would be quite variable. As you study figure 1, you can no doubt make additions to it from your own experience and from that of volunteers you have known.

Figure 1.   The Decision To Volunteer or Not To Volunteer

Saying yes   *Saying no or avoiding recruitment*

                                                        Forces inhibiting "yes" decisions and
Forces supporting "yes" decisions   *supporting "no" decisions*

$\longrightarrow$ $\longleftarrow$

Forces from
Inside Self
("Own Forces")

It sounds like fun	It sounds like routine "scut" work
$\longrightarrow$	$\longleftarrow$
	Their work isn't as important as it used to be—it's not where the
I want to be where the action is	action is
$\longrightarrow$	$\longleftarrow$
I want to get out of my "box," away from daily routine boredom	I owe my time and energy to my family
$\longrightarrow$	$\longleftarrow$
What they are doing is very important	I don't feel I have any skill that's needed
$\longrightarrow$	$\longleftarrow$
They really need and want me	I'm scared of what I might get into
$\longrightarrow$	$\longleftarrow$
	I worked hard to develop my skills —I should be paid
It's a chance to learn new skills	
$\longrightarrow$	$\longleftarrow$

It's a chance to learn things that
would help me get ahead
————————————————→

I think I am too old for that
←————————————————

The visibility could help me on
my job
————————————————→

It's not clear what kind of help
and support I'd get
←————————————————

It could help me with my
personal life
————————————————→

The last time I said yes it was
a waste of my time
←————————————————

I've gotten a lot of help. Now
it's my turn to repay
————————————————→

It might tie me down at times—
I'd want to be free to do
other things
←————————————————

It's a critical need; I've got to
do my part
————————————————→

I need to earn extra money in
my spare time
←————————————————

I need something to do
————————————————→

It's unpopular; I'll be involved
in conflict
←————————————————

I'll have a chance to really
influence what happens
————————————————→

I'll waste my time if I don't
commit it to something
————————————————→

Forces from Relations
with Others ("Interpersonal
and Group Member Forces")

Service is a tradition in our
family—it's expected
————————————————→

They don't trust volunteers to
do the important things
←————————————————

It's one of the things our group
members do, part of our program
————————————————→

My colleagues would raise their
eyebrows at my getting into that
←————————————————

My best friend is asking me
————————————————→

I might lose my job
←————————————————

He's an important person. I don't
feel I can say no
————————————————→

My family would object
←————————————————

He wouldn't ask me if it wasn't important ———————————➤

➤ They are paying others for the same thing ◄———————————

"Situational Forces"

It would be a new world, an adventure ———————————➤

➤ I'd have to go too far from where I live; transportation is not clear ◄———————————

We'd have our own office and telephone ———————————➤

➤ There's no place for the volunteers to meet and have a space of their own ◄———————————

They'll fit it to the hours I have free to give ———————————➤

➤ They are too rigid in the time schedule they want ◄———————————

There'll be several of us working at the same place ———————————➤

➤ That area is dangerous ◄———————————

The national leadership has declared it a national priority ———————————➤

I'd make new friends ———————————➤

In observing the force field we notice that some volunteers seem to put major motivational emphasis on the *self-actualization possibilities* of an opportunity to volunteer, while others put a contrasting emphasis on *service, duty, and the repayment of a "service received" debt.* The self-actualizers see opportunities for learning, for excitement, for personal growth, while the servers see opportunities for significant contributions, for the meeting of needs, and for action relevance in the society. No doubt for many volunteers both of these bases of motivation are important, but they certainly have very different priority for different types of persons and in different decision situations.

A related contrast in motivational orientations seems to be between what we might call *inner-oriented* and *other-oriented* volunteers. The inner-oriented put more weight on the "Own Forces" in the situation—their own feelings, their own sense of relevance, and their own values—as guidelines for decisions. The other-oriented decision makers are more influenced by the

norms of their group, by the potential visibility and status of the volunteer activity, by its potential consequences for their job and social relationships, and by situational factors of risk and support.

A third dimension of difference in motivations we might label the dimension of *action* versus *reflection and policy.* For some volunteers the meaningful opportunity is the one that provides the excitement of direct action with clients and the opportunity to get feedback through interaction and "seeing things happen." Other volunteers feel more comfortable and get more satisfaction in a more reflective and removed type of volunteer activity, such as service on committees and policy-making boards.

Probably closely related is the contrast between potential volunteers who give priority to the opportunities for *power and influence* and those who are primarily interested in the opportunities for *emotional associations* with others. For the former group a key source of motivation is the perceived opportunity to get into a position of influence, decision making, and activity designing. The latter group looks forward to the interaction with other adults or with children, to the chance to "share" themselves and to work on a team with others.

Another important difference seems to be that some volunteers identify with *the larger community and its welfare;* they think in terms of significant community needs to be met through their service. Criteria of social significance and community relevance are important to them in choosing volunteer activities. Other volunteers are oriented primarily to the *interpersonal meanings* and *group membership meanings* of the particular volunteer opportunity. Their decisions to volunteer are determined to a high degree by the image of the people they would be working with, the type of interpersonal support they would receive, and the meaning the activity would have for their friends, their family, and the groups they belong to. Theirs is a very concrete interpersonal world rather than the more abstract social problem world.

Yet another interesting dimension of difference among potential volunteers we have defined by the three terms *autonomy-oriented, interdependence-oriented,* and *dependence- or support-oriented.* As we review the forces listed in figure 1, we see that for autonomy-oriented individuals a very important condition

for volunteering is the freedom to "do one's own thing," to get away from routines and boredom, to take some risks and find some new excitement. Interdependence-oriented individuals value peer relationships and opportunities for colleagueship and mutuality of support and working relationships. For these volunteers the human relations aspect of the peer relationship on the job is a critical factor. Support-oriented individuals want a clearly defined job to do, with clear arrangements for training and on-the-job supervision and help. They want to be sure that what they are being assigned to do is something they will be competent and comfortable in doing. These volunteers place a high value on the guidelines of tradition and well-developed norms and procedures, in contrast to the autonomous volunteers, who prefer new experiences, risk, and freedom from tradition and normative expectations and demands.

As we think about different types of roles and opportunities for volunteers, we begin to sense the importance of finding ways to match the right volunteers to the right opportunities and situations, to take account of individual differences in need for support, and to shift roles and working situations to correct "poor fits."

To Continue or Drop Out

After the volunteer has said yes and has become in some way involved in volunteer activity, he is faced continually with the questions of how long to continue and whether to put more or less energy into the activity. Being a volunteer by definition means that he can change his mind about whether this is something he wants to be doing and can make his own policy about how much time and energy he wants to devote to it.

Let's once again listen in on a population of decision makers. This time they will be volunteers trying to decide whether to give more or less energy and time to a particular activity, and whether to continue or discontinue their commitment. We shall use the force field in figure 2 as a guide to start us thinking in a systematic way about this area of volunteer motivation. Again we can divide into several clusters the factors that decrease commitment or lead volunteers to discontinue their volunteer work.

One group of volunteers seems to be saying that their major source of disappointment and discontent is the discrepancy be-

tween what they have found in their volunteer activity and what they were led by their recruiters to believe it would be like. The *unreal expectations given in recruitment* are a frequent

Figure 2.   The Decision To Continue, Increase Commitment, or Drop Out

To continue, to increase commitment	*To drop out, to decrease commitment*
Forces toward continuing or increasing commitment ⟶	⟵ *Forces toward lowering or ceasing commitment*

"Own Forces"

What I'm doing is making a difference ⟶	It's not as interesting as I thought it would be ⟵
I'm still learning a lot ⟶	I want to try something new ⟵
This could lead to paid work ⟶	It's taking more time than I want to devote to it ⟵
They appreciate me ⟶	Something more important is attracting me ⟵
They've used some of my ideas ⟶	I'm feeling too tired ⟵
It's helping with my home life, too ⟶	I don't feel appreciated ⟵
I feel better about myself, more competent ⟶	I don't think I am doing my job very well ⟵
It's really a chance to do my own thing ⟶	

"Interpersonal and Group Member Forces"

I've made a lot of friends I like to be with ⟶	Nobody helps me when I need it ⟵
My husband is enthusiastic ⟶	My family is feeling neglected ⟵

The staff trusts me more and more ──────────►

The professionals block initiative to try new things ◄──────────

My friends and I have a lot to share about our work ──────────►

Our group has voted on another type of service project ◄──────────

They need me as a member of the team ──────────►

My colleagues at the office make cracks about what I'm doing ◄──────────

The weekly training sessions are very exciting ──────────►

The staff acts like I'm disloyal if I don't give all my time ◄──────────

My teen-ager feels what I'm doing is important ──────────►

They get "up tight" about controversy around here ◄──────────

I've read several articles about the importance of volunteers ──────────►

Volunteers are second class citizens ◄──────────

"Situational Forces"

We're going to have a lounge for the volunteers ──────────►

The working conditions are terrible ◄──────────

They've changed to meet my schedule ──────────►

One of my co-workers was robbed ◄──────────

They are paying for transportation now ──────────►

It's too far, I get home too late, it's dangerous ◄──────────

Training plans are being developed with our help ──────────►

I keep hearing they are going to cut the budget on us ◄──────────

cause of "motivational shock" later on. Discrepancies between expectation and reality may be discovered in the amount of time required for the activity, the type of work, the amount of support from the professionals, the type of clients, the available facilities, and many other areas.

Another important theme is the *lack of appreciative feedback* from clients and co-workers. This may result in doubt about one's adequacy in doing the volunteer work. Emotional support and appreciation are crucial as part of the "payment" and support for volunteer time and energy.

A related theme is the problem of *relationships with the professionals or supervisory staff*. Some volunteers sense that the professionals are a block to initiative and innovativeness. Others cite a lack of consultative help in critical situations and a lack of the orientaton and training they need to do the job well. Perhaps one of the most frequent and serious problems in this area is the feeling that the staff expects full commitment to their particular activity even though the volunteer may have a variety of other legitimate priorities. The staff exerts a kind of "righteous pressure" about the importance of their activity which makes the volunteer feel disloyal and guilty and hastens his withdrawal from the relationship. Closely related is the volunteer's common feeling that he is a second class citizen involved in the less important kinds of work in the program.

Another group of forces acting to decrease volunteer commitment, as seen in figure 2, centers around the volunteer's perception of *disapproval or devaluation of his commitment by others* whose opinions he values. Such forces might be the spoken or unspoken feelings of family members, the raised eyebrows of co-workers at the office, or the decision of one's service club or group to become involved in a different type of service priority. A related force is the volunteer's hesitation to become involved in an activity that may be the subject of public controversy.

Another theme seems to be the *general morale and working conditions* of the volunteer program. If there are persistent rumors that the program is regarded as unimportant and that there are budget cuts in the offing, the volunteer gets the sense of being on a sinking ship. Probably the "Situational Forces" become more of an issue when other and more central psychological factors are already fostering negative attitudes toward one's volunteer work and situation.

Turning to the positive factors pushing toward continued volunteer effort and an increase in personal commitment, we again see several clusters. One very important theme seems to be the *sense of "making a difference,"* of contributing to some significant service that changes or helps the lives of others or, in the case of a political campaign or other "cause work," the sense of being connected to or even influencing national policy or international events.

Related to the sense of the significance of his work is the volunteer's *feeling that he is appreciated* by and is influencing his co-workers and the job situation: that his suggestions and ideas are being used, that he is being invited to join in planning and policy thinking, that he has a special role to play on the team, that he is being trusted to take on more and more responsibility.

Another important theme is the sense of *self-actualization,* of "doing one's own thing," of feeling more competent and adequate, of learning a lot and being excited about new insights, and even of transferring one's learning and experiences to other parts of one's life situation, such as one's family life.

The volunteer's sense of having *the support of persons and groups that are important to him* is another common theme. It may be expressed as being involved in the volunteer work with a friend with whom there is a lot of off-the-job sharing and discussing, as having found new friends, or as finding that one's husband or teen-ager is supportive and enthusiastic about the activity. Reading articles in the mass media supporting the importance of one's voluntary effort and having one's company give public recognition to volunteer service by its employees are other important motivating forces toward legitimizing and intensifying one's commitment.

Another group of supportive forces centers around the volunteer's feeling that the organization he is working with is motivated to make *adjustments to fit his schedule* and to support his participation in every way possible—for example, by providing the place and supplies for co-workers to get together for coffee and conversation, by paying registration fees for conferences, and by reimbursing the volunteer for transportation, meals, and necessary telephone calls.

In the next two chapters we will be examining some of the approaches and techniques that have a positive impact on the decision of the volunteer to say yes to an invitation, to become creatively involved, and to continue his service. But before turning to specifics we want to focus on one other aspect of the total context of the dynamics of motivation. As we have seen, much of the motivation and commitment of volunteers depends upon the values, attitudes, and behaviors of their professional supervisors and coordinators, and upon the policies and

psychological atmosphere of the agency or organization. So, in turn, the nature of the motivation of the professional, the utilizer of volunteers, becomes a very important topic for our inquiry. What motivates his decisions to seek help from volunteers, to provide attractive opportunities for them, and to give them the training and support they need on the job?

Whether and How To Use Volunteers

Although there are many trends in society and in the helping professions toward increased use of volunteer manpower, there are also a number of significant forces working against increasing the use of volunteers—in fact, even forces discouraging the use of untrained and inexperienced helpers at all, as we saw in Chapter III. In figure 3 we have summarized the psychological, interpersonal, and situational forces that motivate professional leadership to make extensive use of volunteers and, on the other hand, the factors that cause some professionals to be very cautious in recruiting volunteers and in giving them responsibility. As with figures 1 and 2, we suggest that you check figure 3 against your own experience and make additions to the force field.

Figure 3. Deciding Whether and How To Use Volunteers

Decision to use extensively at high level of responsibility	*Decision to make minimal use with limited responsibility*
Forces toward maximal use of volunteers	*Forces toward minimal use of volunteers*
⟶	⟵

Forces Inside Professional Decision Maker ("Own Forces")

I feel need to extend service beyond what I can do ⟶	I don't want to give up the rewards of direct contact with clients ⟵
The volunteers I've worked with have been great ⟶	I am uneasy working with volunteers of different race, class, education, etc. ⟵
They are fun to train and work with ⟶	I distrust volunteers' ethical sensitivity to the need for confidentiality ⟵

They are a key link to clients →   ← Paraprofessionals are easier to train and control

The best delivery of service is by a team of volunteer, professional, and paraprofessional →   ← Training and supervising them will take too much time

There is great personal satisfaction in seeing volunteers grow as I work with them →   ← The volunteers might be more accepted than I am by clients

I can have more impact by spreading my skills →   ← I don't see what jobs I can give them

More volunteers are available to be recruited →   ← Too much energy is required to recruit them

Volunteers are ready to take more responsibility today →   ← They resist supervision, ignore policy, embarrass the agency

← I don't feel expert enough to supervise new roles and functions

← They just are not responsible

"Interpersonal and Group Member Forces"

Board says we should give more service with no more professionals →   ← Standards of good service are becoming more professional all the time

The chief executive values extensive use of volunteers →   ← The volunteers are too aggressive in seeking status, power, independence

The funding agency values our use of volunteers →   ← My colleagues tell me that volunteers are inadequate in many areas

Our agency policy is to use volunteers in many roles →   ← Parents are raising questions about our using volunteers

	Professional colleagues in other agencies are raising their eyebrows about our standards in using volunteers
The trend in the profession and nationally is to use more volunteers ⟶	⟵
	Volunteers lack commitment to agency policies
	⟵

"Situational Forces"

Facilities can be manned with fewer professionals	Our budget for supervision has been decreased
⟶	⟵
	We lack budget for volunteers who need meal and transportation reimbursement
Program outreach to new areas feasible with volunteers	⟵
⟶	
Having more volunteers will be our benefit in budget allocation	We lack space for volunteer-led programs
⟶	⟵
	We can't offer transportation
	⟵
	We now have paraprofessionals— it's hard to separate their jobs and those of volunteers
	⟵

A number of themes of motivation emerge from figure 3 as guides to understanding the life space of the professionals and to working with them on the more effective use of volunteers. One important theme is the *rewards and personal satisfactions that come from client feedback.* There is something deeply satisfying about responses of gratitude and growth from those one is attempting to help. Some of this emotional satisfaction is admittedly lost when the professional "lets the volunteers have all the fun" while he, removed from the firing line, acts as trainer, supervisor, supporter, and behind-the-scenes administrator and organizer.

