VOLUNTEERISM

An Emerging Profession

JOHN G. CULL   RICHARD E. HARDY

With a Foreword by
MRS. GEORGE ROMNEY

American Lecture Series®

VOLUNTEERISM

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The American Lecture Series in Social and Rehabilitation Psychology offers books which are concerned with man's role in his milieu. Emphasis is placed on how this role can be made more effective in a time of social conflict and a deteriorating physical environment. The books are oriented toward descriptions of what future roles should be and are not concerned exclusively with the delineation and definition of contemporary behavior. Contributions are concerned to a considerable extent with prediction through the use of a functional view of man as opposed to a descriptive, anatomical point of view.

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This book is dedicated to significant persons in our lives:

Mr. and Mrs. Edmond Carroll Glover, Jr.
Victoria, Virginia

Mrs. Peyton Jefferson
Victoria, Virginia

Mr. and Mrs. Richard Seay Love
Victoria, Virginia

Mr. and Mrs. Jessee McLaughlin
Victoria, Virginia

FOREWORD

OUR century, the most scientific and educated in recorded history, is also the most violent. In spite of our government becoming more and more involved in providing funds for education, housing, welfare, and practically every other social need, our human problems have continued to increase. We had believed that we could create a "Great Society" through increased governmental outlays and directives alone, but we were mistaken — our social and human suffering skyrocketed. We have learned that the greatness of our civilization depends upon the increase of individual strength and the development of qualities that will lead to self-actualization.

According to the late Dr. Abraham Maslow, a thorough scholar and eminent psychologist, self-actualization is the goal toward which all men and women strive. It includes productivity, self-realization, and becoming all that he himself can become.

In order for progress and goodness to be realized in our society, we must develop greater respect for each individual and strive to understand in a personal way, his needs, his fears and longings and then relate to them.

This is the essence of volunteerism. The volunteer sees each person not as a deprived, depraved, or unfortunate object, but as a beautiful individual who has needs and aspirations — as one who requires motivation, direction, and self-esteem.

Is this too comprehensive an order for the volunteer? We have considered the alternative of expecting impersonal government to solve all problems, regardless of their personal implication. We have believed that all people with similar problems should be housed by the state. State institutions for the emotionally disturbed, the retarded, the unwed mothers, the juvenile delinquents, and the senior citizens have not brought self-fulfillment and motivation to those who have been categorized, isolated,

and institutionalized; nor have they provided the opportunity for the inmates to be useful, wanted, and creative. Fraternizing exclusively with others who have similar problems to one's own cannot produce the stimulation, diversity, and inspiration needed for rehabilitation and self-actualization. Nor do we have enough institutions nor money to house all those with problems or in need of help even if we would.

We have found that as people with problems are permitted to remain in family situations, when this is feasible, with volunteer help implemented, rehabilitation and progress are made possible.

As the volunteer understands the person with whom he is involved, he gains respect for him, and also increases his own humanity. He becomes joyful in being human, and finds pride in being able to relate to others.

When a professor at Michigan State University placed on the bulletin board a request for volunteers, 350 students responded. This was in 1965. They were to work on a one-to-one basis with potential dropouts in the inner city schools. When the youngsters asked how much the college students were being paid to help them, they were able to reply that they were not receiving a cent, but that they were interested in the youngsters themselves and their opportunities to grow and develop. This made all the difference. Boys and girls who could not be reached by paid professionals, came to life. In 1972 there were 38,000 student volunteers throughout the state of Michigan alone — and most other states have similar outstanding records of individual involvement and performance by their university students.

Operation Bootstrap in California was instigated by young men who had had prison records and wanted to motivate young boys from the ghettos in a positive way. They themselves set up headquarters equipped with IBM Machines and other relevant equipment and then taught the youths how to use the machines with dexterity. The machines and tools were provided gladly by the companies who manufactured the machinery. This project has been highly successful.

In Detroit, Carol Williams enlisted the help of 500 volunteers to help her place boys and girls from the inner city high schools in jobs for which they had been trained before their graduation. She

started the project herself — donating her services because she was alarmed at the lack of opportunity for jobs for the young graduates. As she found how successful she could be, others enthusiastically volunteered to help her.

Before her efforts, about 15 per cent of the graduates from the high schools involved were placed in the business world. For the past few years she has been able to place over 90 per cent of those who did not enroll in colleges or universities.

Many who have been unemployable are able to hold jobs successfully because volunteers have cared enough to provide them with alarm clocks, take the potential employee to his bus, and stand at his side in the plant until the employee becomes accustomed to working for required periods in a concentrated and productive fashion. Human involvement is necessary in many instances if the unemployed are to be given an opportunity to work and gain confidence in their abilities.

In every area we need each other — we need to be of use and others need to know they are esteemed by us and have intrinsic worth; that we are not whole without them, nor can our humanity to perfected unless we help others to live and grow.

The main theme of our age seems to be quality of life. How do we achieve it? When Neil Armstrong was asked whether technology would improve the quality of life, he replied that "technology does not improve the quality of life; it improves the quality of things. Things can improve the convenience of living and the experiences of living (television and spaceships), and even the duration of living (vitamins, x-rays, etc). Improving the things that surround living can be achieved by the application of knowledge. Improving the quality of life, however, requires the application of wisdom."

It is apparent now that wisdom requires us to lay down all tools of self-destruction, to more effectively make human use of human beings, to reaffirm our belief that life is sacred in all instances and that the essence of identity and dignity is to give oneself to something that will outlive oneself.

The contributors to this outstanding book as well as those who contributed to *Applied Volunteerism in Community Development,* also developed by Dr. Hardy and Dr. Cull, are outstanding

leaders in the field of volunteerism. From them and these books should come the impetus for continued growth and many new developments which will affect all of us.

Washington, D.C.   LENORE L. ROMNEY

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Chapter 1

OPPORTUNITIES FOR VOLUNTARY ACTION

JOHN G. CULL and RICHARD E. HARDY

INTRODUCTION

VOLUNTARY action has grown into an emerging profession. The work of volunteers has existed for many decades, but recently this work has changed from an avocation to a permanent, established vocation. Part of the growth is the result of the large manpower pool of healthy, retired persons; the need for more manpower due to the emphasis on social welfare services; and lastly, federal legislation which facilitates the growth and development of volunteer service agencies. Volunteers appear by the thousands — these are idealistically motivated persons who want to devote some portion of their lives to serving their fellow man. They come not for pay, though some may receive a token amount. They come not with expectation of a career, though some may eventually enter a helping profession.

There are many names for volunteers. They are called aides, indigeneous workers, community workers, candy stripers, grey ladies, etc; however, they all have one thing in common — they give their services for the satisfaction of helping people. The most significant change in the functions of volunteers is the result of our becoming more people-oriented. A few decades ago, we had a federally sponsored, massive voluntary action effort in the Civilian Conservation Corps. This organization was a materialistically-oriented operation. Today, we have comparable federally

*All references in this chapter refer to the named author's contribution in the book, *Applied Volunteerism in Community Development,* Richard E. Hardy and John G. Cull, Charles C Thomas, Publisher, 1973.

supported voluntary action programs; however, they are focused on people. These programs include the Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA), the Peace Corps, the Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP), etc. Our focus is on people helping people. Our needs for people to minister to the social, psychological, and vocational needs of others is so great that voluntary action is evolving to its rightful role in social welfare.

USE OF THE VOLUNTEER

Volunteers are not a free source of help, either professional or paraprofessional. The cost in terms of recruitment, training, and supervision is substantial. The volunteers are in many respects equivalent to employees of the organization in that they require job descriptions, in-service training programs, supervision, and well-planned rewards for meritorious service.

The volunteer is misused and is done an injustice when he is selected indiscriminately and immediately assigned a task. He should be provided the same personnel management services as other employees if his services are to be of maximum benefit to himself and to the organization. The purpose of the volunteer is to provide a diversity of interaction with the members of the organization (a service based on a different experiential background), and to allow for a richer level of contact than would be allowed if the organization were forced to rely exclusively on paid staff. However, the facility should not solicit volunteers exclusively for the economic benefits inherent in a volunteer program.

TYPES OF VOLUNTEERS

There are volunteers in almost every type of human endeavor. Whenever man has needed help, there has been a volunteer to assist in his need. As volunteers have become more numerous, volunteerism has become more structured. In this chapter, we will present some of the more prevalent types of situations in which volunteers operate. This discussion is by no means exhaustive but is presented only to exemplify the diversity of the emerging profession, volunteerism.