A second related theme is *concern about professional standards,* about the quality of the service rendered, and about the potential danger to clients from insensitive and unskilled helpers. The idea that volunteers with relatively brief training can be

expected to do some of the things the professional spent years getting trained for is a threat and a source of genuine professional concern. Within their own peer group professionals share anecdotes and attitudes about the irresponsibility or unpredictability of volunteers, their ethical boners in regard to confidentiality, their ignorance of professional standards, the difficulties of training them, their resistance to supervision, and their impulsiveness in ignoring agency policies.

A third source of resistance probably is the fact that most professionals have had *no training in the techniques and skills of recruiting, training, and supervising volunteers.* They therefore lack a feeling of competence and confidence in this area. Their sense of inadequacy is increased by their awareness that indigenous volunteers have skills and knowhow that the professionals lack, and that many volunteers today have professionally trained skills from their own areas of competence which represent major resources beyond the expertness of the professional.

Another common theme is the *feeling that the need for more manpower can be better met by paraprofessionals* than by volunteers. Many professionals feel more comfortable working with, training, and supervising paid subordinates who fit right into the organizational system and are ready to take supervision as paid staff members. They feel that volunteers are much more difficult to deal with in defined role relationships, and much less predictable in terms of commitment and responsiveness to supervision.

Now it is time to look at the other half of figure 3, at the forces motivating professionals toward increased use of volunteers, at higher levels of responsibility. Needs and opportunities for helping services are expanding and will continue to intensify in the future. The *need for services* will predictably outstrip the training of professional and paraprofessional workers. The economic base will not be available for supporting the training and maintenance of complete staffs of paid workers. For these reasons, more and more agencies and professional workers are seeing the necessity of making much fuller use of volunteers in all areas of service, including some that have previously been manned almost entirely by professionals, such as school systems, government offices, health services, cultural centers, food services, etc.

A second important source of motivation toward more exten-

sive use of volunteer manpower is the *increasing number and variety of potential volunteers.* More and more persons with highly trained skills, and with great sensitivity and commitment, are available, and often their knowledge and skills complement those of the professional. Organizing, coordinating, and facilitating the use of these volunteer resources are very exciting challenges for professional leadership. Many professionals are discovering that the colleagueship and appreciation of volunteer co-workers can become even more rewarding than their relationships with professional colleagues or with their clients.

Another source of motivation is the realization that *reaching out to serve the populations most in need of help can be effectively accomplished only with volunteer manpower,* because these populations cannot pay for services. Besides, professionals have been discovering that, even if the neediest communities could support fully professional services, these would not be as effective as services by teams of indigenous volunteers, because the *professionals' cultural and economic backgrounds and racial identification often make it difficult for them to connect* with these populations. Many professionals have found a new source of regard and satisfaction in spreading their professionally trained resources to the training and supporting of teams of local volunteers, who are better able to relate to their peers.

As we work toward increased use of volunteer manpower, we need to be continuously sensitive to the dilemmas and genuine problems of the professionals and their agencies. We must focus on the problems of their motivation and their future perspectives as well as on those of the volunteer, because the professionals are very much a part of the motivational dynamics of voluntarism in our society.

Generalizations

Let's pause to review some of the major generalizations about motivation that we can derive from the analysis in this chapter and the preceding ones.

Volunteer Motivation

1. A major motivating factor for volunteers is the opportunity to participate in problem solving and significant decision making.

2. The placement of a volunteer should include some process

for relating the type of work and situation to his particular interests, needs, and motivations.

3. To increase motivation, most volunteer opportunities should provide for both self-actualizing personal development and meaningful service to the needs of others. In other words, the opportunities for volunteer service should be presented both as continuing educational opportunities to learn and grow and as opportunities to contribute one's "tithe" of much-needed social service.

4. The "contract" between the volunteer and the organization should legitimize a feasible level of commitment and allow for personal variations in time, energy, and interest without guilt or tension about divided loyalties and limited energy.

5. The on-the-job experience of the volunteer should include continuing opportunities for reflective study and evaluation of his activity and for joint planning and designing of service goals and action. Much of the volunteer's sustaining and renewing motivation comes from seeing clear steps toward the group's goals and from successfully completing them one by one.

6. Needs can be met and motivation sustained more effectively if the work situation also allows for individual advancement through a series of steps leading to higher levels of responsibility, skill, learning, and influence.

7. Motivation will be sustained best if there are regular mechanisms for supportive feedback from clients, co-workers, and professional leadership, and for recognition from the agency and community.

8. Participation in meaningful training activities inside and outside the organization (e.g., conferences) is an important source of continuing motivation and growth.

Motivation of the Professional Users of Volunteers

1. The motivation of the professionals to give priority to work with volunteers will be strengthened if the agency policy makers and administrators establish a climate that shows that they value the use of volunteers and encourage the devotion of professional time to recruiting, training, coordinating, and consulting with volunteers.

2. The motivation to use volunteers will be enhanced if professional development opportunities are provided to help promote competence and confidence in the concepts and skills of recruit-

ing, training, and coordinating volunteers. Outside consultants and trainers often provide the best resource for this training.

3. Opportunities should be provided for the professionals to discuss openly with their peers the importance and techniques of work with volunteers and to develop joint goals, plans, and commitments in this area.

4. The motivation of the professional users of volunteers will be strengthened and sustained if mechanisms for regular feedback are established to provide "appreciation data" from volunteers and from the agency.

5. Designs to get evaluation feedback from clients and client groups about the success of volunteer work will help professionals validate their decisions about the use of volunteers, improve training, and make consultative supervision more effective.

6. Professional motivation to work with volunteers will be strengthened by the establishment of regular procedures for joint study, training, planning, and evaluation by teams comprising professionals, paraprofessionals, and volunteers. These sessions should include sensitivity learning process work on communication, interpersonal feelings, and problems of working relationships.

V Recruitment and Orientation

Creative use of volunteers is closely related to an effective recruitment and orientation process. The recruitment process is actually a linkage process, linking a person who wants to give of himself with an organization that needs volunteers in order to operate; linking a need for self-actualization with an opportunity for experience; linking a need to learn with opportunities for learning; linking a need to be creative with an opportunity to give the most creative service possible. Through this linkage (recruitment) the potential volunteer becomes an actual service agent. As he becomes part of the agency, he links the agency to the client and the community. Because the very basis of volunteer service is built at the time the potential volunteer is first recruited, the recruitment process is crucially important.

Preliminary Considerations

The process of recruitment must be thought through and planned very carefully. In locating and attracting "linker-volunteers" an organization should first examine closely its needs for volunteers and the special resources, skills, and values they bring. A recruiting organization needs to be very clear about the kinds of jobs and tasks that need doing and about the kinds of volunteers who can do them best. Too often the motivations and needs of the organization are not clearly communicated to the potential volunteer.

The second requirement for an organization hoping to link volunteer resources into its service system is to take time to understand what kinds of motivations, needs, and interests each potential volunteer has, so as to match these with the kinds of service opportunities available. Does the potential volunteer feel a need for meaningful involvement in giving service? Or is his motivation a need for self-actualization and for new growth and learning experiences? One volunteer's main interest might be in

making good use of his special interest or competence. Another might wish to serve in a particular organization because of the cause it represents. Cause motivation is very important in this day of social revolution. Many volunteers want to be where the action is and where they feel their time and energy will make a difference.

One can also look at volunteers in terms of the kind of service they give. Some give direct service: tutoring, helping patients in a hospital, leading a youth group, working with the mentally retarded, soliciting funds, getting out the vote, training others in a particular skill. Other volunteers do administrative work. Often these are persons who have had previous experience, although this is not necessary, in order to sit on a board or committee and help the organization make its policy and action decisions. The administrative jobs include both those to which volunteers are elected for a certain period of time and those to which they are appointed on an ad hoc basis to complete a particular project, such as revising bylaws.

Where To Find Potential Volunteers

There are, of course, many different kinds of organizations looking for volunteers: private volunteer agencies such as hospitals and scout groups; public agencies such as departments of welfare, mental health, and education; political and cause groups. The easiest and probably most popular way to recruit new volunteers is through those who are already in a given organization and are having a good experience there. They then act as "referral linkers." Some organizations recruit volunteers through the volunteer bureau in their community. Sometimes potential volunteers present themselves on their own initiative. Newcomers to an area, for example, often volunteer their services in hopes of becoming a part of the community more quickly. People wanting to serve in poverty areas also frequently volunteer on their own initiative. Sometimes there is group motivation: a small group of members of another organization volunteer to serve together to carry out a certain task. Many people, particularly teen-agers and senior citizens, feel more secure if they are able to volunteer and serve with at least one friend. Some volunteers can be recruited only through personal contact. Others respond to ads in newspapers or

on radio or television. Because different people can be reached by different recruitment techniques, organizations seeking volunteers should employ the widest possible range of techniques and try to learn more about when to use which ones.

Over the years, most of the volunteers recruited by most agencies have been middle or upper-middle class white women. Only recently has there been an attempt to draw volunteers from the poorer sectors of the community. This shift has been spearheaded by cause movements, political organizations, and public agencies, and through such legislation as the Economic Opportunity Act. The challenge to all agencies, organizations, and movements is to find the important underutilized resources of volunteer manpower in areas that have not previously been tapped. New recruiting methods are having to be developed, since new volunteers often cannot be found through the traditional methods. The only people who can be recruited through established agencies, for example, are those who are already connected in some way to the establishment.

To find potential volunteers who are not members of establishment organizations or groups, recruiters are going to such places as *laundromats, bowling alleys, street corner clubs, neighborhood ice cream or hamburger spots, adult education classes, Americanization classes, Job Corps and Head Start centers, post offices, pool halls,* and *informal neighborhood social groups.* Recruiters have also discovered the possibilities of *supermarket bulletin boards, merchants associations, labor unions,* and *neighborhood improvement clubs.* The *waiting rooms of public health and housing centers, welfare and probation departments,* and *other public service agencies* are particularly good places to recruit previously untapped volunteers.

"Informants" who can help find volunteers include the *mailman,* the *numbers man,* the local *bartender,* the local *police,* especially those who still walk a beat, *adult education teachers, elementary and secondary school teachers and principals, clergymen, public health doctors and nurses, neighborhood market owners, liquor store owners, gas station attendants, bus drivers* on regular routes, and *older citizens* who have lived in the area for a long time. *Social workers, antipoverty workers, probation and parole officers, directors of public housing and community centers,* and *all other public service personnel,* including volunteers

and paraprofessionals, also make good "informants" about potential volunteers.

The main thing to remember is that people know other people, who need only to be asked. It has become very clear that most people are eager to be of service, if they are just given the opportunity.

Types of Volunteers

Volunteers can be found with almost every possible combination of age, sex, race, education, religion, experience, and life-style. There are the very young (e.g., nine- and ten-year-olds) tutoring the even younger. There are teen-age volunteers like the Candy Stripers in hospitals. There are the brand new volunteers who may not even be familiar with the concept of volunteering, and the experienced volunteers whose previous work may or may not be relevant to their new job. (It is important to make no assumptions about how much a potential volunteer knows or has done. The recruiter should ask him about his previous work, both what he did and how he felt about it.)

The history of voluntarism shows that traditionally there have been many more jobs for women than for men. Indeed there are some stereotypes in the volunteer world: for example, writers routinely refer to the volunteer as *she*. However, there are many interesting opportunities for male volunteers, such as work in museums and as Big Brothers and scout leaders.

Matching the Recruitment Technique to the Volunteer

Once a potential volunteer has expressed interest in learning more about his opportunities with a particular organization, the recruiter must choose the most appropriate place to meet with him. Possibilities include the applicant's home or school, the local meeting spot, the recruiting organization's office, or any other place designated by the applicant. If he must travel a long distance to meet the recruiter, it helps to have the organization reimburse his transportation expenses. Often the recruiter can meet the applicant halfway, or even pick him up at home. "Car chats" are a great way to begin recruitment and orientation.

The recruiter can meet the prospective volunteer alone or with another recruiter. Pairs of recruiters often give each other

the necessary support and courage to do the recruitment job. Another technique is to bring groups of potential volunteers together. For example, 10 girls wanting to tutor in the same school were invited to a "coke hour discussion" where they talked over what they wanted to do and what the opportunities for them would be. Still another useful recruitment method is to invite the potential volunteer to participate in some ongoing activity of the organization and so get a feeling for what it is all about.

Offering the Opportunity Effectively

It is important that the potential volunteer perceive the opportunity he is being offered as interesting and worthwhile. The following are some of the techniques that may be especially helpful here:

- In a warm, personal telephone call make a date to see the applicant at a time and place convenient to him. (Often it helps to go to the potential volunteer's home rather than ask him to come to an office.)
- Send a handwritten note inviting him to a meeting of potential volunteers or to an appointment with the recruiter.
- Have someone the prospective volunteer knows approach him personally on a one-to-one basis.
- Allow for immediate sign-up after presenting to a group the kinds of volunteer opportunities available, so the potential volunteer will feel that he is really wanted and that there is an organization ready to receive him.
- Have the particular client group needing volunteers recruit directly. For example, teen-age groups needing an adult sponsor or resource person often do a better job recruiting their own volunteers than could be done through the general recruiting efforts of the larger agency or organization.
- Seize the right moment, such as a chat at the market where a person shows interest, or after a community meeting in which someone's interest has been expressed.
- Invite the potential volunteer to visit the organization's headquarters. Let him meet other volunteers already on the job, perhaps over lunch or coffee, so he can discuss with them what they are doing and how they feel about it. Introduce him to some of the professionals on the staff. Here is an opportunity

for the potential recruit to get the feel of how the professionals see themselves in relationship to volunteers.

- Involve the potential volunteer in an activity without committing him to it. For instance, 13 poverty-area volunteers were invited to visit the pediatrics department of a local hospital, where they had the opportunity to see how patients were treated and to ask questions of doctors, nurses, patients, and the clerical and custodial help; they then reconvened a week later to talk about what they might like to do as volunteers in that setting.

- Use personal follow-up. This may mean telephoning to see how the person feels about the opportunity a week later, or it may mean a warm personal letter, a coffee hour, or a home visit. Whatever the method, follow-up is a crucial factor in attracting the potential volunteer.

- Encourage prospective volunteers to state their needs, interests, and expectations. It is important that people who are about to donate their time to an organization be given an opportunity to ask all the questions they have and to think over how and when they might best serve and with whom they would like to work.

- Use attractive literature to interpret the organization's work. It is better to use one snappy, interesting, clearly written piece than to overwhelm the applicant with packets and packets of materials, most of which make better sense to the already indoctrinated person than to one who knows very little or nothing about the organization's purposes and services.

- Give the volunteer a choice of jobs. Rarely do people fit into jobs; rather, jobs must be molded to the interests and resources of the individual. Job descriptions should be flexible or nonexistent. It is sometimes best for a new volunteer to be able to carve out his job and then write his own job description after several weeks of experience.

- Allow for a period of orientation. This gives the new volunteer a chance to get used to the job before he commits himself to long-term service. It also helps to offer short-term possibilities for service, so that a volunteer can contribute his time and energy without necessarily signing up for three years.

These, then, are some of the ways to attract volunteers—to ensure that potential volunteers will decide to become active volunteers.

Orientation

Orientation really begins with the very first contact between the potential volunteer and a representative of the recruiting organization. Often the recruiter is not aware that he is in fact orienting the potenial volunteer by means of the very role and behavior he models. Further orientation, of course, comes through carefully selected literature about the organization, a visit to its offices, conversations with experienced volunteers, and perhaps one or more structured training sessions before the new recruit begins work. Orienting the new volunteer means making sure that he becomes acquainted with his new setting and its life-styles and with the possibilities of his service's making a difference to the total life of the organization as well as to himself.

Often a new, enthusiastic volunteer is the best person to orient the next wave of new volunteers, because he is still close to what it feels like to be new and yet just enough ahead to be able to tell them a little bit about the opportunities in store for them. There should be a variety of beginning orientation activities, matched to the needs of the volunteer who is young, middle-aged, older, new to volunteering, new to the agency, or experienced in volunteering in other settings. Orientation may continue over the first several weeks or months of service in order to give the new recruit the necessary help and support to do the job.