Volunteers in the Rehabilitation Setting

Traditionally, rehabilitation has been an individualized program to provide services to individuals who are handicapped as a result of disabling conditions. These conditions may be physical, mental or emotional. Since the approach is individualized, the personnel needs are of an overwhelming magnitude; therefore, rehabilitation is a natural area for the spontaneous development of volunteerism.

Perhaps the first disability group which benefitted from volunteers was the blind and visually impaired. This group had and continues to have very obvious needs which require extraordinary concentrations of manpower such as readers who will spend time reading to the blind to keep them abreast of the current events, for amusement purposes, and for educational purposes. The blind need volunteers as travel companions, for teaching mobility, arts and crafts, homemaking skills and many other activities. The next group in historical order to utilize volunteers to provide services in rehabilitation settings was the deaf and those with impaired hearing. The specific needs of the deaf in relation to volunteers are quite similar to the visually handicapped.

According to Levin (1973), approximately 300,000 volunteers participated in volunteer programs in rehabilitation facilities in 1969. In this study, 72.9 per cent of the facilities reported the volunteers were involved in recreational activities for the handicapped; 76.7 per cent reported volunteers assist in professional services such as counseling, testing and supervising rehabilitation clients; 55.7 per cent reported volunteers' activities included fund raising; secretarial and clerical activities ranked fourth with 55.6 per cent of the facilities reporting this type of activity; and public relations ranked fifth with 46 per cent.

Volunteers in the Welfare Setting

Concerned citizens have long been interested in improving the quality of life for the indigent in our society. Many citizens have mobilized and organized to help this segment of our population. Some of the outstanding examples of these types of organizations include the Salvation Army, the Volunteers of America and

various church outreach groups.

There are two types of volunteers in this area. The first volunteers were the more affluent who were working to improve the lot of the less fortunate or were attempting to lessen the burden of poverty. These volunteers are still in great demand. They provide many functions such as fund raising and gathering food, clothing, and household supplies. They "adopt" children for special events such as birthdays, Christmas, etc. These volunteers provide counseling services in family planning, budgeting, and family interaction. They provide needed transportation to medical and social services and, at times, shopping. There is a need to provide tutoring services for families which can be met through volunteers.

The second type of volunteerism in the welfare setting has evolved recently. This is the indigenous volunteer, the disadvantaged individual who is working to assist the other disadvantaged in his area. These volunteers serve the most important function of interpreting disadvantagement and its effects on others to professionals, community leaders, legislators and concerned citizens. They become members of citizen action groups to bring attention and needed services to the individuals trapped in the pockets of poverty in both the urban and rural settings across the country. They serve to facilitate communication between those who provide services, legislate provisions for services, budget funds for services and recipients of the services. These volunteers work not only to interpret the needs and describe the conditions and impact of poverty but also identify and locate those in need of additional services.

Another facet of their responsibility is communicating with the disadvantaged by describing and putting into perspective the various agencies' goals. Often the socially and culturally disadvantaged are not as highly motivated or eager to accept services as many middle and upper socioeconomic classed individuals — both professional and nonprofessional — might assume. As a result of previous unfortunate experiences with social welfare type agencies these individuals are reluctant to become involved. They do not wish to raise their hopes to have them dashed as they have been in the past. The indigenous volunteer can play a vital role in this area

of public welfare.

Volunteers in Health Agencies

Health agencies in the United States have had a long and rich history. These health agencies have made the general population aware of the needs and medical aspects of various diseases or disability categories. These agencies generally are organized around one specific group; for example, the National Multiple Sclerosis Society, the Cystic Fibrosis Foundation, the American Cancer Society, the National Tuberculosis and Respiratory Disease Association, the National Association for Retarded Children, and many others. Volunteers are essential to the function of these agencies. Characteristically, these agencies create an awareness in the general population relative to a specific health problem. They sponsor education programs regarding the disease or disability, its prevention or treatment; they support medical research in the cause, prevention and treatment of the disease; and they provide support for local services and develop informational and referral systems. They represent a strong lobbying force to influence federal legislation.

According to Lowry (1973), there are two kinds of volunteers in health agencies — professional volunteers and lay volunteers. The professional volunteers perform the myriad of tasks which require professional training and which are so necessary for the functioning of the agency. These professionals include physicians, dentists, nurses, physical therapists, occupational therapists, speech therapists, psychologists, accountants, lawyers, social workers, and many others. They advise the disposition of research and professional education grants. They convey the messages of the agency to their own professional societies. They see to it that the agency's financial reports are properly made, that legal requirements are met, that professional ethics are not violated, and that public and professional education materials and information are accurate and consonant with the interests of the patients being represented. They identify existing community resources of potential service to patients, create receptivity to dealing effectively with their problems within those agencies and arrange

appropriate referrals. These services are of inestimable value and are too often not understood by the public.

While professional volunteers' work is oriented toward the health agency organization and its functioning, the lay volunteer is oriented more toward the people with whom the health agency is concerned. They provide the manpower to increase the human services. They provide the warmth and concern which is so necessary for someone when he is in a condition of poor health. According to Lowry (1973) they visit patients in the hospitals or at home, performing tasks the patients cannot do alone. They do everything from letter writing and cooking to providing transportation to clinics and recreational activities. They prepare medical supplies, do clerical work, distribute literature, show films, man exhibits, make speeches, operate "loan closets" of medical equipment and supplies. For the individual interested in volunteering, people, and health settings, there are ample opportunities to serve his community through volunteer action with health agencies.

University Students as Volunteers

As our cultural structure becomes more complicated and as the lines dividing academic disciplines become hazy, universities have increasingly seen the need for some type of intensive laboratory experience in order to communicate adequately many of the basic tenets of some of our disciplines. The general format of the voluntary action in the university setting differs from university to university; however, generally, in the upper levels of undergraduate work an opportunity is afforded the student to take a three, six or nine-semester-hour course which involves his working in the community in some area related to his major area of emphasis. This is a unique opportunity for the students who attempt to solve problems outside the academic setting by principles they have learned in the academic setting. This experience can be a very humbling experience; and from the experience many universities have had, it is felt that it is a motivating influence for students in their last year in the university, for these types of experiences communicate very

readily how inadequate many of his concepts really are.

In this type of university program which encourages voluntary action, the students are placed in a setting related to their academic discipline. They are supervised by a faculty member, and also are supervised by an administrator in the particular work setting. The students are generally required to submit various types of reports remarking on their progress, on the type of insight which they have developed and generally are required to have periodic conferences with a university representative. There are many departments which develop programs such as this in the community. Some of the most obvious include departments of education with programs such as elementary education, educational administration, educational psychology, guidance counseling, etc.; participating departments of psychology, economics, urban and regional planning, geography, business management, personnel management, psychology, sociology, social work, rehabilitation, and others. There are many opportunities in the urban setting for these types of university students to volunteer. The activities in which they engage include such things as family counseling, tutorial work in various settings, economic counseling, and family planning; many work as teachers' aides; and some provide social welfare services. There are opportunities to provide basic remedial instruction to people at all educational levels and in various social situations. These types of students work in psychiatric wards of general hospitals and in psychiatric institutions to assist in nursing care and various aspects of rehabilitative therapy. Under supervision, many of these students provide behavior modification experiences to retarded and severely culturally deprived individuals in various settings. Some of these university volunteers work in rehabilitation centers and in sheltered workshops assisting in the provision of work adjustment training, vocational and psychological evaluations, in remedial and vocational education and perform some skills in placing individuals in competitive employment. Many of these university volunteers work in information and referral programs within the urban setting. They track down social agencies to provide a wide variety of services to many of the clients with whom they work. They provide out-reach services to take the service to the ghetto or the

inner-city or the area in which the concentration of clients reside. They function as an advocate for these individuals in interpreting their needs to the service agency.

One such program is called Project SUMMON. This program was an academic program founded to do two things at the same time. One was to give students and faculty of the University of Miami an education in reality. The other was to provide competent and regular assistance to those in the community who need it and want it. Its aims and philosophy are simple. Simple, too, is the one crowning point of the program that makes it worthwhile — it works!

Because what the students do is considered an educational experience, they receive three credits for a semester's work at the University of Miami. The granting of academic credit accomplishes two purposes. First, the volunteer agency can be guaranteed each student will work a minimum of six hours per week on a regularly scheduled basis for the course of the semester. Second, because credit is involved and the faculty have to safeguard that investment, professors monitor students on a regular basis, thereby making them not only regular in their performance of their duties, but somewhat competent as well. The students take the program on a pass-fail basis. The student passes if he lasts the semester, doing his work regularly and performing well. The type of things the students learn (respect and humanistic enlightment) cannot be graded.

According to Manasa (1973), professors monitor students on roughly a one-to-ten ratio. Their job is not to program as they do in the classroom, but to listen to the experiences the students have and translate that experience into terms of their discipline. They also offer the students professional insight into how they might do their work better. The students act as direct multiplying agents of the professor's expertise in the community. In this teacher-student relationship, the student is no longer the passive partner, but the active one — he who experiences while the professor becomes what his role meant him to be: a guide.

The program accomplishes five basic purposes. They are:
1. The program gives students of the university an education in reality. The program provides the vehicle by which people

might learn by doing. The program is a humanities laboratory composed of the elements of real life.

2. The program reforms the traditional professor-student relationship. The student is made an active partner in this relationship.

3. The program revolutionizes the university curriculum and changes it from its current situation of being an intellectual endeavor to a place where its views of life have some basis in reality.

4. The program "humanizes" the university. Because of their huge size and factory-like atmosphere and because there is no longer any common ground where people learn their need for one another, universities have become places where the most pronounced thing they can teach is academia. This volunteer project attempts to use the community as a new common ground where through common efforts, failure, and success, the university participants might come to know one another again and the relationships and needs for various disciplines.

5. The program provides competent, compassionate and consistent help to the people in the community who need it and want it. This cannot happen without the successful attainment of the above goals.

Volunteers in Service Programs for the Blind

Presently there is a critical shortage of trained personnel in the fields of health, recreation, education, and social welfare. According to Pogorelc (1972), at the present time more than 400 volunteer agencies and organizations provide direct services to blind persons through the use of professionally trained and qualified mobility instructors, braille and typing teachers, home economists, occupational therapists, psychologists, social workers, counselors, work evaluators, etc. In addition, many of these agencies also utilize volunteers for reading, friendly visiting, shopping trips, social, cultural, and recreational trips, etc. on behalf of the blind person. Volunteers also serve, as in health agencies, on Boards of Directors, Advisory Committees, and as

administrators and supervisors in these agencies and organizations.

Notable examples of volunteer utilization within agencies for the blind can be found in every part of the country. At the Braille Institute of America in Los Angeles, 1,445 volunteers have given over 104,000 hours of service in 11 different service categories. The New York Jewish Guild For The Blind has over 300 volunteer workers serving in every area in which professional staff are engaged. These individuals are serving in accordance with their individual skills and interests.

The Phoenix Arizona Center For The Blind is heavily dependent upon its 350 volunteers who donated 25,000 hours of their time on over 8,500 separate assignments during a period of a year. At the minimum wage, this represents a value of $35,000 which would double their present budget.

The Hadley School For The Blind in Winnetka, Illinois utilizes over 150 volunteers without whom the program would be severely handicapped since the contribution of manpower which volunteers represent is considered beyond estimate. The four locations of the Massachusetts Association For The Blind received the services of over 500 volunteers who assisted clients with tasks for which there is no substitute for sight.

In addition, national organizations utilized the services of volunteers across the country for specific programs. The National Society For The Prevention of Blindness has over 17,000 volunteers, mostly young mothers providing preschool visual screening as well as those services as officers and directors of its state affiliates and national organization.

The National Braille Association has more than 2,100 members who are for the most part dedicated to volunteer braillists from all parts of the United States. A unique group of volunteers is the "Telephone Pioneers" who as veteran employees of the Bell Telephone System throughout the country volunteer to repair Talking Book machines in their respective localities. This group numbers in excess of 3,600.

These are just a few examples of volunteer utilization gleaned from comments and reports submitted to the Office For The Blind and Visually Handicapped, Rehabilitation Services Administration, and U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare in

response to a recent survey.

The need for increased services to blind individuals far surpasses the supply of trained professional staff. In order to reduce the impact of this problem, both professional workers for the blind and the public in general must be made aware of, and accept the fact that, volunteers are making, and can make, significant contributions to this field. In addition, the application of sound personnel policies and practices, plus the development of ways to recruit and utilize these volunteers can lead to the provision of more and better services to the blind within the limits of present financial and manpower resources.

SUMMARY

In summary we would like to reiterate that there are volunteers in almost every type of human endeavor. If an individual has an interest in working in a particular area as a volunteer, there is a need for him to serve in this capacity. As volunteers have become more numerous, volunteerism has become more structured. There are organizations and agencies which depend very heavily upon the contributions of dedicated, committed volunteers. Many of the social services which are currently being provided to those less fortunates "the ill, the deprived, the handicapped, and those in dependent statuses" could not be provided at the current level of care without the contribution of these volunteers. In order to maintain the current level of services without the integral input of volunteers, the social welfare budget within this country would be increased astronomically. This treatment of opportunities for voluntary action is not exhausted. There are innumerable opportunities for interested volunteers.

Chapter 2

⟨ FEDERAL VOLUNTEER ⟩
PROGRAMS

JOSEPH H. BLATCHFORD

INTRODUCTION

T HE decade of the sixties witnessed a new initiative in the field of volunteerism. In 1961, President John F. Kennedy called for a corps of dedicated Americans to offer their time, energy, and skills to the developing nations of the world. This effort represented a major national emphasis on volunteer work. Five years after the Peace Corps began, the spirit of its effort was brought home in the form of VISTA (Volunteers in Service to America). These two major programs on the part of the federal government were in a sense experiments to test whether a large scale, federally-supported volunteer program was a viable concept.

The conclusions have resulted in an unprecedented national commitment to volunteerism, a commitment which has taken the form of a new federal agency specifically dedicated to the effective use of the volunteer resource at all levels of society.

On July 1, 1971, the Nixon Administration launched the first peace-time effort to stimulate a major American volunteer force. Six existing agencies, with more than 24,000 full and part-time volunteer participants were brought together to form ACTION. They formed the nucleus of a campaign to involve Americans in the escalating problems of community, and especially of poverty, at home and overseas.

Essentially, the role of ACTION is twofold. As administrator of programs within it, ACTION seeks to build and maintain a well-trained volunteer corps capable of responding to community

needs. As a catalyst for the entire volunteer movement it is working to stimulate voluntarism by channeling and mobilizing both resources and common development interests for the disadvantaged community.

The question of the government's role in voluntarism is a sensitive one and was a matter of crucial concern during ACTION's formative months. Members of ACTION's staff consulted a broad range of individuals and organizations involved in the volunteer movement including civic and private volunteer organizations, elected officials, current volunteers, the educational and business communities, federal agencies, and most importantly, the disadvantaged Americans themselves, and determined that ACTION could function most effectively by responding directly to community needs at the local level. To this end, ACTION's Domestic Operations section has centered a large percentage of the decision making powers in its ten regional offices. They are responsible for the program direction and volunteer mobilization in their area, while the Washington headquarters has charge of administrative and recruiting functions most efficiently handled from a centralized location.

Because of this focus on community awareness and initiative, ACTION's future is as much in the hands of the people in America as it is in the effectiveness of its organizational structure. The cooperation between the federal government and Americans, working with little or no promise of economic gain, to solve community problems could be an important element in the future of this nation.

HISTORY OF THE FEDERAL VOLUNTEER MOVEMENT

Although America has a tradition of voluntarism dating back to colonial times, it was not until the early 1960's that the federal government became directly involved.

The Peace Corps brought about many changes in America's outlook toward voluntarism, including a redefinition of the term "volunteer" itself. Traditionally, a volunteer was one who offered his services freely and without compensation. The Peace Corps offered a basic subsistence allowance, plus approximately $75 a

month compensation which was kept in a fund until the volunteer returned home. This compensation shocked some purists, but it allowed those people with few financial obligations and with two years time to join the Corps. In the beginning, volunteers tended to be young, white, and middle-class.