Retention

It should be clear that how a volunteer is recruited and oriented has much to do with the enthusiasm with which he begins his service and the length of time, barring other factors, he remains in the service of a given organization. What are some of the steps an organization can take to build upon successful processes of recruitment and orientation, to ensure that the new volunteer will have a long, happy, and successful period of service?

1. It is helpful to draw up an individualized plan for the volunteer's on-the-job training, including personal contacts, on-the-job support, and literature that he will find particularly relevant.

2. It is becoming increasingly necessary for organizations to provide in their budgets for the reimbursement of volunteers for travel, luncheons, parking, conference registrations, materials, and other such items, so that the volunteer who does not have

great means of his own will be able to give of his resources, ideas, time, and service.

3. Offering a variety of jobs, opportunities for change and growth in each, and the chance to move from one job to another, or perhaps to have two jobs at once if he is ambidextrous enough, are important factors in keeping a volunteer interested and motivated.

4. It is helpful for an organization to have a place for volunteers to meet together socially. This is not to say that staff members cannot go there also, but, if feasible, some kind of volunteer lounge or talk room is highly desirable.

5. Ongoing reciprocal evaluation is very valuable. It is important for the volunteer to hear how well he is doing his job, to be able to tell his supervisor or consultant how he feels about the service he is giving, and to suggest ways in which he feels the agency could be made a better place in which to work. Identifying needs and wishes of volunteers and finding ways to meet them are helpful in establishing and keeping good volunteer-professional relationships.

6. Finding or creating new areas of service for volunteers can be challenging to volunteers and professionals alike. Often it is the volunteers who come up with the best suggestions for new service roles.

7. Commitments for training and support must be made by both the volunteer and the person with whom he works. Through in-service training the volunteer can learn and grow on the job. Also, the better trained the volunteer, the more effective the service he can render—and the more secure he will feel about the service he is giving.

VI Continuous Training for Self-Renewal

If organizations are to be viable, they must have an ongoing training plan for self-renewal. Commitment to the self-renewal and agency-renewal ideal implies that plans will be translated into action and that the organization will be flexible enough to change plans when better ones are found and to fit plans to people, rather than the reverse.

An ideal continuous training plan might have five phases, as follows:

1. *Preservice training,* that is, training of a volunteer before he begins work.

2. *Start-up support,* that is, assistance to the volunteer as he begins his service. Here the trainer may well be another volunteer who has had some experience in the organization and on the job.

3. *Maintenance-of-effort training.* A volunteer throughout his period of service needs regular times for asking questions and gaining additional knowledge about what he is doing. He needs to feel that the organization is committed to his growth on the job.

4. *Periodic review and feedback.* Frequently in the beginning, probably less often as time goes on, the trainer or supervisor and the volunteer need to have the opportunity, either in a face-to-face conference or in a group meeting, to discuss whether goals are being accomplished, how the volunteer feels about his accomplishment, how he feels about the way the organization is treating him, how he would make the job better or improve the service, how the trainer feels the volunteer could function more efficiently, and so on.

5. *Transition training.* As we have stressed elsewhere in this volume, volunteers have a need to grow and to assume more responsibility. In order to really enjoy their job they must take on additional tasks in that job or see that it can lead to additional or

alternative avenues of service. This need is so often forgotten. Why, for instance, don't organizations plan explicitly to train potential chairmen, presidents, and coordinators? If transition training were given, it would not be nearly so difficult to find new people to take over leadership, because they would have been groomed for that kind of responsibility.

This ideal framework, then, provides for the self-renewal of the agency, as well as of the volunteer. Let us examine a little more closely each of its phases.

Preservice Training

Preservice training helps the new volunteer take a look at himself and his skills, at the job that needs to be done, and at the organization's philosophy and services. It may be given individually or in a group setting, depending of course on the timing, the number of volunteers, and the kinds of resources and facilities available.

Preservice training actually begins with the recruitment process. At the very first contact with an individual or group, some unconscious training usually takes place. It can be made even more effective if the recruiter becomes consciously aware that as he acquaints the potential volunteer with the organization's program and philosophy, he is in effect training him.

One thing that should definitely be included in preservice training is a tour of the organization's headquarters or the site of its services. It is important for the potential volunteer to gain an understanding of the operation of the organization through structured observation. If a trainer or guide is not available for the tour, it is possible to use a "taped-tour master" (like those in museums) to guide the volunteer through the site, pointing out the stop points, stop action points, and discussion and observation points, and suggesting things to read in the library. The volunteer might be given a schedule of the staff meetings and other meetings he can attend, suggesting things to look and listen for in them. Opportunities for informal chats with other volunteers and staff during coffee or lunch hours should also be built into the tour. At its conclusion, there should be time for the volunteer to discuss his observations and reactions with some staff members or volunteer trainers who have been assigned to the preservice training process. There might even be a group

discussion with staff, board members, potential volunteers, and active volunteers and trainers all participating. At some point in the preservice period the volunteer should meet, either formally or informally, all the kinds of people involved in the service of the organization, including paraprofessionals and clients.

Another way to conduct preservice training is through "apprenticeship observation." That is, the potential volunteer works briefly with staff or experienced volunteers in a variety of jobs around the organization so that he can make a more informed choice of what he would like to do.

Certainly group meetings are vital in the preservice period. Potential volunteers must be given a chance to talk with one another and to hear each other's questions and ideas, but it is equally important that they receive some conceptual input from a person representing the organization. Most potential volunteers need help in clarifying their future roles or in understanding other people's roles.

They usually also need some anticipatory practice, some role playing to help them confront what it means to enter a system as a new person. To assure a smooth start when they begin their jobs, these role-playing sessions might include practice in such things as how to greet the clients of the organization, how to work with the supervisor, how to use the telephone effectively—whatever is appropriate for the kinds of jobs the volunteers will be assuming.

Preservice training, then, is a vitally important part of the continuous training framework. So often the beginning steps are either taken too fast or entirely overlooked, and yet this initial training provides the very foundation for later service and contribution by the volunteers.

Start-Up Training

When the volunteer, having had some initial training, begins his actual work for the organization, he enters a period in which he needs much support. Beginnings are hard for all of us. The whole period of testing out and getting acquainted, leading hopefully toward mutual trust and acceptance, is a very difficult one. But it is also a fruitful period for training, because there is in the new volunteer, as in the child, greater openness to change at the beginning than after patterns have developed.

The start-up is the time when the volunteer's repertoire of resources, skills, and alternatives is probably least developed. He therefore finds decision making difficult and needs particular help in this area. The volunteer in the start-up period also has a great need to feel recognized and accepted by the people already in the system. They must somehow communicate that they want and need him, depend on his resources to extend their services, and are really glad to have him aboard.

How can this kind of start-up support be given? There are a number of ways. One is for the supervisor, trainer, or co-worker to have a supportive chat, either in person or on the telephone, with the volunteer after his first day on the job, to ask him how things went and what kinds of feelings he had, to answer questions he may have, and to share any observations that have been made of his work, particularly positive and supportive ones. An alternative method is to have each new volunteer paired with a more experienced volunteer or a staff member from the very beginning. The pair goes through the job of the first day together and then discusses what each of them observed and experienced. If the number of new volunteers is not too large, it is possible to continue the use of these pairs throughout the start-up period, with the more experienced partner acting as ongoing trainer and consultant, and the new volunteer feeling free to talk to him either in person or on the telephone at any time he needs to. (Good places that are often overlooked for these talks are the car, the airplane, the traveling bus. It is possible to use the time spent going from one place to another, even going from the organization to lunch and back, for productive chats. One might say that we need to develop our "car consultant skills.")

Another way to help at the beginning is to have a short meeting of the new volunteers at which they reflect together on what's happened, how they feel about it, and to what degree they think they have accomplished the tasks set before them. Their trainer should be present to provide answers and feedback. An "open clinic" can also be held at the home of one of the volunteers to discuss their new experience. If there is a large group, discussions and problem clinics can be held weekly throughout the start-up period, to give support to all the newcomers together.

A different method sometimes found useful in start-up training

is to place the volunteer in a variety of spots with experienced people so that, early in his career, he will understand not only his own job but also those of other staff and volunteers.

Yet another alternative for start-up training might be for a volunteer to tape his own work and then, at the end of the day or the end of several periods of work, to listen to the tape with a helper (a co-volunteer, the consultant, a trainer, or the supervisor), discussing how each situation might have been handled differently.

Maintenance-of-Effort Training

The purposes of on-the-job training are to increase the skill of the volunteer, to get him out of any ruts he might have fallen into, to answer his questions and deal with his concerns, to refine his practices. In short, it is the meat of the training once the volunteer has become a part of the system. As good morale does not necessarily come of its own accord, on-the-job training may also be seen as a means of building and maintaining morale. Much of this training is given informally and irregularly by the supervisor or consultant, but there should also be a plan for some formal training sessions, whether workshops or individual sessions. The plan should, of course, be flexible and subject to change.

What kinds of maintenance-of-effort training are useful? There can be regular co-volunteer meetings at which volunteers interview each other about their jobs and discuss their new knowledge, resources, and questions. Sometimes at these meetings they can be asked to fill out "self-reflection sheets," indicating how they feel about the job they are doing and the people they are working with, how they would change the organization if they could, and so forth. These self-reflection sheets can then serve as the basis for group discussion and even for suggestions for new practices within the organization.

Input sessions are another kind of maintenance-of-effort training. In these sessions new plans or procedures or research findings are shared with the volunteers, or additional information about a particular volunteer job or function is given to further their growth. Volunteers can also attend staff meetings as part of their on-the-job training. Such attendance should be carefully planned beforehand, some kind of observation or listening guide

should be provided to the volunteers, and there should be full discussion afterwards. The content of the staff meetings chosen should, of course, be relevant to the volunteers' jobs and interests.

Another important part of on-the-job training is making time available periodically for the volunteers to read new resource or program material. Most organizations receive and send out many, many materials, such as staff speeches, government pamphlets, films, etc., but these are rarely available to volunteers. There should also be an opportunity for volunteers to meet the new resource people who have entered the system.

Regular problem clinics are an important part of many on-the-job training programs. Sometimes particular kinds of training arise out of these clinics. For instance, in one agency volunteers were having a hard time connecting with the very young clients. After this problem came out at a problem clinic, a series of meetings with young people was set up to look at how such connecting could be done more skillfully.

On-the-job training can also take the form of an "exchange of practices institute" at which people with similar jobs in different organizations get together to share practices and innovations they have developed. For instance, teachers and teacher aides from several school systems can meet to discuss how they build their teacher–teacher aide team and what kinds of things each half of the team likes to do.

Another idea is to give the volunteer a "mini-sabbatical"—perhaps a month off to "travel" in his community to other sites similar to his own to get ideas, or to take a training seminar during the hours in which he would usually be offering service. This kind of renewal has not previously been considered for volunteers, but it is very important if they are to continue to give productive, efficient, and innovative service in a job they have held for any period of time.

Surely the volunteer staff of any organization should be apprised of what is available to them in nearby college and extension and adult education courses. Often there are some very relevant courses that an organization could encourage its volunteers to take, perhaps by reimbursing their tuition. A recent example is a course at the University of California in Riverside called "New Skills for People Helpers." This was a one-day workshop in which the participants and consultants looked at the

new trends affecting people helpers and at the ways in which they needed to refine and add to their skills. The interaction of people from a variety of organizations and the exchange of practices that took place both formally and informally that day were extremely valuable. The participants became acquainted with resources in their own community that they had not known existed.

Periodic Review and Feedback

Many types of review sessions for volunteers have been used over the years. One new method is to have the volunteer and the consultant each tape record in a soliloquy some of their observations about what they feel is being done well and what could be improved, along with any other comments they wish to make to one another. They then listen to each other's tapes and prepare for a face-to-face discussion of their content.

Another new technique is to video tape a volunteer's work periodically, allowing him to look at his own practice and analyze his shortcomings. He can then help determine the kind of training he needs most. It is also wise to consult the organization's clients in planning training for the volunteers. They can recommend the kind of training they think will get them better service.

Whatever kind of training is used, it is important to plan for implementation of new suggestions and feedback along the way. The implementation plan ought to include some checkpoints or stop action periods where discussion can be held about how well the implementation is working out and what new problems have come up. Feedback from all sources should be taken into consideration in deciding whether to continue with or redesign any training program. Feedback cuts across all phases of training, from preservice to transition training.

Transition Training

A volunteer must be helped to move to levels of greater responsibility, whether in his present job or a new one. Just as when he first came aboard the organization, so in moving to a different job, he must be prepared for entry and must be helped to look ahead rather than back. If there are new role responsibilities, these need to be delineated through discussion, observation, role playing, interview, or in some other way. It cannot be

assumed that because a person has functioned well at one level he will necessarily function equally well at the next. Transition training, therefore, whether it takes individual or group form, should recapitulate the first four phases of the training framework, in a somewhat different manner. That is, there should be pretransition training (a period of referral if the volunteer is going to be working with different people), start-up training in the new job, maintenance-of-effort training, and periodic review and feedback sessions. We have here then a circle, a framework for continuous training for self-renewal.

Some Assumptions

We now want to list some generalizations about volunteers that have important implications for their training.

1. Volunteers bring with them a wide variation of experiences, knowledge, and skills. *Implication*: Training methods that build on and use the volunteer's experience, knowledge, and skills will produce the best and most relevant kind of learning.

2. Volunteers, by and large, will come as self-directed, motivated, interested learners. *Implication*: Volunteers should help plan and conduct their own learning experiences as active participants rather than as passive recipients.

3. Volunteers participate in training events because they want to learn to do their volunteer jobs. *Implication*: The training must be practical and relevant to the learners and must be related to life as they know it.

4. Many volunteers will have been exposed to classroomlike learning situations that were not helpful, relevant, or exciting. *Implication*: The learning activities must take place in an informal, experiential atmosphere.

5. Volunteers have a number of important roles (as parents, workers, students, citizens) that compete for their time. *Implication*: Training should be planned to take into consideration the limited time available to most volunteers and to accept the legitimacy of their other loyalties.

6. The world of voluntarism has not developed norms or procedures to support and reward participation in ongoing training programs. *Implication*: Training opportunities and activities must be a rewarding and recognized aspect of organizational functioning.

7. Often the training format and content have been developed over the years and have not been revised or retailored for the particular participants at a particular time. *Implication*: Each training event, if possible, should be planned by trainers and some of the potential participants to meet the current needs of a particular group.

8. Training is often a one-time thing instead of an ongoing support opportunity for volunteers. *Implication*: Ongoing, in-service training is necessary for volunteers, and the importance of follow-up should be communicated at the beginning of the learning experience.

9. Volunteer training is usually seen as an event sponsored by one organization, or for volunteers in one category, such as new, experienced, bored, office workers, service personnel, etc. *Implication*: Training should be planned interorganizationally to utilize all the possible resources. Also, it should be seen in the context of a group process and of team relationships.

Determining Training Needs

The type of volunteer training depends on the agency's or organization's needs as well as on the needs and resources of the volunteers. It must be sculptured to fit a particular situation and particular people. Important variables to be taken into consideration in developing training plans include the amount of time the volunteer will devote to the activity, his values and life-style, the job to be done, the volunteer's express needs, the amount of experience he has had in other relevant situations, the agency philosophy about training, the organizational goals, the consultant's or supervisor's or trainer's suggestions, the ongoing feedback, and past experience. Who determines the training needs? It may be a variety of people: the recruiter or interviewer (who may be a professional, a paraprofessional, or another volunteer), a supervisor or consultant working with the volunteers, the volunteers themselves, or the clients, who have implicitly or explicitly expressed some needs that are not now being met.

Training Models

One model for training is the workshop on a particular topic, such as how to communicate better, or how to have more productive committee meetings, or how to keep a board from get-

ting bored. Such workshops might last anywhere from two to six hours and might be held two or three times a year as a result of determining some special needs. They could be led by a consultant, by an inside-outside change agent, or by trainers and volunteers as a team within the organization. Another model for training is the weekend laboratory, where a group of volunteers and some specialized resource people go away for a weekend and work on a particular series of content items, such as entry into a system, how to cause change to happen in a community, or effective alternatives for conflict utilization.