In 1965, the Johnson Administration launched a parallel program here in America, and set the full-time financially supported volunteer to work on America's problems. There was initial skepticism, and predictions were that Americans would not volunteer for domestic service which lacked the glamour and adventure that many felt was an incentive to Peace Corps service. But the skeptics were mistaken, thousands of Americans applied to work in unglamourous and difficult conditions to help the poor of their own country.

The late 60's, however were trying years for America and voluntarism generally. Campus unrest, racial turmoil, the war in Vietnam, all were destructive to enthusiasm, and applications for both the Peace Corps and VISTA declined.

When President Nixon gave his inaugural address in January of 1969, he spoke of voluntarism: "For the magnitude of our tasks, we need the energies of our people – enlisted not only in grand enterprises, but more importantly in those small splendid efforts that make headlines in the neighborhood newspapers instead of the national journals."

In the weeks following the President's address, the American Institute of Public Opinion (the Gallup poll) studied the potential of volunteer manpower in America, and the results indicated that six persons in every ten (59%) were willing to work to help solve the problems which they regard as important to their communities.

President Nixon assigned the task of exploring the government's use and encouragement of volunteer services to HUD Secretary George Romney. As chairman of the National Program of Voluntary Action, Secretary Romney spent over a year meeting with more than 250 representatives of organizations concerned with the new movement. Labor leaders felt it might pose a threat to union jobs, and managers of existing private voluntary

organizations speculated that the government was planning to absorb or direct their activities. Professionals were appalled at the idea of so many untrained enthusiasts descending upon them — anxious to help but short on skills.

After lengthy debate, the President's program emerged with two distinct branches, one federal, the other private. Within the government, Secretary Romney was appointed chairman of the Cabinet Committee on Voluntary Action. The program's independent branch was called the National Center for Voluntary Action, and its mission was primarily to inform, educate, and assist interested parties as to possibilities for volunteer service, especially in the private sector.

The first project tackled by the center was to establish a private volunteer bank. After building a file of more than 3,000 volunteer efforts across the country, the center's bank is able to respond to the more than 100 information requests it receives each month. In addition, the center has prepared special booklets on day care centers, drug abuse, and many other subjects.

By 1971 almost all the major government departments had some form of volunteer program. The Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Housing and Urban Development, Justice, Labor, Health, Education and Welfare, and the Office of Economic Opportunity had all issued policy statements encouraging the role of volunteers in their programs.

In early 1971, the decision was made to consolidate the federal government's major volunteer efforts into one agency, ACTION. On July 1, 1971, the agency officially brought together six major federal volunteer efforts including: Peace Corps; Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA); Foster Grandparent Program; Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP); Service Corps of Retired Executives (SCORE); and the Active Corps of Executives (ACE); Office of Voluntary Action Liaison and the National Student Volunteer Program.

Each of these programs represents a diversity in origin and structure which also represents a wealth of experience and information to be tapped for use in future programs.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTIONS

Peace Corps

The Peace Corps Act of 1961 established the basic goals of the Corps as being " . . . to promote world peace and friendship through a Peace Corps, which shall make available to interested countries and areas men and women of the United States qualified for service abroad and willing to serve, under conditions of hardship if necessary, to help the peoples of such countries and areas in meeting their needs for trained manpower, and to help promote a better understanding of the American people on the part of the peoples served and a better understanding of other peoples on the part of the American people."

In its first ten years of existence, the Peace Corps has worked hard to promote these goals, but through the years, the emphasis of its programs has shifted to accommodate changing needs in the developing nations. In the early years, due mainly to the influx of largely young and technically unskilled "generalist" volunteers, many Peace Corps programs lacked sufficient focus. Mistakes were made, both programmatically and politically, but the Peace Corps grew with experience. In 1969, a "New Directions" policy was articulated which strengthened the shift towards providing skilled manpower to the countries requesting it. There "New Directions" provided for:

(1) *A shift in emphasis to the high priority needs of developing countries.* Because previous volunteers had helped the developing countries identify their needs, the Peace Corps is now responding to an increasingly high number of requests for volunteers with special skills. In 1969, host country requests for specialists stood at 40 per cent of the total requests, and in 1970, they soared to 70 per cent. They are still growing.

(2) *A broader, more streamlined recruiting and training system.* To fill host country requests for scarce skills, the Peace Corps has intensified its recruiting efforts. It has sought the special cooperation of agricultural schools, professional associations and trade unions, and this campaign has resulted in a steady increase in the number of skilled applicants. There also has been an upswing

in applications overall for the first time in five years.

Another factor in increased skills recruitment is a shift in Peace Corps regulations. "High impact" programming, under which it had been operating, called for the placement of large contingents of Peace Corps volunteers — from 30 to as many as 150 — in closely related jobs in the same area. Through this "critical mass" it was thought dramatic changes could be effected in living conditions in the host country.

Whatever the merits of this idea, it became difficult to execute in practice. Large delegations of volunteers tended to become isolated from the host country population; they also tended to become an integral part of the labor force, making it difficult to phase them out.

Recently the emphasis has shifted to fielding smaller groups of volunteers to more precisely defined jobs. They work, apart from distinctly "Peace Corps" projects, in close cooperation with host country people who have complementary skills and abilities.

Another new development is the placement of Peace Corps families. Previously this was not possible, as it was felt that it would create too many logistical problems. But today it is recognized that many of those with essential skills and experience are in an older age bracket, and are married, often with children. This change in policy, on the part of the Peace Corps, has opened a new source of skilled workers for foreign countries, and some volunteers report that it is easier to assimilate into the life of a community when one has a family, and contacts are therefore made on all levels of village life.

(3) *Training.* All Peace Corps volunteers receive individual training to match them to their program assignments. For some, training has involved year-long internships in specialized fields. Others who come to the Peace Corps with seasoned skills or experience receive the basic three-month Peace Corps training which includes language training and cross-cultural preparation.

There is another category of technical jobs in the Peace Corps for which nonspecialists can be quickly trained. As a result of brief paraprofessional courses. Peace Corps volunteers with liberal arts backgrounds have in the past demonstrated effectiveness in small-scale irrigation projects or as paramedicals in campaigns

which have virtually stamped out malaria in several heavily afflicted areas in the world.

In the past, a discontinuity between the volunteers' expectations and the reality of his actual work has led to volunteers dropping out of the program, either during training or later in the cycle. Two innovations have lowered this attrition rate. One is the PRIST (Pre-Invitational Staging) during which the prospective volunteer is invited to a three-day orientation seminar designed to show the applicant as precisely as possible what conditions he will live under, what he will be doing, and what his service will ask of him. PRISTS also give the applicant the opportunity to question Peace Corps personnel and ex-volunteers who have served in the same region to which he might be assigned.

The second change is an increasing shift toward training in the host countries themselves rather than in the United States. This familiarizes the volunteer with the program and in-country surroundings.

(4) *Greater involvement of the host country in Peace Corps Operations.* The staffs of the Peace Corps abroad, once entirely American, have moved steadily in the past few years toward the inclusion and participation of host country nationals in decision-making roles in the Peace Corps. In 1971, 50 per cent of all overseas staff positions were filled by host country nationals, 30 per cent of whom were in decision-making capacities.

(5) *Cooperation with international groups and agencies.* The Peace Corps was the model upon which the United Nation's General Assembly established the U.N. Corps of Volunteers in 1971. Besides giving technical aid and assistance in the establishment of this new agency, the Peace Corps has combined its volunteer efforts with those of the U.N. in programs all over the world. The Peace Corps also has taken further initiatives towards the expansion of international voluntarism, having proposed the establishment of the International Secretariat for Volunteer Service (ISVS), which now involves 56 countries around the world.

(6) *The channeling of the talents of returned volunteers to significant work at home.* Many of the more than 43,000 returned volunteers have wanted to continue their work at home. Although

there has been a sustained effort on the part of the Peace Corps to place returned volunteers in meaningful endeavors, the creation of ACTION makes it much easier to coordinate volunteer activities at home and abroad. There is presently a proposal which would allow a volunteer to spend a part of his service with VISTA and another part with the Peace Corps. The possibilities for this kind of venture are enormous.

Some former Peace Corps volunteers have become part of a "disaster corps." This group has been "called-up" in such crises as the 1970 earthquakes in Peru. Volunteers who had worked in Peru, who knew the language and customs of the people were flown into the stricken area to organize relief operations. Afterwards they returned home, but remain "on-call," never really an "ex" volunteer.