Still another method of training is to hold "simulation hours," in which participants simulate situations that have occurred or are anticipated, such as the first confrontation of new youth board members with older, more experienced board members at a board meeting. Another possibility is to use confrontation designs. The confrontation can be either role-played on the spot or watched on film. One national youth-serving organization recently developed 45-second to 5-minute filmed confrontations between young and old, white and black, and other conflicting groups. At the end of each confrontation the trainees were asked to discuss what they would do at that point, sometimes taping their responses, having them evaluated by uncommitted observers, and trying again until they had developed a repertoire of alternatives for dealing with the confrontation.

Role playing is another method that can be used as part of either a workshop or a total training piece. For instance, in a recent workshop, teachers were asked to play the role of teenagers, and vice versa, for a period of time. A great deal of learning can come out of such role reversal.

Conferences bringing together organizational staff and volunteers are another training model. Volunteers and professionals from hospital settings, for example, can get together to discuss common problems, ideas, and innovative practices. The results of their meeting can then be disseminated to all those in similar jobs who could not participate in the conference.

The variety of training models is endless. The important things are that there be as many volunteers involved in the designing of these models as possible and that all alternative possibilities be looked at before a final design is drawn up. So often we rely on models that have worked in the past. By this time, however,

they may be dried and true rather than tried and true, or they may not even still be true at all. Each training design should be a package unto itself, designed for a particular group or individual at a particular time for a specified purpose.

VII The Training of Trainers

As we saw in the preceding chapter, the training of volunteer manpower for the many different volunteer roles is an exciting and varied job that calls for a number of basic competencies in the trainer. These competencies do not emerge automatically from a combination of experience as a volunteer or professional practitioner and motivation to be a trainer. The skills of trainership must be learned, just as the skills of effective volunteer activity must be learned.

Probably one of the most serious barriers to the development of a high quality of voluntarism in any agency or community is the lack of available training for trainers. In this chapter we want to focus on the development of the personnel and learning activities needed for an effective "training-of-trainers" program. We will start by examining a few assumptions about the job of training trainers. Then we will look at some of the dimensions of training competence needed to be an effective trainer of volunteers, of volunteer-paraprofessional-professional teams, and of units of volunteers such as boards, committees, and action groups. Next we will describe several approaches to achieving competence as a trainer-of-trainers. Finally we will look at an illustrative program for the professional development of trainers and supervisors of volunteers.

Some Initial Assumptions and Propositions

Being a very competent trainer of volunteers is not adequate preparation for being a good trainer of other trainers, because the training of trainers is a different type of task requiring different competencies from those involved in direct training and supervising of volunteers. Therefore, every organization or community using volunteer manpower needs to develop special trainership resources to provide a continuing program for the training of trainers.

The training of teams, groups, and total organizations is different from the training of individual volunteers. Because group training is an important trend in the training of volunteers, it is necessary to provide opportunities to learn this type of trainership skill.

Since at present there are relatively few well qualified trainers-of-trainers in any local community, it is desirable for agencies and organizations to collaborate in developing and using personnel who are qualified to function as trainers-of-trainers.

New models and materials for training are developing very rapidly, so it is important to provide continuing "renewal opportunities" for the personnel who are involved in the training of trainers.

Because almost all training programs require a creative integration of substantive content knowledge and process or procedural learnings, the programs for the training of trainers, rather than focusing just on process learning (such as sensitivity training by itself) or just on content learning (such as the substantive knowledge and skills of a particular agency program content), need to emphasize the skills of integrating these two forms of learning.

Trainership requires both diagnostic sensitivity to the training needs of the different types of trainees and skill in deriving creative training designs to meet them. This dual requirement has very important implications for the training designs for the training of trainers.

The implications of these assumptions will be seen in the remaining sections of this chapter.

Elements of Competent Trainership That Need To Be Taught

Skill in Diagnosing Needs, Readiness, and Potential for Learning. A core area of competence for all trainers is the skillful diagnosis of the situations of their trainee clients. The trainer must learn what kind of information can and must be collected ahead of time, before training activities begin, and what kind needs to be collected continuously in order to develop training designs to meet developing needs and changing readiness in the learners. Learning how to collect information and to think diagnostically about each individual trainee, or about subgroups of trainees who are significantly different in their levels of skills

and readiness, is difficult. But an even more exciting challenge is learning to become diagnostic about the total client system of which the trainee is a part—to be diagnostic about total groups or organizations as the clients of training activity.

A basic distinction in diagnostic orientation and technique is between discovering the "here and now pains" which are motivating an individual or a group to desire some kind of change and getting diagnostic information about the "images of potentiality" that exist for individuals or groups. These images can provide the basis for the development of objectives and motivations for growth.

One of the trainer's most important skills is that of involving the trainees in the diagnostic process: helping them clarify their own learning needs, set learning goals, and begin to work collaboratively on the learning activities for meeting those goals. Probably two of the greatest weaknesses in the training of volunteers are (a) the preparation of training designs and materials without involving the learner-volunteers in the diagnosis of need and readiness and (b) the lack of planning to provide different learning opportunities for trainees who are at different levels of experience and different states of development of their skills, attitudes, and values as volunteer workers.

Competence in Macrodesigning. Most trainers have little opportunity to develop competence and flexibility in designing total learning experiences for a group of trainees. Usually the most important decisions about a training program, i.e., decisions about the overall design of the training activity, are made without exploring a number of alternative designs and without keeping in mind the many clear guidelines that maximize the probability of high quality learning experiences for all trainees. Here are a few of these guidelines:

- The design must support internalization and application of learning by providing opportunities for each trainee to connect within himself new information which he acquires, to evaluate the relevance of that information to himself, to develop intentions to use in action the implications of the information, to plan to act, and to develop skills to carry out his action intentions. The use of this guideline provides a rather rigorous discipline for thinking about the nature and the sequence of learning activities.

- The design should confront learners with situations which require them to make decisions and to act, rather than just to observe or "think about things."
- The training design should enable the learners to work on the transfer of their learnings from the training situation to the real-life situations in which they will be expected to apply them.
- To the degree possible, the training design needs to provide for the development of relationships between trainees which will have support value after the training is completed. In many training situations there are two or more persons from the same setting, or persons who will be working in the same area. The training design should provide opportunities to develop collaborative teamwork and joint planning for future support on the job, where the volunteers will be facing the risks of playing for keeps and will be in critical need of support.
- The training design must provide for appropriate individualization of learning opportunities, rather than push all learners into conformity to one pattern.
- The training design must allow for progressive degrees of involvement of the trainees in the planning and execution of their own learning activities and learning design so that they can become increasingly independent of the trainer and increasingly competent in taking the initiative.
- The design must take into account the overall purposes, structures, and programs of the agencies and organizations from which the learners come so that there is optimal linkage between the learning activities of the training program and the application-of-learning situations with which the trainees will be coping.
- The macrodesign must carefully consider the time and facilities available for training, the structure of the situation in which the training will take place, the possible types of groupings of trainees, the division of labor among trainers, the mix of individual and group work time, and the balance of work and recreation.

Competence in Microdesigning. A microdesign is a plan for a single session or several sessions that fit into the overall macrodesign. Some microdesigns are focused primarily on opportunities for skill practice, others for conceptualization, others for work on

back-home application or for any of the other functions that are components of the total learning program. In order to be flexible and creative a trainer needs to be able to retrieve from his own experience and that of others a variety of microdesign alternatives to meet a particular training objective.

For example, after considering all the diagnostic information he has available about a new group of trainees, the trainer needs to be able to create a "start-up design" which will relate to people where they are and help them get started on the learning program. Sometimes the effective start-up is a microlab session that gives the trainees a brief taste of the various kinds of learning activities they will be experiencing in the total training program. Sometimes it is important to work through a sharing of the trainer's and trainees' expectations for the whole training activity, to develop a mutually understood "contract for teaching and learning." Sometimes a confrontation problem to be solved is the appropriate start-up.

Another type of microdesign is aimed at providing the trainees with "conceptual input," i.e., some concepts and principles which will help them develop comprehension of their roles as volunteers and of the processes of interaction involved in helping others. Most trainers have discovered that giving a lecture is not the way to help learners develop an understanding of basic concepts. But very few trainers have been helped to discover and try out the many alternatives to a didactic presentation.

The skill-practice exercise is another important kind of microdesign. All trainers need to be helped to develop a library of these exercises which they can adapt to the needs of any group of learners or any individual learner. The development of actual behavioral skill is one of the crucial aspects of any training program, but skill-practice opportunities represent a remarkably small portion of most training designs.

Another key aspect of good training designs is the provision for activities that help the trainee think through the application of his learnings to a variety of practical situations he will be facing in his on-the-job settings. Planning and practicing for application and arriving at commitments to try out are key elements of the training design and require specific types of microdesign sessions.

Other elements that belong in every training design and that call for the planning of specific kinds of sessions include the pro-

vision for feedback from the learners to the trainers, to permit the learners to influence and steer the training program in terms of their own learning needs and experiences; the use of resource persons in effective ways; the retrieval and use of written resources; meditation periods for personal integration of learning; team development of learners from the same back-home situation; and the exploration of value dilemmas and ethical problems.

Often in a team of trainers we find some who are more competent in creating overall designs for learning programs and sequences and others who are more creative in the specifics of planning and executing the microdesigns for the individual sessions that make up the program. It is important for every trainer to develop both types of resourcefulness, as well as competence in diagnosis.

Skill in Making Intervention Decisions. Most trainers have remarkably little opportunity to practice, in "not playing for keeps" situations, the actual skills of interaction with trainees. Early in their experience as trainers, most professionals develop a certain style of intervention, or way of looking at the training situation, which they find successful. They continue to use this style of interaction and initiative as a trainer without much opportunity to expand their repertoire and to explore new ways of behaving. For example, many trainers tend to see the activities in the training group in terms of whether the right *content* is being learned; others tend to focus on *individual trainees* who seem to have certain types of problems or need certain kinds of help; still others focus on the *total learning group* and its procedures, its development, and its process issues. It is important that every trainer be helped to develop a "trifocal orientation," so that he will consider all three alternatives when faced with an intervention decision.

Skill in Personal Counseling and Individual Consultation. In every training program there is need at various times for individual counseling with trainees who are feeling lost or frustrated in the training activities or are experiencing problems of motivation or commitment. Trainers need to develop skills in identifying such individual counseling needs and in conducting personal counseling that is supportive and facilitates personal problem solving without creating overdependency. Often a trainee needs

just a few minutes of special staff help to confront and clarify some individual learning issue or some problem of bringing about connections between his present learning experiences and his on-the-job responsibilities.

Skill in Involving Learners in Planning and Evaluating Their Learning Experiences. Many trainers are threatened by expressions of resistance, rejection, and frustration on the part of trainees. It is crucial that future trainers develop competence in encouraging learners to provide feedback about their reactions to their learning experiences. Future trainers must also learn how to help learners develop the criteria and skills for evaluation of their progress in the training program, and how to involve learners in the collaborative planning of the training design as it develops. There is no greater motivation for learning on the part of volunteers than the opportunity to influence the decisions of their trainers in developing and modifying their designs for learning.

Competence in Documenting and Evaluating Training Programs. The failure of most trainers to accumulate and share their learnings about training is most unfortunate. Few training experiences are documented for future use or for sharing with trainer colleagues. Most trainers have little skill or experience in developing and using evaluation techniques as a means for guiding the improvement of their own practices and for validating those that should be shared with others. Also, very few trainers know how and where to seek out the documentation that does exist. Included in such documentation should be an assessment of what worked and what didn't work in meeting training objectives. It is crucial that a body of knowledge about effective training procedures and designs be accumulated as a pool of resources for the thousands of trainers who need materials to help them enrich their training designs and skills.

Skill in Developing Training Materials. In many training programs for volunteers, certain types of resource materials are provided by the sponsoring agencies. However, there is a critical need to develop a stockpile of more specific training materials, such as case examples, taped episodes, filmed confrontations, 5- or 10-minute "theory sessions," and briefing sheets for skill-practice exercises. In every training activity there is some opportunity to develop, at least as a by-product, training materials which

would make a significant contribution to this stockpile. Skill in the development of materials should be learned by all trainees.

Competence in Developing Teamwork Skills. Most training activities are conducted by teams of two or more trainers. In some cases a senior trainer helps develop additional trainers by working with one or two experienced interns. The development and use of skills of collaboration has high priority as an objective in programs of training trainers.

Professional Development Designs and Activities for the Training of Trainers

The Intern Team with Senior Trainer. One of the most effective ways to develop trainership skills is to design and conduct a variety of training events for an intern team under the leadership of a senior trainer. The intern trainers have the opportunity to learn from the modeling of the senior trainer and from observing and discussing one another's activities. This type of trainership design also provides much needed practice in team development skills and problems of colleagueship, because there are many forces working toward competition between the interns and dependency and counterdependency in relations with the senior trainer. Careful and creative handling of the relationships with the client population is a must. In such internship training designs it is critical that there be plenty of opportunity for the interns to be observed, to participate in feedback discussion, and to collaborate in designing a variety of training activities to prevent their having only a limited experience with one type of design and training activity.

Co-Trainer Apprenticeship. Apprenticeship with a senior trainer is another pattern for learning trainership skills through observing, planning, and evaluating with a senior trainer as model and supporter. One of the problems with this design, as with the intern design described above, is that there are strong forces operating against risk taking and experimentation because the training is in a context of "playing for keeps." Because of this problem, some of the other designs mentioned below are important supplements to learning trainership through fieldwork.

Simulation and Role-Playing Practice Opportunities. One of the most effective ways to provide reality practice is through role

playing. The trainees jot down on cards the types of client reactions and intervention problems they find it most difficult to cope with. These cards are put in a pile in the middle of the table, and a card is drawn. Two trainees leave the room, including the one who put the card in. The rest of the group create role-playing episodes involving the critical issue or event. The two trainees are brought back, and one takes the trainer role in these episodes while the other sits behind him listening and thinking about all the alternatives he might use if he were in the trainer's seat. After a brief practice period of perhaps ten minutes, a signal is given and the second learner takes the trainer's seat. The first learner watches, noting differences in their approach and again thinking in terms of other possible alternatives. There is then a "stop session" while the real trainer leads a discussion about the intervention decisions that have been observed, getting the reactions of the group and comparing the interventions of the two "trainers." He helps review the alternative possibilities and generally supports the development of a flexible repertoire of intervention decisions and skills. This pattern of practice continues with other members of the group moving into the practice roles.

One important value of this kind of training activity is that all members have a chance to identify with and to learn the roles of different types of trainees, getting insights which help them as they move into the role of trainer. The fact that all of the learners have a chance to observe and criticize and support each other greatly multiplies the resources available for learning on the part of each one.

A similar opportunity to learn the skills of designing is provided by giving the learners a data sheet about a particular client population and its level and state of expressed need for training and asking them, in groups of three or four, to create appropriate training designs. These are reviewed, criticized, and revised. The same cycle is repeated many times with a variety of trainee populations and situations to be planned for. Unfortunately, this practicing of design skills is neglected in most of the learning programs for trainers.

Rotation of Trainership Role. Another favorite type of trainership opportunity has been called the "pass the ashtray" technique. In this design the trainees operate together as a training group. Whoever has the ashtray at a given moment is designated

as the group trainer, while the trainer of trainers sits as an ob-server and diagnostician. Anyone can ask for the ashtray and take over the role of trainer, or the trainer can pass the ash-tray to any other member at any time he chooses, but he must do so by the end of a given time period, usually about 15 min-utes. After two or three group members have had their trainer-ship practice, the senior trainer holds a clinic session, sharing his observations of their performance and getting the group involved in reviewing, discussing, and analyzing the trainership skills they have witnessed in the practice session. Many variations on this procedure are possible. One that is frequently used is to have co-trainers practice together so that additional aspects of team-work and collaboration can be reviewed as part of the learning about trainership. Sometimes the senior trainer is asked to sit in briefly as a trainer to demonstrate some point of intervention technique that has been brought up in his analysis.

Recording and Review Session. Still another widely used pro-cedure is to tape record or video tape the practice session and to conduct analytic review sessions by viewing the video tape or listening to the audio tape. Such tape listening or viewing is a very time-consuming procedure, so usually it is necessary to select certain brief excerpts of tape to be used.