Volunteers in Service to America (VISTA)

The VISTA program was created in 1964 by President Johnson as the volunteer arm of the Office of Economic Opportunity, which was charged with alleviating poverty in America. VISTA was to enlist the aid of those Americans who were concerned enough about the spectre of poverty in a land of great affluence to make a personal commitment to combat it.

VISTA's role is basically catalytic. The volunteer responds to the community's initiative by becoming part of a local sponsoring organization which requests him. His efforts, directed by the community organization, are aimed at solving problems identified by the community. One of the goals of the VISTA volunteer is to mobilize community resources so that when he leaves, there is a functioning group which will carry on the effort.

A VISTA must try to acquire the broadest support base for his efforts, involving as many groups within the society as possible. VISTA architects, for example, set up mini workshops in inner city areas, where residents are invited to plan and design housing developments and recreational areas in which they may later live. At the same time, community residents may be raising money for the project. In the end, the community gains not only a new housing project, but the skills and resources necessary to expand

their quality of life.

The VISTA Volunteers. There are two categories of VISTAs, the "National Pool" volunteer and the community, or Locally Recruited Volunteer. The National Pool Volunteer is one who is recruited and trained federally, and assigned to a VISTA project appropriate to his or her skills.

The community volunteer is recruited locally. He usually (but not necessarily) has some experience in part-time volunteer work, possibly with a local VISTA project. The Locally Recruited Volunteer (LRV), he is often a low-income community resident who is trained similarly to the National Pool Volunteers. The LRV's knowledge of community needs and way of life make him a valuable member of a VISTA project, especially in tandem with the National Pool Volunteer who may be bringing a needed, scarce skill into the area. In 1972, 40 per cent of all VISTAs were Locally Recruited Volunteers.

Training. In the past, VISTA training has been rather brief and limited in its scope. Presently, a new training model is being developed which will include: (1) orientation to ACTION/VISTA and the role of the volunteer; (2) communication in the culture in which he/she will serve, with specific cross-cultural performance experiences; (3) skills training for both generalist and skilled volunteers; (4) extension training for all trainees in teaching their jobs to future co-workers and associates; (5) special training for different kinds of trainees (i.e., nationally recruited and locally recruited community volunteers); (6) an ordered qualification process for trainees based on well-defined job performance descriptions; and (7) possible training innovations, such as communication study to adapt trainees' speech and understanding to local idioms, word usage and speech levels, or language training as needed, in Spanish or Indian languages.

Local level training has been shown to be most suited to volunteer work, and correspondingly, ACTION has established the ten training sites, one in each of its regions.

Programming. In the past, there were some complaints from VISTA volunteers who were told by their sponsoring agencies to go into the community and "do whatever needs to be done." Today, the use of the volunteer must be clearly spelled out. In

other words, the project should be geared for utmost affect within the community, and for the greatest participation by the volunteer in a community based project which has the mechanisms to continue after the volunteer has left.

Little has been said of the impact of volunteer service on the volunteer, but one measurable result of VISTA service is that some 40 per cent of all VISTAs re-enroll after their first year of service. This statistic only imperfectly measures the sense of dedication and purpose of these volunteers.

The Older Americans Programs

Both the Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP) and the Foster Grandparent Program (FGP) came to ACTION from the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Their common purpose is to provide community service opportunities for older Americans. Although these programs share the elements of basic community initiative and decentralization of functions with other ACTION components, they differ in their administration. RSVP and Foster Grandparents are grant programs; that is, they award a sum of money to a community agency, which then recruits, selects, trains, and operates the program.

Foster Grandparents provide companionship and guidance to children in institutions, who are suffering from physical, mental, or emotional disorders. The program, in turn, provides responsible and dignified roles for low-income elderly persons who serve with the children four hours a day, five days a week. They receive small stipends for their service, but the most significant benefit is their continuing involvement in community activities.

Any public or private nonprofit agency may apply for a Foster Grandparent program grant. Foster Grandparents may be placed in any institution providing residential care for children such as homes for the mentally retarded, hospitals, institutions for the neglected and dependent, and centers for delinquent children are among the institutions using Foster Grandparents.

Dr. Maria Piers, Dean of the Erickson Institute for Early Education and author of *Wages of Neglect,* has stated: "As a preventive program, Foster Grandparents is the best thing known

to combat the pernicious influence of neglect. Children who are ignored, cut off from adult contact and love can face a total deterioration of the intellect, with lifelong crippling effects."

This process holds true for the Foster Grandparents, too. Often they feel isolated and neglected in their own communities, and the program offers a return to a challenging and stimulating life where they are truly needed.

The Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP), authorized in 1969, offered men and women, aged 60 and over, varied opportunities for volunteer service in their own communities.

Federal grants are available for developing and operating these programs, but applicants must have a plan for continuing with nonfederal contributions after a five-year period of declining ACTION funding.

The grant recipients enlist the help of older Americans in a large variety of volunteer settings services in schools, parks, courts, museums, day care centers, hospitals, libraries, welfare agencies, nursing homes, etc. Their assignments are carefully structured to meet the needs of the volunteer and the community. Volunteers receive no compensation, but are reimbursed for out-of-pocket expenses.

Both the Foster Grandparent Program and RSVP have had their budgets doubled and tripled respectively, by special request of the President, following the White House Conference on Aging in early 1972. A larger request is planned for next year, when RSVP will have nearly 75,000 older Americans serving part-time for better communities.

SCORE *(Service Corps of Retired Executives)*
ACE *(Active Corps of Executives)*

Both SCORE and ACE were launched by the Small Business Administration in an effort to help small businesses with operational problems. SCORE consists of some 4,000 men and women, retired and semi-retired executives from large and small corporations, the professions and trade associations. They are assigned to a "case" by their local Small Business Administration, and more recently, through ACTION headquarters in the regions.

They visit their "client" as often as necessary in order to provide the counseling necessary to put the business on a profitable basis.

One case of this kind of counseling is a retired food processor who called the attention of a financially-troubled meat packer to the fact that he was showing a loss because: (1) there was no scale to weigh the cattle coming into the packing plant; (2) inadequate control in the boning and fabricating rooms and beef cooler; (3) no daily bank deposit and more than one employee with access to cash; (4) owner-managers continuing at high-level wages despite loss; (5) no yearly operating budget; (6) excessive overtime, and (7) a requirement to reduce personnel. After these changes were made, the business registered a profit.

In another case, a man saved his earnings for twenty years to buy a florist shop. When he was in a position to put a down-payment on the store, he realized that he knew a great deal about flowers, but very little about small business management. A SCORE volunteer helped him to establish his new business.

SCORE's activities, however, are not confined to small business alone. SCORE volunteers also have made their knowledge available to nonprofit institutions such as those organizing work-training programs for mentally and functionally retarded persons. In some states, SCORE volunteers work with senior citizens groups, and in one project, a producers and marketing coop was established in conjunction with VISTA. In one city, a SCORE volunteer secured part-time and full-time jobs in small businesses for 140 senior citizens having difficulty living on social security payments.

ACE volunteers are a lively adjunct to the SCORE program. In Wisconsin, for example, an ACE volunteer has made his purchasing department available as a laboratory to counsel minority contractors on estimating costs and developing sound bids. In the Chicago area, ACE volunteers conduct evening classes in business management procedures at six different locations for over 1,000 individuals.

Both SCORE and ACE are working with the disadvantaged community to provide an economic boost wherever it is requested.

New ACTION Programming

ACTION's mandate is not only to improve and strengthen

existing opportunities for voluntary service, but also to seek out ways in which a small federal contribution can magnify the effects of individuals in service to communities. ACTION's ability to respond to this challenge is a result of ten years in accumulated experience in the Peace Corps, seven years of VISTA and SCORE, and four years of Foster Grandparent programming. In its first year of existence, ACTION has begun one major program, the University Year for ACTION, and explored and developed other programs with the Red Cross, the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and the Environmental Protection Agency, among others.