Use of Temporary Client Groups. It has proved quite feasible in many trainer-of-trainer programs to have a team of clients (e.g., children, teen-agers, adult volunteers) available on call when a practice opportunity is needed. These voluntary helpers func-tion as a temporary client group and provide feedback. The op-portunity to get direct feedback from clients in the context of practicing one's trainer skills, where the situation is defined clearly and openly as a practice opportunity, provides greater freedom to experiment and to risk trying new styles of behavior. We have found that children relish the opportunity to be helpers in the training of adults and do a very responsible job of providing feedback.

Trainership Institutes and Back-Home Practice. One of the most successful approaches being utilized by some professional groups in the training of trainers involves a two-part institute, often lasting three or four days. The trainees function first as learners, with the trainer-of-trainers taking the trainer role. Then, during

the second phase, the trainees switch to the trainer role, practicing trainer skills with observation and consultation from their trainer. During this first institute they arrive at designs and commitments to try out during an interim period of perhaps a month, after which there is another institute. The focus at the second institute is on the exchange of trainership skills, consultation on designs, and opportunities for further practice. During the interim period it may be feasible to have an arrangement with the trainer so that telephone conferences can be conducted to review designs and to discuss training problems being met by the trainees in their back-home situations.

Discussion of Intervention Possibilities. Another favorite approach is for the trainers to describe briefly or to act out a critical moment where trainer intervention is needed. The trainees then jot down briefly all the possible interventions they can think of, select one or two which seem to them the most appropriate, and write a rationale for their choice. The trainees' decisions are then reported, and the trainer leads an active discussion of the comparative advantages and the value issues involved in the various intervention possibilities.

In summary, it is critically important to design a variety of practice opportunities that give trainees freedom to experiment with the trainership role, exposure to a wide repertoire of intervention models and practices, and the opportunity to design many types of training activities and to deal with a wide range of critical training problems and intervention issues.

An Illustrative Trainership Program

To provide a concrete example of an approach to some of the training-of-trainer activities discussed above, we shall describe one trainership program, a 2½-day institute for trainers from a number of community agencies. The flow of the institute is as follows:

Friday Noon. When he arrives at the motel at noon on Friday each trainee is handed a guide sheet. It asks him to stop briefly in a small room off the lobby and to play one of the three or four cassette tape recorders he will find there. As he listens on earphone attachments to the brief tape, he hears the trainer wel-

come him and clarify the objectives of the institute, which are also printed on the guide sheet.

Each of the trainees has been asked to bring his own tape recorder with two or three blank cassettes. If he has forgotten this or does not have one, he is told that he can check one out on a rental basis from the motel desk. The orientation tape asks that, after he has gotten settled in his room, he dictate a reflective set of self-observations of his feeling about becoming a learner. He is asked to quiet the various voices he hears within himself which are taking different postures about the energy and time and status issues involved in being at the institute and assuming the role of learner. He is also requested to dictate a fantasy observation of himself functioning as a trainer six months in the future. He is to describe concretely what client population he is working with and what he sees himself doing and hears himself saying that make him very pleased with the progress he has made as a trainer since the institute six months ago. The tape also tells him where the buffet lunch can be secured when he is ready to go down, join his fellow trainees at one of the tables, and share whatever he wants to of the things he has put on the tape for himself. He is asked to go downstairs by 1:30.

Friday, 1:30 p.m. The 30 trainees have come in and have gathered at tables of six to eight, after picking up their buffet lunches at a side table. On each table are felt-tip pens and materials to make their name badges, and there is considerable interest on the part of the trainees as they see names going on and feel free to ask questions about each others' back-home situations. But the conversation soon changes to the material each worked on in his own room. They cautiously begin to share their expectations and hopes for the institute. The program notes invite them to have a leisurely lunch discussion and to convene for a general session at 3 p.m.

Friday, 3 p.m. The general session starts in the same room with the same table groups, after a ten-minute break to clear the tables of dishes. The first activity of the general session is for each person to fill out a brief process observation sheet on which he lists some of the factors he thinks have been operating at his table to inhibit free and open communication and rates on a five-point scale how productive he feels the conversation at his

table was and how satisfied he feels about his own role in it, with reasons. The table members then share their data. Each table is asked to make a brief report on its productivity and on the major restraints to openness which were identified. This process discussion period takes about a half hour. There are brief and interesting reports from most of the tables about their observations and evaluations.

Then the tables are provided with manila folders and string, and each participant is asked to write on one side of a folder his name, location, type of trainership function, the type of client population he works with, and the agency he is connected with. The trainees hang these manila folders around their necks with the string and have a 10-minute "milling period" while background music is played. They look for others with whom they can create a work group that will provide the most possibilities for back-home collaboration and support, in view of location and types of functions.

In ten minutes these new groupings have been achieved, and the new table groups are ready to move ahead with the next phases of work. Their first job is to share their fantasies about their trainership development and their priorities for personal learning needs as they conceive them at this time.

Friday Evening Session (*7:30-9:30 p.m.*). The institute leader, using an overhead projector, presents some eight dimensions to be considered in creating training designs. Each dimension goes up on the overhead projector screen, and the light is left on after the presentation is completed.

Mimeographed case descriptions of three different macro-design tasks are then passed out to all tables. Each case description specifies a client population (e.g., a set of 20 married couples, a population of black and white teen-agers from the same high school, a group of black volunteers from a deprived area, etc.) and the length of time available for a training activity and gives some background data about training needs as they have been expressed. Each table group selects one of the three design tasks to work on and has an hour to develop a design for the training activity, using the institute staff as consultants when desired. Each table team is asked also to indicate the additional diagnostic data they would like to have about the client population and to call on any one of the staff members to respond

with the information, if it would reasonably be available. When they have completed their tentative designs, adjacent table groups present their designs to each other for suggestions and criticisms. Staff are involved in each session. After a half hour of review and criticism the design teams have an opportunity to use another half hour in redesigning their training activity. These new designs are recorded on a ditto master by one of the table members, so that all designs can be run off immediately and be available as a resource for everyone at the conference.

As soon as its design is complete, each table team conducts a review session for itself on two topics: "What questions would we like to pursue with the staff leadership on the principles and techniques of designing training programs?" and "What have we learned about the problems and the techniques of team development from our experience in working together as a trainer team?"

Saturday, 9 a.m.—Review of Learning and Questions About Designing Training. In a general discussion session the staff respond to the tables' questions and observations of the previous evening concerning the principles of design.

Saturday, 10:30 a.m.-12 Noon—Development and Operation of Training Exercises. The staff present, in a brief conceptual input of 15 minutes, some of the major types of purposes for "microdesigns" or training sessions within a flow of total training designs (e.g., conceptual input sessions, skill practice sessions, interpersonal sensitivity). The trainees at each table then conduct a 10-minute brainstorm session on all the different purposes of training sessions that they can think of. These are recorded on sheets of newsprint, which are then put on the wall as an exhibit of ideas from all the tables. A volunteer committee agrees to edit and integrate all the brainstorm sessions into a report to be ready after lunch.

During lunch the staff members identify the major types of microdesign tasks listed by the table groups.

Saturday, 1:30 p.m.—Microdesign Practice. The staff put up along the wall a series of newsprint sheets with headings of different types of design tasks (e.g., a design exercise on giving and receiving help, a conceptual presentation on resistance to change, a practice session on preparing to apply one's learning back home). The trainees sign up to work as design teams on the

tasks of their choice, and for the next hour they work together creating session designs. The staff circulate offering consultation to the teams as needed.

Saturday, 7:30-9:30 p.m.—Design Fair and Consultation. Each team has its "booth," manned at all times by at least one member of the team. Everyone moves around and studies the training design creations of the other design teams.

Sunday, 9-11 a.m.—Intervention Practice. This period of two hours is set aside for each table group to practice process intervention decisions and actions. The staff help each group organize its practice opportunities so that all members can practice trainer skills and consultation skills and have their interventions discussed and reacted to. A second round of practice activity follows, in which each table group operates as a task group planning for work with a back-home client system. The group members are given the responsibility for acting as consultants on group process or group efficiency and for making process interventions that would help the group in its task work. There is a very active general discussion session about the differences observed between the earlier group activities and trainership, focused on learning process skills, and the "task group" activities focused on the performance of some task, in which process interventions were aimed at improving the productivity of the task work.

Sunday, 11 a.m.-12 Noon, 1:30-2:30 p.m.—Resource Demonstration Fair. In the final workshop activity the trainees divide up into trios to explore and demonstrate the use in training activities of various types of resource materials, including large newsprint, record players, tape recorders, overhead projectors, art materials, film clips, filmstrips, etc. Each team has the responsibility for demonstrating various training innovations to their peers in the multiple-booth fair.

Sunday, 2:30-4 p.m.—Final Session. In the final session of the institute each table focuses on exploring the feeling of each of its members about the need for further trainer development opportunities and help. The members identify ways of being helpful as resource persons for each other in their development as trainers back home on the job. They also discuss their needs for periodic help from senior trainers. Specific plans for next steps of development and report are reviewed with the staff.

This illustration is just an illustration! There is no implication that one weekend is enough for a trainer-of-trainers program. For example, such a weekend might be the start-up of a program of three institutes, six weeks apart. There might be need for more orientation to the specialized content of particular volunteer training programs. But the illustration does focus on ways of teaching some of the major ingredients of training competence summarized earlier in this chapter. The training for each of these competencies provides a guideline for the development of the expanded and continuing trainer-of-trainers program.

VIII Images of Potential:
The Volunteer Community

At this point we feel the need to pull together into some kind of conclusion our explorations into the various aspects of voluntarism—philosophy, recruitment, training, new roles, and interagency relations. A mere summary of what we have said would not be very exciting, either for you or for us. So we have decided to try to integrate our ideas and observations by taking a leap into the future. We shall observe in our imagination a community doing an outstanding job of identifying, mobilizing, and using its volunteer power potential.

To begin our search for this community of the future, we should clarify what we are looking for. What derivations do we make from our analysis in the previous seven chapters? Our ideal "Volunteer Community" would have as its goals the following:

1. To develop the necessary knowledge, skills, and resources to find, recruit, train, place, and support additional volunteer manpower for service throughout the community

2. To increase the knowledge of men, women, and children in all parts of the community about the opportunities for volunteer service and to increase their motivation to offer their services appropriately

3. To extend greatly the range of places and ways in which volunteers can serve the community

4. To develop voluntarism in such critical and undeveloped areas of service as cross-age, cross-talent, cross-sex, cross-race, cross-social class, and cross-economic status

5. To experiment actively with the development of new human service teams of professionals, paraprofessionals, and volunteers

6. To develop new designs for the communitywide coordination of volunteer services

7. To increase the number of professionals who have compe-

tence as trainers of volunteers and as leaders of human service teams (This would include offering in the schools and colleges theoretical and experimental learning opportunities in recruiting, training, and leading volunteers and human service teams.)

8. To improve the linkage between federal and state programs and local leadership to assure use of all the relevant financial and program resources in the development of local volunteer manpower.

Keeping these goals in mind, let us leap ahead several years and see what a community that has been striving successfully toward them might look like. Let us take off in our helicopter and hover over our imaginary city, getting a perspective on all the types of activities that make it a vital and functional Volunteer Community: the activities of all those persons in the community who, as part of their daily life, and unpaid for their time and energy, are carrying out many of the necessary functions of a creative, developing, human need–meeting community.

The Volunteer Community in Action

The Volunteer Community we are observing can be divided into eleven subcommunities according to function: the leisure time and recreational community, the cultural community, the educational community, the economic community, the political community, the welfare community, the religious community, the health community, the social control community, the mass communication community, and the geographic community. You may recall this breakdown from our discussion of taxonomy in Chapter III. We shall observe each of these communities and see what kinds of volunteer activities are in progress there.

In the *recreation community,* volunteer workers function as referees, assistant recreation directors, "tot lot" supervisors, and teachers of crafts, games, hobbies, and dance. They are being used much more than previously as day camp and resident camp directors and counselors, and simply as resource volunteers who bring to the camp setting skills that the professional and para-professional staff may not have. Volunteers also act as youth leaders in youth agencies and church groups. They chaperone youngsters on trips and special events. Some volunteers are "on call" as resource persons for youth groups; they are available

to offer transportation or to cook or to help with training in special skills. There is a whole directory of such talents that can be used when most needed. A Volunteer Resources Referral Service Bureau has been developed.

Elder-youth teams (made up of retirees and teen-agers) serve as discussion leaders for groups, as youth group advisers, and as visitors to shut-ins and handicapped youngsters and oldsters. Intergenerational teams of a "younger," a "middle," and an "older" have been formed to bring the three generational points of view to a group discussion series. Volunteers are also acting as connectors and extenders of agency services to community people of all ages, particularly those who are usually unreached.

In the *cultural community,* volunteers are being used extensively as tour leaders and other types of aides in the art, history, and science museums. Some are teaching courses in the museums. Others are acting as interpreters and guides at the zoo, helping children and adults to really enjoy their visit. Volunteers are leaders of community music, art, writing, dance, drama, and painting activities. They are often assistant class leaders or resource persons in classes taught by professionals. Volunteers organize and lead nature appreciation walks and talks. A pool of cultural resource volunteers is available to individuals and groups as leaders, experts, and helpers. These volunteers who are active in the cultural community are part of the Volunteer Resources Referral Service, so that they can be effectively identified and used. A few volunteers are acting as "cultural emissaries" in a variety of ways to poverty neighborhoods, to the elderly, and to the very young.

In the *education community,* volunteers are functioning as teachers' aides and school volunteers. The national school volunteer program is continually increasing in size and effectiveness. During school hours, adults, high school students, and junior high students are engaging in voluntary cross-age tutoring activities. Outside of school hours, there are many opportunities for tutoring both youngsters and adults who are in need of extra help to make their school experiences and life experiences more valuable and more fun. Special resource volunteers are available to schools, adult education classes, religious education activities, and the informal education activities that take place in the education community. Volunteer nursery school helpers, street crossers, playground aides, cafeteria aides, library aides, and administrative

aides, as well as volunteer teachers on special subjects, are available from the Referral Service.

Volunteers are also making a very special contribution as curriculum idea helpers. Young and old have ideas of what makes a relevant, exciting, and challenging curriculum. Volunteers have been put on curriculum committees of schools and school districts in order to tap these ideas.

In addition, volunteers are being used extensively as counselors for vocational preparation, personal problems, and growth planning. These helpers represent a particularly valuable way to extend the schools' counseling services, which would otherwise be woefully inadequate. More individualized help to students through counseling has been very much needed, and the volunteers in our imaginary city's schools have been trained to extend this kind of service very effectively, with continuing training and supervision by professionals. The schools, in collaboration with the Family Life Development Council, are conducting a series of neighborhood parent institutes on the things parents can do to collaborate with the schools in the education of their children.

In the *economic community,* volunteers have been tapped as job developers and recruiters of the unemployed and untrained. They help young apprentices in many areas of work experience. They have made it possible to offer intern positions in a variety of occupations in business and industry to young people and adults who need this kind of opportunity. They also give the additional personal support that cannot be offered by busy supervisors. Retired businessmen are being used to counsel the young job seekers and to help the newly employed get started. The program of "outreach" to locate and involve the unemployed in training opportunities is manned by volunteers from the low-income areas of the community.

In the *political community,* volunteer vote getter-outers and poll helpers have been used for a long time. Volunteers are now beginning to help not only in campaigning, but also in governing the community. For example, hundreds of volunteers have been recruited to help think through a new urban planning scheme for the large city. Small group discussions have been set up with citizens who have been asked to give their opinions on what a good community would be like if they had a chance to help plan it. Volunteer aides to mayors, councilmen, the school super-

intendent, and others perform very helpful functions. It has been clearly demonstrated that volunteers can be trained in a disciplined fashion to become aides to a variety of political leaders who need more help than they can afford to pay for from public funds. Volunteers also act as connecting links, giving the political leaders closer ties to the community. A coordinator of volunteers has been appointed to recruit volunteers for all levels and areas of local government.

In the *welfare community* volunteers act as social work aides, visitors to the elderly, sick, and handicapped, housing finders for welfare clients, community helpers and informants, and waiting room volunteers. The latter make the waiting room experience a more comfortable one than it usually is, by helping clients find their way to the intake desk, taking care of their children if they are not part of the service sought, etc. Volunteers are being used to help find foster homes, to assist in adoptive parent interviews, to act as intake interviewers for agencies, to provide day care for children, to transport those who do not have transportation or are too handicapped to use it, and to connect welfare clients with the cultural, economic, educational, and health communities.

It is in the welfare community particularly that teamsmanship has been developed, because the professional, the paraprofessional, and the volunteer have very different resources to offer. Each has his own unique knowledge, connections, training, and sensitivity. Working together as a team, they are able to provide more extensive and higher quality services for patients, clients, and constituents.

In the *religious community* there have always been a variety of opportunities for volunteers, who have worked as religious education teachers, Sunday School transporters, camp directors and counselors, cultural activity leaders, board and committee members, and sometimes even volunteer guest lecturers on Sunday morning. In our illustrative community, opportunities have been increased and diversified. Volunteers are acting as interpreters to the foreign born who would like to attend a particular religious activity. Volunteers are taking leadership in presenting points of view for discussion, whether from the pulpit or in a more informal manner. Many new volunteers have been recruited. Particularly exciting are the use of volunteer pairs

who have different social or racial backgrounds and the increasing use of teen-age couples and husband-wife pairs as volunteer teams. The interpersonal rewards of collaborative service add an important dimension to volunteering.

In the *health community*, which is increasingly taking responsibility for providing health services for all citizens, volunteers find their services constantly needed. They are working as neighborhood health center aides, receptionists' aides, medical social work aides, and visiting nurses' aides. Volunteers may also be viewed as health service extenders, who apprise citizens of the kinds of services available to them and personally connect them with the ones they need. Volunteers have long been used as fund raisers by the national medical research charities, such as the American Cancer Society. In our imaginary community, volunteers are also leading the fund raising for local community health needs that do not fit into the budget of the neighborhood health center, such as clothing for the newborn, certain kinds of medicine, and aids for the handicapped. They are serving as drivers for incapacitated patients and as crisis visitors to families that have undergone accident, illness, or death. (This is an adaptation of the Army's community service program of crisis visitors.) Many volunteers are working as consumer education aides and as consultants on diet and healthy living to people who need information and support.

The *social control community* is just beginning to make use of volunteers. In the field of corrections, volunteers act as probation aides in a program known as Volunteers in Service to Offenders, as tutors in prison, as helpers to parolees. They deal with both juvenile delinquents and adult offenders. Volunteers are being trained to be court aides and counseling aides. Some are visitors to resident facilities, where they head discussion groups, help make renovations, or help prepare a resident in a correctional facility for his release and comeback to the larger society. Volunteers enable the local Halfway Houses to extend their services beyond the time and ability of the professional staff. Volunteers are serving as supportive "inviters" to persons who are trying to make their way back into society. Helping people to complain appropriately when they are being illegally victimized is another exciting challenge for a network of volunteers working with professional leadership and consultation. Growing teams of young

former offenders are working with pre-teens and young teens as crime prevention aides.

When we look at the community's *mass communication services,* we see the beginning of some very new volunteer positions: as connectors to local newsworthy events and persons, as TV and radio station aides, and as volunteer announcers. Volunteers are serving as newspaper contributors, news alerters, and teachers helping the young to learn the skills of using the mass media. A few volunteers are working as advertising aides, writing and selling ads of local significance. Volunteer fund raisers for the local educational television station make possible the airing of public information programs that could not otherwise be seen.

In the total *geographic community* one of the recent developments has been the concept of community neighborhood aides. These are volunteers who listen to neighborhood people's problems and perhaps help them solve them, or at least connect them to the proper source of help. Volunteer physical and social planners work with the professionals in these fields. Volunteers also serve as relocation aides, newcomer welcomers, visitor welcomers, and statistical documenters. The coordinating community is beginning to see that there is really no limit to the kind of help volunteers can give to other citizens in an organized fashion to make the community a more friendly and accessible one.

The examples cited above show only some of the ways in which volunteer work in this community of the future offers opportunities for people to serve themselves and each other. Through the use of volunteers, the community is able to extend *all* its services to all its citizens in a much more encompassing and usable way.

Mechanisms of Coordination and Training in the Volunteer Community

Several years ago a Coordinating Council for Volunteer Services was created in our Volunteer Community. It includes representatives from public and private agencies, the city government, the board of education, the community college, and the university extension service. One of the Coordinating Council's operating mechanisms is the Coordinating Committee on Recruitment and Referral, which uses a variety of techniques to discover

potential volunteers and to recruit them for particular community needs. It keeps a computerized directory of information about their interests, skills, commitments, and experiences. The mass media collaborate very fully with this committee.

A second operating mechanism, the Interagency Committee on Training and Support, has developed a pool of trainers of volunteers and helps stimulate and coordinate a continuing program of training. Professionals on this committee come from the university extension, the community college, the American Hospital Association, the adult education department of the board of education, the training department of a local industry, the personnel department of the city government, and several local education and welfare systems. One active task force of this committee is the interagency team which is recruiting and training 100 pairs of volunteers to be leaders of parent education groups being formed and sponsored by many different agencies, organizations, and informal groups. Another very exciting task force focuses on cross-age helpers. This group attempts to support and stimulate a healthy growing-up process by recruiting older children, teen-agers, and retirees to help provide for the needs of infants, children, and youth.

Another operating mechanism activated by the Coordinating Council is the Committee on Service Innovations and Volunteer Recognition. Its purpose is to identify creative volunteers and significant human service innovations and to provide public recognition of outstanding volunteer service.

An interesting recent development is the formation of the Association for the Utilization of Volunteers. Any person, young or old, rendering any type of volunteer service in the community is eligible for membership. Dedicated to extending and improving the quality of voluntarism and promoting the appropriate use of volunteers, the Association promises to become a very influential group. It is working to improve the training of volunteers, to upgrade their service opportunities, to give them higher status, and to overcome professional resistance to their use.

Before we leave our illustrative community let's take a brief look at the variety of training activities going on there. The adult education department of the public school system has a leadership training course every three months for volunteers who are officers and chairmen of local organizations and com-

mittees. The leadership of this training course is recruited by the Interagency Committee on Training and Support from the pool of well-qualified teachers in the various agencies. The community college has a very innovative and well-attended laboratory course for "people helpers," both paraprofessionals and volunteers. It provides skill practice and orientation to new ways to serve. The course developed by the American Hospital Association for its own directors of volunteers has been opened to directors of volunteers in all types of settings. The university extension service is offering several training opportunities, including an applied behavioral science course titled "Understanding Other People and Ourselves" and an advanced laboratory course for trainers of volunteers which focuses on the designing of training programs. Recently the extension service conducted a weekend work conference on cross-age helping which reviewed the most innovative and successful practices in this area of volunteer service.

The Coordinating Council for Volunteer Services conducts a two-hour luncheon workshop every other week where the focus is on sharing creative practices and helping the volunteers to support and stimulate each other in adapting and trying out new ideas. It is an open workshop for anyone to attend at any time. The Parent Education Task Force also has a continuing program for the leader pairs who have volunteered to learn how to conduct sessions with parents on "family life development."

This has been much too brief a glimpse of our Volunteer Community's vibrant programs for the development and use of all types of volunteer manpower. But how did the Volunteer Community reach its present state? What initial steps can community leaders take to develop the vast untapped resources of volunteer service that exist in every community?

Action Strategies for Achieving the Volunteer Community

There are several effective ways to move toward a full mobilization of volunteer energy and commitment in the community. Here are four of the "start-up" strategies that were used in the development of the Volunteer Community we have been observing:

1. *Community Conference on Use of Volunteers.* A small interagency conference committee and a team of two training

consultants designed a one-day invitational conference for all the key leaders of agencies, governmental departments, and organizations with programs using volunteers or having a need to develop volunteer resources. The 100 leaders met all day in a hotel ballroom, sitting at 10 round tables. During the first two hours they participated in a knowledge retrieval and utilization session in which the consultants briefly presented a series of research findings and generalizations about voluntarism, such as the basic conditions for motivation and support of volunteers. Each table used a problem-solving design to derive implications for action from these principles, to diagnose factors inhibiting and supporting fuller recruiting and use of volunteers, and to develop strategies of action.

During a second period each table selected a case study of new uses of volunteers to work through in detail. One case dealt with the development of a telephone "hot line," in which volunteers are trained to answer callers' problem questions about health, welfare, and employment problems or refer them to other agencies, to counsel teen-agers about sex and drug problems, and to connect older citizens of the community with volunteer service opportunities.

Another case study was that of an "exchange of practice" session. Volunteers working with youth and adults on probation come together at a one-day meeting to discuss, retrieve, and document their successful practices, "successful" being defined to mean those that have helped a probationer to live a more productive, healthy, and useful life.

In another case, the community has established a multipurpose center and developed an interagency coordinating board. This board consists of an intergenerational, interracial, intersex group of volunteers, professionals, and paraprofessionals. Many of the participants have never been on a decision-making body before. They have very different economic, religious, and educational backgrounds, and varied areas of experience. A small group of the board members and an outside consultant are planning the first training session for this new board.

In the fourth case study, people from many neighborhoods in the community have held a series of meetings about their desperate needs for child care centers as more and more of the mothers are going to work. With the help of a consultant from

the state department of education, an articulate volunteer strategy planning committee is working to take a proposal for the studying and organizing of such centers to the state and then to the federal level of government.

A fifth case involved a professional consultant who lives in the Volunteer Community but does much of his consultant work elsewhere. He is excited about his community's innovations and its utilization of all kinds of people as volunteers to provide social, cultural, recreational, health, welfare, and employment services. He is a "circuit rider," connecting the new ideas and practices of his community to the expressed needs of organizations and agencies in the neighboring communities.

Working on these cases gave the participants in the community conference an opportunity to experiment with the basic skills of documentation and interagency use of each other as resources. In the final phases of the conference, task forces worked on ways to organize a continuing program of effort on the utilization of volunteers. From these discussions the idea of the Coordinating Council for Volunteer Services emerged.

2. *Conference of Volunteers.* In a second start-up activity, an ad hoc sponsoring committee solicited nominations of innovative volunteers from all agency leaders. The nominees—men, women, teen-agers, elders, blacks, suburbanites—convened for a lunch session and met until 5:30 P.M. They began with an "identification of interests" exercise, interviewing each other in pairs about their interests in volunteer activities. The data elicited were recorded on a manila folder suspended by a cord around each interviewee's neck. Then during a leisurely scanning period the participants wandered around reading each other's personal data and selecting two or three other participants with whom to meet and exchange ideas, skills, and experiences as volunteers. From this exciting conference the plan emerged for a Continuing Association of Volunteers.

3. *Interagency Training-of-Trainers Institute.* An ad hoc planning committee identified all of the professionals in the community with some responsibility for training volunteers. A questionnaire return indicated that 25 to 30 of them were ready to participate in a weekend institute for trainers, with a follow-up monthly seminar, led by two outside trainers with special skills in the area of volunteer training. The weekend focused on the

skills of designing training activities and included intensive practice sessions on trainer skills.

4. *Local Survey of Volunteers and Volunteering.* A survey committee, working with a consultant from the university, designed a survey with three purposes: (a) to identify and describe briefly the programs and organizations using volunteers and to get basic data about each of the volunteers, (b) to locate needs for volunteers, and (c) to assess the available but noninvolved population of potential volunteers.

The team used a combination of questionnaires to agencies, interviews with administrators and directors of volunteer services, and checklists for samples of the population in all walks of life. The findings of this survey were the basis for an invitational conference of agency and organizational leaders, as well as for stories carried in the newspapers and on local radio and television stations. The invitational conference established the need to form the Coordinating Committee on Recruitment and Referral.

Conclusion

We hope our illustration of a Volunteer Community of the future has provided you with a framework for summarizing our earlier chapters and for thinking about the exciting challenge of mobilizing and creatively utilizing the human resources of a community. Most of the elements of our image of potentiality can be found today in some community, but they have not been conceptualized and coordinated in any single community effort. The next steps are waiting to be taken. We hope we can help.

Epilogue

All of us read many ideas that stimulate us, but only rarely do we put them into practice. We hope the resources and methods suggested below will enable you to bridge the traditional gap between reading and implementing, between images and action, and will help you to adapt to your own situation any ideas you may have developed as a result of our presentation.

Consultation

Society is full of potential resources for help and advice in the field of voluntarism. These resources, both within and outside your community, can be tapped through a variety of consultation methods.

- You can telephone one or more consultants around the country to get help with a particular agenda of questions. If you want to be even more organized, send the consultants a list of the questions a few days beforehand. It is sometimes useful to talk with several consultants simultaneously, via special conference calls set up by your telephone operator.
- You can send a set of questions, either on paper or on tape, to one or more consultants, requesting that they tape record their responses and send the tapes back to you.
- If both your organization and your consultant have access to video tape and viewing equipment, you can tape the particular situations on which you need help and send the tapes to him. He then views them and either tape records or video tapes his responses. A telephone conference before you tape the situations is advisable, to ensure that you will include on your tape the things the consultant finds most useful.
- You can bring several consultants to your agency or organization for a diagnostic consultation day with all those who need help on a particular matter, such as designing a volunteer training program.

• You can arrange with outside consultants to visit on a periodic basis. For example, if your organization is designing a volunteer development strategy, you might call the consultants in initially to help develop the strategy, later to check how it is working out, and at some still later time to develop a continuing evaluation and feedback plan. You might then arrange for continuing visits on an annual basis.

Recognizing that organizations often find it hard to determine whom to consult regarding their use of volunteers, the Center for a Voluntary Society has compiled a network of available consultants and is ready to help any organization diagnose its problems and find the best, most conveniently located consultants for its particular needs.

Multimedia Material

This book has offered many suggestions for possible uses of such media as tape, video tape, recordings, and slides in volunteer recruitment, orientation, preservice and in-service training, and other areas. We hope that you will feel free to experiment with multimedia materials in all phases of your work. Multimedia packages of various kinds are now on the market. One produced recently by the University of Michigan on cross-age tutoring includes slides, records presenting typical situations, written suggestions for training sessions for tutors and tutees, and an invitation to consult personally, either by telephone or tape, with one of the creators of the package.

If your organization would like to develop its own multimedia materials, help is available from many universities and private organizations, as well as from the Center for a Voluntary Society. As much as possible, any materials developed should be disseminated and exchanged with other organizations, to defray production costs and to "spread the wealth."

Short-Term Conferences and Meetings

Carefully designed meetings and conferences are one of the most important and effective methods of generating action. There are many designs to choose from, depending on the circumstances.

• One useful kind of meeting is the start-up problem-solving event, where problems are identified and possible ways to solve

them are suggested. Such a meeting often gives rise to a series of planning and consultation meetings.

- Another kind of short-term meeting brings together representatives from different agencies to consider their common problems and to try to develop common strategies for coping with them.
- The "images of potentiality" meeting calls for participants to imagine themselves six months or a year hence and to write down what they see themselves doing in the organization and what progress they have made since the time of the meeting. The rest of the day is then spent working on ways to make the images a reality. This kind of meeting can be the foundation for an organization's long-range goal planning.

Short-term meetings and conferences, be they for problem census, policy making, goal setting, training, or inspiration, need careful planning to ensure that the desired results can be obtained within the time allotted. Consultants can be of great help in designing such meetings and conferences.

Continuing and Periodic Meetings

Regular meetings, especially for training purposes, can have a much more lasting effect than "one-shot" meetings after which the participants are expected to do everything right. People are more apt to implement what they learn when there is continuing reinforcement. Moreover, periodic meetings benefit the organization as well as the participants, by providing contact, support, and feedback.

To cite a model, two-day meetings for training change agents might be held every other month for a year. The work between meetings would be mutually agreed upon by the planners and the participants, with all meetings after the first based largely on the needs of the participants and on the ongoing work within their own projects.

A series of meetings can also be very fruitful in the training of trainers. Each session in the series might focus on a different way of helping people learn, such as large and small group meetings. simulations, role playing, and multimedia materials.

Staff meetings can be considered ongoing training and information meetings as well. Most staff meetings would benefit from being planned with more continuity. Perhaps a rotating committee of

staff members could plan the meetings to serve the needs of all the staff, with "submeetings" for subunits.