University Year for ACTION. University Year for ACTION responds to three current trends: academic and student interest in experimental learning; the need for highly motivated and skilled volunteers in America; and the importance of managing assistance to the poverty community on a decentralized basis, and on terms established by local communities themselves. Twenty-six universities, working with ACTION, have selected over 1000 volunteer students to spend one of their academic years in service to the poverty community. Students entering the program receive an academic year's credit from their universities for their work in the field, regardless of area of study. The emphasis is upon the needs of the poverty community in health services, environmental problems, economic development, education, the administration of justice, consumer education, and housing. Project tasks are defined by the universities together with community sponsors (nonprofit organizations such as the Urban League, Model Cities, and various grassroots organizations), and members of the community to be served. University Year for ACTION students receive a stipend similar to the VISTA volunteers, and are under the same guidelines.

Evaluations of this pilot project are currently underway.

A Future for ACTION

ACTION is seeking the widest and fullest cooperation with all volunteer groups, both national and international. Several options are under review as possible avenues for the expansion of

ACTION's participation in citizen service efforts: (1) Technical assistance. The National Student Volunteer Program, operating within the VISTA organization, is experienced in providing information on program areas and administrative techniques to volunteer projects on college campuses. This experience, and this model, could be expanded into other areas. (2) Recruiting. Many citizens offer their assistance to ACTION programs but cannot be successfully placed. ACTION is seeking ways to make these volunteers aware of other opportunities for service in the country and in their own communities. (3) Public awareness. The achievements and quiet successes of citizens go largely unhearalded, which contributes to a feeling of hopelessness and inaction on the part of many. ACTION seeks opportunities to dramatize the role played by volunteers in improving life for people in need everywhere in the world. (4) Spokesman. As the federal focus for volunteer programs, ACTION has a concern not only for the 24,000 volunteers enrolled in its programs, but also for the uncounted thousands of volunteers who work in local communities, and who go overseas in other programs using volunteer services. In this connection, ACTION is seeking to foster such concepts as the "sabbatical" idea for mid-career businessmen – allowing them to give a year or two of service without sacrificing seniority or retirement benefits. (5) Mobilizer. ACTION seeks to encourage the formation of locally sponsored volunteer corps. Programs which will provide support for such local initiatives are being reviewed, and might involve cooperation between ACTION and state or city governments as well as private sponsors.

Conclusion

ACTION is a catalyst, drawing together and coordinating resources for the good of the disadvantaged community. Although this federal agency is less than a year old, there is great optimism that its combination of creative research and experimentation, operational stability, and experience in large-scale volunteer activity bodes very well for a strong national volunteer commitment in the future. ACTION, through its association with

other groups, is experimenting with new ways of mobilizing volunteers and coordinating citizen service, not from the top, but from the local level. The experience of the Peace Corps and VISTA has been instructive in this regard, showing that local definition, local participation, and clear-cut responsibilities are essential for the effective growth of a federal volunteer movement.

Part II

Recruiting and Training of Volunteers
Supervising the Volunteer
The Meaning of Planning in Community Organization
The Reconciling of Community Conflicts

Chapter 3

RECRUITING AND TRAINING OF VOLUNTEERS

EVELYN S. BYRON

INTRODUCTION

IN preparing the material for this chapter the objective has been to outline the basic concepts and procedures which from experience and practice in the field have been found to be most effective. These procedures may be modified or expanded in some areas and for some situations but, in general, they have become the accepted guidelines for the recruiting and training of volunteers.

The directives contained in these guidelines apply primarily to the direct-service volunteer programs; that is, to programs in which the majority of the volunteers are serving in areas directly related to the actual service operations of the agency. Some of the methods discussed under "Training" can be applied to training of other catagories of volunteers such as the administrative or policy-making board members and committee volunteers.

The term "agency" as used here refers to the community service agency, public or voluntary, usually operating in the health, education, welfare, civic or cultural field. When we refer to the "volunteer program" we are discussing a program for volunteers organized in an agency in one of these fields, and with a fair number of direct-service volunteers. However, the material as outlined can be applied as well to the recruiting and training of only a few volunteers. The procedures are basic for one or one hundred!

The aim of the writer has been to present the material as clearly and as simply as possible so that it may be of practical use to agencies and persons new to this field, and in need of guidelines

for recruiting and training of new volunteers. It may prove useful, also, to personnel of long-established volunteer programs in the evaluation or expansion of their services.

RECRUITING THE VOLUNTEERS

Any agency executive contemplating the establishment of a new volunteer program and the recruiting of volunteers to assist in his service operations must take two important preliminary steps. He must secure the funds necessary to cover the expenses involved in setting up this new department; and he must select and appoint the person who will be responsible for its organization and direction. This person is usually designated as the Director of the Volunteer Department, or Coordinator or Director of Volunteers, depending on the type and size of the agency.

SELECTION OF THE DIRECTOR OF VOLUNTEERS

The selection of the man or woman to direct the volunteer program is the responsibility of the agency executive or administrative official to whom the new director, as the head of the program, will be responsible. He should be appointed as early as possible so that he can participate in the planning stages from the start. In fact, he may be the one to set up the entire plan for organization of the program if his experience and qualifications warrant. He should work closely with his administrator who would expect him to draw up a plan with the aid of other department heads, with the professional staff, and with board and auxiliary members if these are to be involved. The plan for the organization of this new department should be scrutinized carefully by the administrator, and when final approval is given, the Director of Volunteers will be expected to carry it out.

PREPARING THE AGENCY FOR THE VOLUNTEERS

One of the first priorities of a new volunteer program is recruitment. However, before any plans can be considered for launching publicity or appealing for volunteers to serve in an

agency which has not previously utilized such service, much ground work must be done to prepare the staff for their induction. This is the task of the director of volunteers with support and assistance from others on the staff.

From top administration through all levels of professional, supervisory, and office staff to the janitorial and maintenance personnel, there must be a full understanding and acceptance of the volunteers.

Approval of the Board of Directors must be more than lip-service. This is particularly important as there will be expenses which will need approval of the Board's finance officer and treasurer. This support is important also in that some members may be willing to assist in recruiting. Other board members may be interested in serving as direct-service volunteers. As board members, they are "administrative" or "policy-making" volunteers. Experience as service volunteers may give them their first orientation to the agency's everyday operations and a clearer understanding of the problems with which the board is confronted from time to time.

APPROVAL OF THE ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICIALS

The decision that a new program will be established or an ongoing one will be expanded rests entirely with the administration. This cannot be merely a token approval. The administrator must implement this approval by a clear statement in writing, or orally at a staff meeting, with an explanation of the program's basic purpose as an expansion of service and enrichment of the agency's over-all goals. He must make clear the relationship of the Board to the volunteer program, and above all the status of the director of the volunteer department as equal to heads of other departments and directly responsible to him.

It would be well too if there are auxiliary groups such as junior boards of other fund-raising affiliates that their relationship to the volunteer program be clarified. This is of special concern if any of these are involved in raising money for salaries or other expenses of the Volunteer Department, such as the award ceremonies. Also, if there are to be any limitations on the acceptance of volunteers, such as age, health requirements, handicaps, or other limitations, this must be definitely determined and announced by the

administration at the very outset of the program. These early decisions and pronouncements from the administration will help to prevent possible friction and misunderstanding later.

ACCEPTANCE BY THE PROFESSIONAL STAFF

This may not be an easy task. Even with the explanation and statement of purpose by the administrator, the director of the volunteer department may find resistance in some of the professional staff members to the acceptance of volunteers to assist in services in their special areas. Coolness to the volunteer or unspoken but obvious resentment can discourage and frustrate the volunteer. Certainly this will not help him in his understanding of his own assignment and the goals of the agency. Even more, it may well tend to strengthen any misconceptions about professional workers which some volunteers already have. A complete under-standing by the professional staff that volunteers will not encroach on their professional preserves is essential before any volunteers can be introduced to those areas.

One excellent method of meeting this resistance is to involve the professional and supervisory staff in drawing up the job descriptions upon which the volunteer assignments will be based. The professional may find in analyzing his own job components that there are more areas than he had thought possible where volunteer service might be of real assistance to him.

INVOLVEMENT OF OFFICE PERSONNEL

Training must also be designed for all office and maintenance personnel to prepare them for the entrance of volunteers to the agency. It cannot be taken for granted that without notice or preparation they will accept without question the presence of persons from the lay public who are apparently being added to the staff on a part-time basis. In the early beginnings of one volunteer service in a large hospital in Minnesota, protests arose at once from the nonprofessional personnel, many of whom were convinced that the volunteers were being brought in to replace them in their jobs. From time to time this still occurs where there has been no

orientation of the nonprofessional personnel.