Exchange of Practices

Every day volunteers and other social practitioners and people-helpers develop innovative, creative, experimental ways to help their clients. Usually, however, they have no way to document their new practices. They simply exchange them verbally and informally, and many get lost. It is estimated that thousands of inventive social practices are lost each year for want of a good way to get hold of them.

Our suggestion is that organizations using volunteers develop methods for bringing these social inventions to the light of day. One method might be to hold a cross-agency conference for volunteers in a particular field, such as those working with 16- to 21-year-olds. Using a little interview schedule, they can quiz each other about what they have found to be successful in working with this age group. A recorder or documenter can take down each respondent's name and address and his successful practice, so that it can be reproduced and used by others. Such a conference, incidentally, is also a good way to begin or strengthen collaboration between agencies, as it demonstrates their interdependence and enriches them both.

The Center for a Voluntary Society

The Center for a Voluntary Society, Room 300, 1507 M Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005, has sponsored the publication of this book as a service to all organizations and groups that work with volunteers. The Center is concerned with strengthening and improving the status and the practices of those voluntary associations that seek in turn to improve the quality of life. It works toward this end by pulling together existing knowledge in the field of voluntarism, generating new knowledge through research, applying what is known through training and consultation, and disseminating what it has learned through books, occasional papers, training materials packages, a newsletter, and a library.

The Center for a Voluntary Society has a small skilled staff supplemented by a very wide network of "experts" available to offer consultation to groups and individuals seeking special help

and advice. As a unit of the NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, the Center is in touch with many of the leading behavioral scientists in all parts of the country.

The staff of the Center is committed to helping translate ideas into action and welcomes all requests for information and assistance.

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Fuchs, Lawrence A. *The Volunteer Aspect of Being a Peace Corps Volunteer.* Harriet Lowenstein Goldstein Series, The Volunteer in America. No. 12, Papers in Social Welfare, Issue No. 2. Waltham, Mass.: Brandeis University, undated. *Examines the voluntary component of the Peace Corps volunteer's motivation and role.*

Stein, Morris I. *Volunteers for Peace: The First Group of Peace Corps Volunteers in a Rural Community Development Program in Colombia, South America.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966. *Chronicles the history of the first group of Peace Corps volunteers. Includes extensive statistical data on their training, selection, motivation, and effectiveness.*

H. Citizen Participation Models of Community Organization

National Assembly for Social Policy and Development. *New Trends in Citizen Involvement and Participation.* New York: the Assembly, 1956. *Series of papers concerning new citizen participation models for social change. Includes case histories of projects. Proposes that as serious and expert an approach be made to the role of citizen as is now made to the career role.*

National Federation of Settlements and Neighborhood Centers. *Dynamics of Citizen Participation.* New York: the Federation, undated. *Published in the late 1950's, this is a community theory approach to finding leaders and operating programs of broad-scale involvement in inner city settings. Some discussion of interagency participation, its goals and values.*

————. *Organizing Neighbors To Act on Their Own.* New York: the Federation, 1957. *Summary of conference on the improvement of citizen participation, sponsored by the Federation. Provides guidelines for improving citizen participation in urban areas.*

Schindler-Rainman, Eva. "The Potentials of Volunteers in Urban Planning." *Next Steps in Strengthening Social Components of Urban Planning.* (Edited by L. K. Northwood.) New York: Wiley Press, 1970. *Suggests a variety of ways to utilize volunteers in urban planning in order to provide broader citizen participation.*

Spiegel, Hans B. C., editor. *Concepts and Issues.* (Vol. 1 of *Citizen Participation in Urban Development.*) Washington, D.C.: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, Center for Community Affairs, 1968. *Collection of readings focused on citizen participation, especially the participation of the poor in governmental programs of urban renewal, war on poverty, etc. Includes bibliography on the literature of the field.*

I. Miscellaneous

Committee of Correspondence. *Volunteers Can Make the Difference.* New York: the Committee, 1964. *Collection of essays de-*

scribing the impact of volunteers on a variety of community service programs.

DeGrazie, Alfred, editor. *Grass Roots Private Welfare.* New York: New York University Press, 1957. *Presents winning essays from a competition sponsored by the Foundation for Voluntary Welfare. Essays describe various private community volunteer programs organized to combat community problems. Several discuss the role of voluntarism in general.*

Levin, Stanley; Parisien, Noel; and Thursz, Daniel. *A Handbook on Volunteers in Army Community Services.* Prepared at the University of Maryland Center for the Study of Voluntarism. Washington, D.C.: Department of the Army, Human Resources Research Office, 1969. *Detailed outline of how to institute and maintain an effective volunteer program. Includes material on training, selection, placement, evaluation, recognition, etc., specially designed for the Army setting.*

Levine, Margaret. "Volunteers Serve New York State." *Facts for Filing.* Albany: Women's Unit, Executive Chamber, 1968. *Review of what volunteers are doing throughout New York State in mental hygiene, social services, senior citizens programs, and the development of equal opportunity.*

Michigan Department of Social Services, Volunteer Services Project. *Volunteer Services Pilot Project.* Lansing: the Department, 1967. *Thorough discussion of inception and operation of an unusual family-to-family volunteer program in which whole family units offer to serve as helpers/sponsors to other family units in struggles with jobs, welfare programs, social life, etc.*

National Commission on Resources for Youth. *Selected Youth Participation Projects.* Prepared for the Joint Commission on the Mental Health of Children. New York: National Commission on Resources for Youth, 1968. *Documents the great variety and effectiveness of programs to involve young volunteers. Includes several case studies in depth, surveys numerous projects briefly. Tells whom to contact for further information about each project.*

Schindler-Rainman, Eva, and Lippitt, Ronald. "Working with People Whom We Forgot." *Adult Education Handbook.* (Edited by David Rauch.) New York: Macmillan Co., 1971. *Analyzes segments of the population that have not been included in formal or informal adult education programs and suggests ways to include them.*

Schumacher, Marjorie. *Extending Services Through the Use of Volunteers.* New York: Planned Parenthood, World Population, 1968. *Reviews the experience of this organization in granting increasing responsibility to volunteers over the years. Concludes that despite problems the effort to train volunteers to cope with ever higher levels of responsibility is well worthwhile.*

Telephone Pioneers of America. *Pioneer Progress, 1967-1968.* Annual Report. New York: the Pioneers, 1968. *Reviews what has been done by the service organization of a particular industry through voluntary social welfare programs.*

III. Functional Aspects of Volunteer Programs

A. Motivation, Recruitment, and Placement

Adult Education Association. *Working with Volunteers.* Leadership Pamphlet No. 10. Washington, D.C.: the Association, 1956. *Overview of all aspects of a program for volunteers, from recruitment and motivation to placement and supervision.*

American Red Cross. *Placing Volunteers.* Washington, D.C.: the Red Cross, 1965. *One of a series of pamphlets dealing with the practical aspects of operating a volunteer program. Others include topics such as personnel practices, interviewing, basic training, and principles of volunteer service.*

Auerbach, Arnold J. "Aspirations of Power People and Agency Goals." *Social Work* 6:66-73; January 1961. *Examines the motives that lead people to seek significant roles in voluntary community service and attempts to draw implications for the improved operation of agency boards.*

Barclay, D. "Filling the Need To Feel Needed." *New York Times Magazine,* March 29, 1959. p. 42. *Discusses the psychological and social needs that motivate people to do volunteer work.*

Coleman, Jules. "Motivations of the Volunteer in the Health and Welfare Fields." *Mental Hygiene* 41:218; April 1957. *Reports on the crucial factors involved in the motivation of volunteers in these major voluntary action fields.*

Colmen, Joseph G. "Volunteerism: A Constructive Outlet for Youthful Energy." *Journal of Marriage and the Family* 27:171-75; May 1965. *Advocates expansion of a model of volunteerism that, like the Peace Corps, appeals to such developmental goals as testing of self, exploration of values and structures of society, and fulfillment of independence.*

Girl Scouts of the United States of America. *Recruiting, Selecting and Placing Volunteers.* New York: the Girl Scouts, 1960. *A practical guide for recruiters of volunteers.*

Schindler-Rainman, Eva. "Why Do People Volunteer?" *Community Organization Papers.* National Conference on Social Welfare. New York: Columbia University Press, 1959. pp. 127-33. *Describes some of the motivations of people to volunteer, and some of the reasons why they do.*

B. Training and Supervision

Abrams, Percy. "Education of the Volunteer." *Youth Leader's Digest* 26:273-78; June-September 1964. *Describes the variety of training techniques available and emphasizes the need for continuing training and supervision of volunteers.*

Christ, Jacob. "Volunteer Training as an Education." *Mental Hygiene* 51:433-39; July 1967. *Advocates a broad and continuing program of training for volunteers, including a well-rounded set of emotional and intellectual learning experiences.*

Health and Welfare Council of the National Capital Area, Volunteer Services Branch. *How To Work with Volunteers.* Demonstration training course for staff. Washington, D.C.: the Council, 1962. *Transcribed summaries of a course prepared through the pooled resources of many agencies and educational institutions for the training of personnel who work with volunteers.*

Larkin, Kathleen Ormsby. *For Volunteers Who Interview.* Chicago: Volunteer Bureau, Welfare Council of Metropolitan Chicago, 1968. *A guide for volunteers whose job is to interview prospective volunteers.*

Naylor, Harriet H. *Volunteers Today: Finding, Training and Working with Them.* New York: Association Press, 1967. *Comprehensive general summary of practical advice about the initiation and operation of volunteer programs. Analyzes societal trends and their implications for volunteering.*

Schindler-Rainman, Eva. *Trainers in Action.* New York: Camp Fire Girls, 1969. *Designed to guide trainers of adult leaders of Camp Fire Girl groups.*

Spergel, Irving. "Role Behavior and Supervision of the Untrained Group Worker." *Social Work* 7:69-76; July 1962. *Stresses that organizations must take account of prior attitudes that influence*

untrained workers in their group programs. Careful orientation is needed to achieve successful meshing of individual worker with the needs of the agency and the group.

Stenzel, Anne K., and Feeney, Helen M. *Volunteer Training and Development: A Manual for Community Groups.* New York: Seabury Press, 1968. *Comprehensive work covering aspects of the theory and practice of running a good volunteer program. Special concentration on training and evaluation of volunteers. Takes a developmental approach to the role of the volunteer.*

United Community Services Volunteer Bureau of Omaha. *Creative Supervision of Volunteers: A Conference for Career Supervisors, Volunteer Supervisors, Lay Workers.* Omaha, Nebraska: the Bureau, 1964. *Proceedings of the conference shed light on the general principles of supervision, with particular reference to the motivation, retention, and growth of volunteer workers.*

C. Volunteer–Staff Relations

Brown, W. L. "Unearthing an Organization's Hidden Perceptions: Relationships Between Volunteers and Staff." *Adult Leadership* 12:239; February 1964. *Describes the importance of discovering and sharing basic attitudes of volunteers and staff toward each other and their organization as a basis for improved teamwork.*

Council of National Organizations for Adult Education. *Probing Volunteer-Staff Relations.* New York: Association Press, 1963. *Provides a kit of instruments for organizational self-analysis of relations between staff and volunteers. Concentrates on comparative perceptions of the two groups about their organization as a way of increasing communication between the groups.*

Monroe, Donald and Keith. *How To Succeed in Community Service.* Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1962. *How-to manual, unusual in that it is aimed at the volunteer. Offers advice and guidance on how to relate to professional staff and how to make oneself useful and effective as a volunteer.*

National Conference on Social Welfare. *Volunteer and Professional Staff: 1962 Models.* Summary of 1962 Conference held at Columbus, Ohio. New York: the Conference, 1962. *Transcriptions of papers read and discussions held on the issues surrounding relationships of volunteers and professional staff.*

National Social Welfare Assembly. *The Significance of the Volunteer on the American Scene.* New York: the Assembly, 1963. *Dis-*

cussion of relationships and differences between volunteers and professionals, the role of volunteers in several fields of social work, and the needs for recruitment and retention of volunteers.

Naylor, Harriet H. "Varying Perceptions: Good Working Relationships Between Staff and Volunteers." *Adult Education* 14:137-41; Spring 1964. *Discusses the importance of sharing viewpoints between staff and volunteers in facilitating an effective relationship. Offers pointers about ways to improve the teamwork of the two groups.*

Pernell, Ruby B. "Professional and Volunteer Workers in Traditional Youth-Serving Agencies." *Social Work* 2:63-67; January 1957. *Discusses the problems and possibilities inherent in personnel distribution and assignment, particularly in terms of differences between volunteers and staff.*

Royfe, Ephraim H. "The Role of a Social Worker in a Big Brother Agency." *Social Casework* 41:139-44; March 1960. Case study *of an organization that has had to deal with acceptance by volunteers of the addition of social workers to the organization staff. This pattern, which was common to many organizations at an earlier period of history, has been examined in reverse for many organizations in the contemporary era.*

D. Board Membership and Role

Houle, Cyril D. *The Effective Board.* New York: Association Press, 1960. *Based on a training program for members of a city-wide board, this book seeks to set forth key principles for effective work by the volunteer board of an agency.*

National Information Bureau. *The Volunteer Board Member in Philanthropy.* New York: the Bureau, 1968. *Attempts to orient the board member to his role, both its opportunities and its dangers. Includes bibliography.*

Schmidt, William L. *The Executive and the Board in Social Welfare.* Cleveland: Howard Allen, 1959. *Outlines a possible form of organization that could contribute to effective working relations between board and executive. Gives practical guidance on how the board-executive relationship may be made fruitful and effective.*

Sorenson, Roy. *The Art of Board Membership.* New York: Association Press, 1950. *Extensive analysis of the board member's role*

and function from both the management and social work frames of reference. Provides guidance for the new and old board member alike.

————. *How To Be a Board or Committee Member.* New York: Association Press, 1953. *Brief popular version of the above work.*

Trecker, Harleigh B. *Building the Board.* New York: National Public Relations Council of Health and Welfare Services, 1954. *Thorough presentation of the recruitment, training, and utilization of creative board members by voluntary organizations.*

IV. Manpower Pools for Volunteer Work

A. Youth

Eberly, Donald J. "Service Experience and Educational Growth." *Educational Record* 49:197-205; Spring 1968. *Pleads the case for the recognition by institutions of higher education of the importance and value of service experiences for college students.*

————, editor. *National Service: A Report of a Conference.* New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1968. *Examination of the concept of national service for all young people. Analyzes such topics as manpower needs to meet social objectives, and social problems where service is needed. Proposes national service as a design for solving social problems, as an alternative or complement to volunteering.*

National Social Welfare Assembly. *Youth in Community Affairs.* New York: the Assembly, 1958. *Summary of a consultation of youth leaders which attempted to gain insight into key factors motivating youth to participate in service roles.*

————. *Youth Takes the Field.* New York: the Assembly, 1962. *Aimed at teen-agers, this pamphlet describes areas where they may seek involvement in social service and provides practical guidelines for self-assessment regarding such involvement.*

B. Elderly

Johnson, Keith. "Foster Grandparents for Emotionally Disturbed Children." *Children* 14:46-52; March-April 1967. *Reviews the OEO program in which poverty-level elderly volunteers are paid minimum compensation to work with children. Relevant both to indigenous volunteer programs and to the newer concepts of the partially compensated volunteer.*

Rosenblatt, Aaron. "Interest of Older Persons in Volunteer Activities." *Social Work* 11:87-94; July 1966. *Reports a survey of 250 elderly persons regarding their interest in and skills for volunteer work. General conclusion: although most were interested, few had extensive skills. Therefore, special training and attention were prerequisite to real use of this particular group.*

Worthington, Gladys. "Older Persons as Community Service Volunteers." *Social Work* 8:71-75; October 1963. *Analyzes the problems and possibilities of using elderly persons as a new volunteer pool.*

C. Men

Danielson, John M. "Men in a Women's World." *Auxiliary Leader* 3:9-11; August 1962. *Describes the role of male volunteers in the traditionally feminine hospital volunteer setting.*

French, Lynn. "New Fields for Men Volunteers." *Hospitals* 36: 49-51; October 1962. (American Hospital Association.) *Emphasizes the widening possibilities for use of male volunteers in the health care setting.*

Montmorency, Arthur F. "There's a Man in the House and a Woman Out of the Home." *Proceedings of 1964 Annual Workshop.* New York: Association of Volunteer Bureaus of America, 1964. *Discusses the roles of men and women both in the home and in community service, with special emphasis on the new roles of male volunteers.*

Rezak, Nicholas. "Trends in the Participation of Businessmen in Local Voluntary Affairs." *Sociology and Social Research* 48:289-300; April 1964. *Deals with the participation patterns of businessmen in the voluntary agencies and associations which handle so many social and welfare problems in the community.*

United Community Funds and Councils of America. *The Businessman in Community Planning.* New York: the United Community Funds and Councils, 1959. *Reports the results of a study of what businessmen respond to, like, and require in their participation in community service. Provides guidelines for recruiting and maintaining this manpower group in volunteer and board roles.*

D. Women

New York Times. "Wanted: Educated Women To Start or Return to Work in Community Service." *New York Times,* October 1,

1966. p. 20. *Outlines the need and opportunity for women in volunteer service roles and makes a particular appeal to the educated woman who may also be attracted to a work career.*

Rothe, MaryLou, and Newark, Christine. "Homemakers in Voluntary Community Activities." *Marriage and Family Living* 20: 175-78; May 1958. *Traces the trends in married women's participation in the labor and volunteer labor forces of the American economy since 1890. Observes that women still see volunteering as part of this role, even with their increased participation in the paid labor force, but that their motivation now is more recreation- and self-improvement–oriented, and less service-oriented.*

Schindler-Rainman, Eva. "Surfacing—An Overlooked Minority?" *Adult Leadership* 18: 305-306, 324-25; April 1970. *Describes the emerging creative role of women in both the workaday and the volunteer worlds.*

E. Indigenous Poor

Camp Fire Girls, Inc. *Innovation and Imagination for Youth.* Report of Seminar IV, Metropolitan Critical Areas Project. New York: Camp Fire Girls, 1967. *Documents in a workshop type of report the efforts of this organization to apply its traditional program of volunteer leadership to the new challenges of an urban environment. Includes discussion of use of indigenous volunteers.*

Coggs, Pauline R., and Robinson, Vivian R. "Training Indigenous Community Leaders for Employment in Social Work." *Social Casework* 48: 278-81; May 1967. *Sample of numerous articles on training indigenous personnel for paraprofessional jobs in social work. Not directly volunteer work, these jobs represent a gray area between new partially compensated volunteer roles and paid paraprofessional roles in poverty areas.*

Freeman, Lucy. "Biennial Conference Roundup Report: Citizen Participation." *Public Welfare* 14: 28-29; January 1956. *A brief look at the use of clients as volunteers in public welfare programs. Advice on how to make it work.*

Jackson, Nelson C. "The Use of Indigenous Volunteers from Minority and Culturally Deprived Groups." *Social Work Practices— 1964.* New York: National Conference on Social Welfare, 1964. *Examines the pros and cons of the use of minority and "culturally deprived" groups in volunteer roles in which they have not traditionally been involved.*

National Social Welfare Assembly. *Employing Staff from the Client Group: New Developments.* Presented at the annual forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare, 1966. New York: the Assembly, 1966. *Describes involvement of indigenous personnel in paraprofessional roles in social casework. Holds relevance for issues regarding paid volunteers, particularly indigenous poor.*

Pearl, Arthur, and Riessman, Frank. *New Careers for the Poor: The Non-Professional in Human Services.* New York: Free Press, Macmillan Co., 1965. *Analyzes the possibilities for use of the poor in paraprofessional roles in community service. Indirectly bears on the increased use of indigenous volunteers who are partially compensated.*

Piven, Frances. "Participation of Residents in Neighborhood Community Action Programs." *Social Work* 11: 73-80; January 1966. *Highlights the need for careful planning to overcome obstacles to community participation on the part of lower-income residents. Emphasizes that needs and skills of this group are different from those of traditional middle-income volunteers.*

Richards, Catherine V., and Polansky, Norman A. "Reaching Working Class Youth Leaders." *Social Work* 4:31-39; October 1959. *Report of a study commissioned by the Girl Scouts because of their need to improve recruitment of indigenous leadership in poverty and working class areas. Suggests approaches that may be effective.*

Robinson, James. "Summary and Recommendations from the Consultation on Minority Participation in Voluntary Service Programs." *Volunteer Digest* 5:1-4; November 1968. *These are the results of a conference convened by the Commission on Youth Service Projects. Forces favoring and inhibiting minority groups' participation in volunteer service are discussed.*

Schindler-Rainman, Eva. "The Poor and the PTA." *PTA Magazine* 61:4-7; April 1967. *Surveys the obstacles to involvement of the poor in typical PTA programs and suggests possible ways to increase their participation through changes in the organization.*

————, and Lippitt, Ronald. "What We Have Learned from Working with the Poor." *Human Relations Training News* 13:1-3; 1969. *Analyzes lessons the poor have taught to middle class groups working with them. Highlights creative differences in family relationships, use of time, expressiveness, etc.*

V. Voluntary Associations

American Medical Association. *Directory of National Voluntary Health Organizations.* Chicago: the Association, published annually. *Handbook for physicians and medical agencies, listing voluntary health organizations in the United States.*

Babchuk, Nicholas, and Edwards, John N. "Voluntary Association and the Integration Hypothesis." *Sociological Inquiry* 35:149-62; April 1965. *Reviews substance of the traditional theory that voluntary associations play an integrative function in complex societies. Reviews the literature on the subject and attempts to highlight factors not generally discussed therein.*

————, and Gordon, C. Wayne. *The Voluntary Association in the Slum.* Nebraska University Studies, N.S. No. 27. Lincoln, Nebraska: University of Nebraska Press, 1962. *Examination of the voluntary association in a slum setting. Traces the role of such organizations, usually associated with middle class life, in the lives of minorities and the poor.*

Barber, Bernard. "Participation and Mass Apathy in Associations." *Studies in Leadership.* (Edited by Alvin W. Gouldner.) New York: Harper Brothers, 1950. pp. 477-504. *Classic study analyzes the conflicts between the democratic value of citizen participation in voluntary associations and the apathy-producing realities of formal bureaucratic organizations. Documents the central facts that most citizens hold no memberships in voluntary organizations and that most organizations are run by oligarchies.*

Birnbaum, Max. "Adult Education in General Voluntary Organizations." *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States.* (Edited by Malcolm Knowles.) Chicago: Adult Education Association, 1960. pp. 378-92. *Deals with the role of voluntary organizations in informal adult education.*

Carter, Richard. *The Gentle Legions.* Garden City: Doubleday and Co., 1961. *Discusses the history and development of the various major voluntary health organizations, stressing their unique and important role in American public health.*

Freeman, Howard E.; Novak, Edwin; and Reeder, Leo G. "Correlates of Membership in Voluntary Associations." *American Sociological Review* 22:528-33; October 1957. *Attempts to find predictive variables, other than socioeconomic status, for voluntary association membership.*

Glaser, William A., and Sills, Donald L. *The Government of Associations: Selections from the Behavioral Sciences.* New York: Bedminster Press, 1966. *Comprehensive analysis of voluntary associations in their various functional, historical, and organizational aspects. Anthology includes essays by a wide variety of behavioral scientists and represents a summary of current literature on voluntary associations.*

Goldhammer, Herbert. "Some Factors Affecting Participation in Voluntary Associations." *Contributions to Urban Sociology.* (Edited by E. W. Burgess and D. Bogue.) Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964. pp. 224-30. *Surveys some correlates of membership in voluntary associations.*

Hagedorn, Robert, and Labovitz, Sanford. "An Analysis of Community and Professional Participation Among Occupations." *Social Forces* 45:483-91; June 1967. *Study of the correlation of various occupational groups with membership and participation in voluntary associations.*

Hausknecht, Murray. *The Joiners: A Sociological Description of Voluntary Association Membership in the United States.* New York: Bedminster Press, 1962. *Presentation of data from a national survey research study on membership in voluntary associations. Analyzes the validity of traditional theories about the role of voluntary associations in society. Provides a survey of the literature and a full bibliography.*

Hoffer, Joe R. "Adult Education in Voluntary Social Welfare Organizations." *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States.* (Edited by Malcolm Knowles.) Chicago: Adult Education Association, 1960. pp. 366-77. *Focuses on the influence of experiences in social welfare organizations on the learning process of adults. Such experiences may be seen as part of an informal adult education process.*

Komarovsky, Mirra. "The Voluntary Associations of Urban Dwellers." *American Sociological Review* 11:686-98; December 1946. *Classic study of the memberships that city dwellers hold in voluntary associations.*

Levitte, Mendel. "Adult Education Through Voluntary Health Agencies." *Handbook of Adult Education in the United States.* (Edited by Malcolm Knowles.) Chicago: Adult Education Association, 1960. pp. 255-62. *Discussion of the role played by voluntary health organizations in adult education.*

Merrifield, Charles W., editor. *Leadership in Voluntary Enterprise.* Council of National Organizations for Adult Education. New York: Oceana Publications, 1961. *Anthology of philosophical and analytical essays on leadership, structure, and role of voluntary organizations.*

Morris, Raymond M. N. "British and American Research on Voluntary Associations: A Comparison." *Sociological Inquiry* 35: 186-200; 1965. *Reviews the British and American literature on voluntary associations with an eye to the differences in approach, emphasis, and subject.*

National Health Council. *Voluntarism and Health: The Role of the National Voluntary Health Agency.* New York: the Council, 1962. *A history of voluntary health agencies and a projection of the future of voluntarism in health.*

National Social Welfare Assembly. *The Role of Voluntary Social Welfare Agencies: A Report.* New York: the Assembly, 1961. *Focuses primarily on problems and potentials of voluntary organizations. One section deals with the relationship of staff and volunteers.*

Palisi, Bartolomeo J. "A Critical Analysis of the Voluntary Association Concept." *Sociology and Social Research* 52:392-405; July 1968. *Theoretical consideration of the concept of the voluntary association and the social conditions that influence its form and membership. Attempts to draw implications for research.*

Sills, David L. *The Volunteers: Means and Ends in a National Organization.* Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1957. *Based on an intensive study of the National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, which is highly successful in recruitment and use of volunteers. Focuses on the organization's characteristics and on the motivations of its volunteers.*

Smith, Clagett G., and Tannenbaum, Arnold S. "Some Implications of Leadership and Control for Effectiveness in a Voluntary Association." *Human Relations* 18:265-72; August 1965. *Studies the results of officers' leadership characteristics on the effectiveness of the League of Women Voters.*

Smith, David Horton. "The Importance of Formal Voluntary Organization for Society." *Sociology and Social Research* 50:483-94; July 1966. *Scholarly analysis of the functions voluntary organizations perform in the social system.*

Warriner, Charles K., and Prather, Jane Emery. "Four Types of Voluntary Associations." *Sociological Inquiry* 35:138-48; April 1965. *A classificatory scheme which analyzes 35 voluntary associations and groups them into four types according to the functions they fulfill. Each type is found to have different organizational characteristics and kinds of activity.*

VI. Resource Inventories

A. Bibliographies

Adams, Ethel M., and Cope, Suzanne D. *Volunteers: An Annotated Bibliography.* New York: United Community Funds and Councils of America, 1968. *Extensive classified bibliography covering most aspects of the field.*

Arffa, Marvin S. *High School and College Student Volunteers in Community and Psychiatric Settings: A Bibliography with Selected Annotations.* Supplementary mailing. Washington, D.C.: American Psychiatric Association, Mental Health Service, 1966. *Very extensive list of citations for this specialized group of volunteers.*

Johnson, Guion Griffis. *Volunteers in Community Service.* North Carolina Council of Women's Organizations, Chapel Hill, North Carolina. Durham: Seeman Printery, 1967. *Reports an intensive study of North Carolina volunteers and volunteer supervisors. Includes extensive bibliography with special focus on the role of volunteers in fighting poverty.*

Kroeger, Naomi. "Role of the Volunteer in Contemporary Society: A Survey of the Literature." *100,000 Hours a Week: Volunteers in Service to Youth and Families.* New York: National Federation of Settlements and Neighborhood Centers, 1965. pp. 75-84. *Summarizes the content of literature in the field; does not cite actual titles.*

National Social Welfare Assembly. *Some New Material on Volunteers.* New York: the Assembly, 1966. *Brief survey of recent materials, grouped primarily according to the volunteer work setting.*

Scheier, Ivan H. *Volunteer Programs in Courts: Collected Papers on Productive Programs.* U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social and Rehabilitation Service, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development. Washington, D.C.: the Department, 1969. *Extensive bibliography lists relevant directories, films, tapes, and newsletters, as well as books and articles.*

U.S. Department of the Army. *The Volunteer: An Annotated Bibliography for Use in Army Community Service.* Pamphlet No. 608-25. Washington, D.C.: the Department, 1967. *Lengthy annotations in a bibliography divided into a wide variety of categories. Draws heavily from material on civilian volunteer programs.*

B. Periodicals Dealing Primarily with Volunteers

Volunteer Administration. Quarterly. Boston: Northeastern University. *Deals with issues of administration and supervision of volunteer programs. Offers articles and materials keyed to the development and coordination of such programs.*

Volunteer Leader (before 1969 entitled *The Auxiliary Leader*). Monthly journal for hospital auxiliaries. Chicago: American Hospital Association. *Provides articles and exchange of news and tips for volunteers in hospital settings, many of them members of hospital auxiliaries.*

Volunteer Viewpoint. Monthly newsletter of the American Volunteer Bureaus. New York: United Community Funds and Councils of America. *Deals with people and programs, studies, and resource materials for and about volunteers.*

Volunteer's Digest. Bimonthly. Washington, D.C.: Volunteer Community Activities Clearinghouse. *Ideas and new items in the volunteer field. Notices of current research and new publications.*

C. Listings of Volunteer Opportunities

Commission on Youth Service Projects. *Invest Yourself.* New York: the Commission. Published annually. *Listing of several hundred projects with openings in service roles for high school and college youth.*

Health and Welfare Council of the National Capital Area, Volunteer Services Branch. *A Registry of Community Volunteer Service Opportunities.* Washington, D.C.: the Council, 1968. *Sample of the kind of interagency taxonomy that could be produced by any city.*

National Service Secretariat. *Directory of Service Organizations.* Washington, D.C.: the Secretariat, 1968. *Aimed at college students, this directory gives an introduction to general areas of service, guidelines for getting involved, and a listing of organizations to contact for further information.*

National Social Welfare Assembly. *Youth Takes the Field.* New York: the Assembly, 1962. *Pamphlet aimed at the teen-age audience. Attempts to describe areas where involvement in social service may be sought and to provide practical guidelines for self-assessment regarding such involvement.*

U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Welfare Administration. *Opportunities for Volunteers in Public Welfare Departments.* Welfare Administration Publication No. 21. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1967. *Describes a variety of roles available to volunteers in different types of welfare programs across the country.*

D. Research Studies on Volunteers and Volunteering

Arsenian, Seth, and Blumberg, Arthur. "A Deeper Look at Volunteers." *Adult Leadership,* June 1960. pp. 41, 65-66. *Reports sociological and psychological data on a group of YMCA volunteers.*

Bair, John T., and Gallagher, Thomas J. "Volunteering for Extra-Hazardous Duty." *Journal of Applied Psychology* 44:329-31; 1960. *Attempts to discover personality characteristics that differentiate volunteers from nonvolunteers. Examines the effects of various conditions on volunteering.*

Joint Commission on Correctional Manpower and Training. *Corrections 1968: A Climate of Change.* Washington, D.C.: the Commission, 1968. *Harris and Associates Survey reports on attitudes of correctional workers throughout the nation. Several questions elicit data on workers' attitudes toward volunteers in the corrections field.*

————. *The Public Looks at Crime and Corrections.* Washington, D.C.: the Commission, 1968. *Survey made by Harris and Associates of public attitudes toward the corrections field. Includes two questions on volunteer work in the field.*

Matthes, JoAnn. "Volunteer Participation in Social Welfare Agencies: A Conceptual Framework." Unpublished master's thesis, University of California at Berkeley, 1961. *Examines factors that influence individuals to participate as volunteers, to accept certain roles, and to join certain agencies rather than others.*

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