In a real sense, the understanding and acceptance of office and other nonprofessional staff is as important, and sometimes may be even more so, than acceptance by the professional workers. The receptionist, the information clerk or the telephone operator may be the first person through whom the volunteer makes his initial contact. To insure a new volunteer a courteous, intelligent and pleasant reception, the office workers must be made aware of the importance of their roles in helping to create a welcoming atmosphere. A first impression is an important one, and may be a lasting one. A disinterested, casual greeting at his first contact, unnecessary waiting for an opportunity to discuss his interest with the proper person, a hurried conversation, and a request to come another day, any of these may well result in the loss of a good volunteer to the agency.

PREPARING THE COMMUNITY FOR
RECRUITMENT OF VOLUNTEERS

Today almost all communities are accustomed to the various recruitment appeals for volunteers. In fact in some locations it may happen that there are so many that they overlap, and the public is confused or turns a deaf ear to most of them.

THE RECRUITMENT COMMITTEE

It is important, therefore, that concurrent with the planning within the agency for the organization of the volunteer program, there are plans being made to explore the sources of volunteers within the community. A Recruitment Committee can be of major assistance. The composition of the committee varies with the agency and the community, but some or all of the following persons might be included:

1. The Agency Executive
2. A board representative
3. A staff representative
4. The Public Relations Director (if the agency has one)
5. A representative from local news media

6. Key representatives from important local groups (such as Community Chest, business groups, Red Cross, the school system, hospitals, churches, Department of Public Welfare, local recreation commissions, etc.
7. Representative women from local volunteer or club groups, or well known individual women in the community.

The Director of Volunteers should serve only in an ex-officio capacity, as his major responsibility is for the volunteer operations within the agency. However, he should be called upon as a consultant as needed, as he may have had experience elsewhere that would be helpful. Also he will be needed in all discussions concerning publicity about the volunteer opportunities. This is particularly true when the recruitment is being launched for a new volunteer program in an agency which has hitherto had no volunteers.

The choice of a chairman for the Recruitment Committee is important as the success or failure of the recruitment efforts may rest on his (or her) ability and personality. Choice based on a name only is not enough. What is needed is a knowledgeable person generally well known and respected by the various sectors of the community, with a reputation for hard work and the ability to get along with people.

PUBLICITY

One of the first concerns of the Recruitment Committee, if recruiting for a new volunteer program, is to develop the kind of publicity which will bring the agency's image before the community. For the established ongoing programs which have made earlier appeals to the public, the agency's image may be well known. However, it is well to remember that the public has a short memory and repetition, as in all advertising, is good for the product.

An "Open House" could be planned by the Recruitment Committee and a special sponsorship might be chosen to lend an important community-wide tone to the entire event. The mayor or another high-ranking local official might be asked to welcome the group. Following the welcome, a prominent citizen, man or

woman, is usually chosen as the main speaker.

Suggested recruitment techniques with the news release are:

1. The usual first step in a recruitment drive is a general publicity release to local news media describing the agency's purpose, programs of service to people, its contribution to community life, and its plan for establishing a new volunteer program.
2. This "general image" can be followed by several more releases with more details, and if possible, pictures of the Recruitment Committee or of a "planning" meeting; interviews with the Board President or Agency Executive; or description of those phases of the agency's services for which volunteers are needed.
3. A "coffee" and morning meeting or "dessert and coffee" early afternoon meeting might be arranged to which presidents and chairmen, or delegates of all local community groups are invited to learn of the new volunteer program. It should be planned as a semi-social occasion with the Recruitment Committee asking cooperation of the representatives in publicizing the volunteer needs to their groups.
4. A series of small "teas" for special groups which might have a particular interest in the agency and are likely to produce volunteers.
5. If prior steps have laid a good foundation the recruitment campaign might be climaxed by an "Open House" for the interested public. The day or week might be proclaimed by the mayor as "Community Volunteer Day" (or week) or "Help Your Neighbor Day" (or week). If possible, the event should take place at the agency site. However, if too many are expected for the accommodations, an arrangement often can be made with another community facility; perhaps a school, a public recreation center, or a club auditorium, even a hotel which might donate an attractive meeting place.

A member of the Recruitment Committee, or the agency executive should be given time for a brief statement about the agency and its volunteer needs. Light refreshments should be

served and everyone given a registration card to fill out and to indicate his interest in enrolling as a volunteer. If the event is held at the agency, tours conducted by agency staff or volunteers might be arranged for any who are interested, *but* they should be scheduled either before or at the close of the planned program.

This "Open House" is appropriate more for the agency launching a new program, but if a long-established program has held no such event in several years, it may find it of advantage in bringing the agency and its volunteer program before the community again. This makes an excellent newsworthy event for a publicity story and pictures.

These several events, or any one of these, may, with pictures and the help of the news media representative of the Recruitment Committee, provide a continuing background for publicity in the recruitment campaign.

Other methods not dependent on news releases or media publicity have been found to be effective with some programs.

1. Using an *ad hoc* speakers bureau to promote invitations from clubs and organizations for a five or ten minute appearance at one of their meetings for a recruitment appeal (preferably with color slides).

   These talks should be presented by knowledgeable staff or by experienced volunteers of the agency. They must be carefully prepared to insure that all material presented is absolutely accurate and in no way glamorizing or misleading about the requirements of volunteer service. Many a volunteer has enrolled for service with misconceptions concerning his service obligations which have come from inaccurate recruitment publicity. This then must be corrected and explained at future interviews or training sessions. All who are involved in recruitment should bear this in mind. Talks should be brief, and the speakers should have on hand a leaflet of pertinent material for reference and for distribution to the audience. Later such printed material will be useful in the interview and in orientation and training programs for the new volunteers.

   The methods and suggestions listed in the foregoing paragraphs are those which have been in use with varying

degrees of success over the past years in community-wide news media recruitment campaigns. In more recent years other techniques have been tried. Some have proven more successful than others.

2. Group Recruitment and Interviewing.
This is the enlisting of a group such as students, or Head Start mothers, or Senior Citizens on-the-spot at their place of meeting. Several members of a recruitment team meet with the group at the invitation of the group's leader or teacher-advisor who has already alerted the group to the purpose. After brief orientation and discussion, the Recruitment Team will interview individually all who wish to enroll. This is what is termed a Recruitment Interview.

With changing patterns of service and with the problems and cost of urban transportation it is becoming more and more difficult to require new volunteers to make appointments for interviews at locations too distant from their home base. Therefore, this combination of recruitment and on-the-spot interviewing has been found very helpful with neighborhood groups in the inner-city and with student groups in the suburbs. Group enthusiasm can be infectious and many who would not have the courage to enroll alone gain confidence when their friends are interested also.

This is a less complicated method of recruitment, less expensive and often more productive. However, the agency must be prepared to make assignments for some members of the same group to serve at the same time, such as student tutors, or to plan that two or three friends may serve together, though not necessarily on the same tasks.

Many neighborhood groups emerging today in our urban areas are anxious to find service projects where they can work on a program under their own leadership. This will not help to fill the needs of our traditional service agencies for volunteer manpower. However, these are laudable grass roots efforts at improving neighborhood conditions and it is the responsibility of the established agencies in these areas to harness this interest to a productive and needed service

even though this may not be within the framework of their own programs. There must be, in our democratic society, an opportunity for service for every individual and every group desiring to serve his community. It sometimes happens in some areas that recruitment produces more volunteers than can be accommodated within that area. It behooves our community agencies and officials to find the means for transporting the surplus volunteers to the areas and services where they are needed.

It should be pointed out also that volunteers make excellent recruiters. An established program will have a number of experienced volunteers who can assist from time to time as speakers to groups or on TV or radio programs. Their enthusiasm, sincerity, spontaneity, their description of their own services, and of the personal satisfaction they have gained from their experience will do a great deal to interest others. In many situations they are more effective as recruiters than any staff member could be, as the listeners realize they speak as one of them, and with no vested interests.

3. Other Potential Sources

Other sources of new volunteers may be found in the labor unions, government departments, such as the Post Office, police and fire departments and industry. More and more employers of large concerns such as banks and insurance companies are encouraging their employees to give volunteer service to their local communities. Some will place recruitment material in their lunch rooms, rest rooms and lounges.

A mobile recruitment unit or a car pool of several recruiters can canvass nearby shopping centers. They can set up a card table with leaflets and enrollment cards and answer questions. This will draw the attention of passersby for a day or two. It should not be kept in one location too long, as its novelty wears off quickly.

These various recruitment methods have been used with

varying success in different communities, depending on size and program. The larger metropolitan areas continue to rely on the news media, TV and radio, but in addition are doing more intensive group and individual recruiting in the neighborhoods to be served.

Some ethnic organizations are ready for participation in community service for the first time. Churches in the inner-city which formerly confined their interests to their own church concerns are joining with other groups in neighborhood improvement efforts. Cooperative consumer organizations are springing up. Some of these groups need volunteers for their own services but some have memberships large enough to produce volunteers for other and related services. The concept of volunteering has reached many who never before felt welcome or adequate for volunteer service.

Recruitment cannot be separated from the other aspects of a well planned volunteer program. All who are involved in recruiting must keep this in mind. And almost everyone in the agency is involved, both paid and volunteer. Staff members have friends who could be interested. Board members often make excellent recruiters. They know the agency well, and have a personal interest in its operations, and its reputation in the community.

The sources of possible volunteers are multifold. With imagination, ingenuity, and a sound plan of action by a recruitment committee representing a broad range of community interests, there is every chance that a sufficient number of volunteers can be recruited to launch a new program or fill the gaps for expanding programs.

THE TRAINING OF VOLUNTEERS

Training in any field where quality of performance is desired is a continuing process. Carefully planned and well executed, it will contribute to the growth of the individual worker at the same time that it increases his skill and productivity.

The training of volunteers begins with their first contacts with the agency or organization and continues throughout their service. There are elements of training in every procedure for the induction of new volunteers from the initial recruitment to the recognition ceremony. Although some of these procedures are not designated as "training" per se, the volunteer is learning and growing as he moves from one phase of his service to another.

The pattern of volunteer induction is similar in many respects to the process through which a full-time prospective employee is selected and put to work. The new volunteer responds to a recruiting appeal, he applies for the volunteer opening that has been publicized, he is interviewed by a placement worker, he is given orientation and training, and finally placed at his assigned task.

Whether the program operates in a large or a small agency, for large numbers of volunteers, or for only a few, the volunteer is exposed to all of these procedures to some degree and in all of them there are aspects of orientation and training.

Recruitment — The First Step in Orientation

Since it is at the point of recruitment that the volunteer makes his first contact with the agency, it is here that his initial orientation begins. Basic background about the agency's program, its purpose and services, and the various types of volunteer opportunities come to his attention through general recruitment publicity, or from the one-to-one recruitment process when that is used.

Recruitment is not consciously thought of as a part of the training process. However, its initial publicity gives the volunteer his first impressions of the agency and introduces him to the need for volunteer service and the concept of volunteering. It is important, therefore, that the approach and content of the recruitment be carefully planned in relation to the follow-up procedures for inducting the volunteer.

Everyone involved in any aspect of the training of volunteers must be thoroughly convinced themselves of the importance of accuracy in all factual material to be presented, but this is

particularly true for those involved in recruitment where first impressions can be lasting impressions and where the groundwork is laid for all that follows.

The objective of recruitment is much broader then the mere aim of interesting potential volunteers to sign up for service. The image and the reputation of the agency are involved here. Hence, it is imperative that those in charge of recruitment understand clearly the effect that this first introduction of the volunteer to community service will have on his future attitude towards the agency and his own ability to serve productively.

The Placement Interview — Its Role in Training

The procedure that usually follows the recruitment of a prospective volunteer is the Placement Interview. In some programs where volunteers with a particular background or with special skills are needed, the recruitment may be on a one-to-one basis and the volunteers are interviewed as they are recruited. These are called Recruitment Interviews. The usual Placement Interview, however, takes place by appointment at the agency or at a Central Volunteer Bureau (if there is one) as the result of a general recruitment campaign, or because of the special interest of the individual volunteer who applies on his own initiative.

In whatever manner it is set up, the interview has important training aspects. It is a one-to-one private conversation between an applicant for volunteer service and a representative of the agency. Its objective is the same as any personnel employment interview. Both parties are seeking to arrive at a mutual decision on a possible volunteer assignment. The ability and suitability of the prospective volunteer for the service are the concerns of the agency. The nature of the assignment, the interest it holds for him and the possibilities for personal satisfaction are the concerns of the volunteer. Both the interviewer and the applicant may agree at once upon an assignment; they may defer the actual placement until the volunteer has participated in the orientation, or they may come to a mutual conclusion that the prospective volunteer is not ready or not suited to the agency's program.

To reach any of these conclusions the interview must be

carefully organized to give the prospective volunteer all the material essential for a sound decision on his part. Much more detailed information about the agency program than was included in the recruitment must be outlined and discussed with him. It is through the interview, also, that the volunteer must face the challenge and accept the practical aspects of what this commitment to service requires of the individual. This is of paramount importance, as many persons new to volunteer service still have misconceptions of what it means to be a volunteer today. Many still have the idea that a volunteer is paid, or that it will lead to paid employment. We know of course that the latter may happen, that a volunteer may become so skillful on his assignment that, with today's shortage of trained staff, he may be employed by the agency. But this is not the purpose of volunteer service programs and must be clearly pointed out at the interview. There is a common misconception also about the regularity of the service and the scheduling. Many applicants may wish to set their schedule to meet their own convenience, at irregular times and as often or as seldom as their outside activities permit. They may have the "Lady Bountiful" attitude and approach, or as in the child care services, they may feel that being a mother or grandmother makes them better prepared than a young teacher just out of training.

The entire interview is a learning process for the prospective volunteer. He may not be aware of this but the agency and the interviewer should see it as an important step in preparing him for his introduction to agency practices and programs and to the philosophy of volunteer service. It is important therefore that only the best qualified and most skillful personnel, paid or volunteer, be selected as interviewers. It is the function of the Director of Volunteers to make such selections and, if necessary, to arrange for their training as placement interviewers.

In many programs volunteers of special background and skill have proven to be excellent interviewers. They have been through the entire process themselves, have learned on their own assignments what the demands of the service are and above all, what satisfactions may come to the individual from his service. From this experience, volunteer interviewers are often able to

communicate with new volunteers more skillfully than can the professional staff member who has never had the experience of serving as a volunteer.

There are specific techniques in the personnel interview, and for these all interviewers need definite training. Personnel Directors from industry, from the hospitals, and the management field have been very helpful in training volunteers and staff members for this function in the volunteer program.

Orientation and/or Preservice Training

Following the interview the volunteer moves into an orientation period. This is the third step in preparation for service, and the first one that has been structured and designated as "training." He has learned of this at the interview where the interviewer has explained its purpose and the schedule and may have given him some descriptive material and a brochure of the agency for preliminary reading.

Orientation and preservice courses have no fixed format. They should be flexible enough to meet the needs of the agency, depending upon its size, the number of volunteers involved and the requirements of the service. If the tasks are uncomplicated such as the information desk at an agency of hospital or routine clerical tasks, then it may be that a one-day orientation will suffice. This might consist of a two-hour morning session for detailed information on agency policies and procedures, introduction to history of volunteering, its principles and standards and a tour of the facilities. A relaxed lunch period and general discussion with time for questions with the participation of working volunteers can round out the day. The specifics of the assignments and further indoctrination will come through their first day's induction and the ongoing on-the-job training.

Other orientation programs have been organized as a series of sessions, perhaps two held during one week, or three or four held on a weekly basis. The latter are more usual when the service of the volunteers may involve direct contacts or relationships with agency clientele and where more preservice training in a special field is essential.

However, it should be pointed out that new volunteers, in their eagerness for a new experience, are anxious to get started and it is well to move them into the service as quickly as possible. Where orientation or preservice training is scheduled over too long a period and without practical application, a volunteer may loose interest and drop out. To prevent this, some programs have been arranged as a combination of theory and practice. Between class sessions the new volunteers are paired with seasoned working volunteers or with staff members to observe and/or participate directly in the service. A follow-up session gives the volunteers the opportunity to discuss what they have seen or what was done during the practice period. Lectures and class discussions thus become realistic and the training process more meaningful. Another pattern has been found effective in programs for child care, Head Start and day care services. Two or three class sessions of introductory and background material are followed by a practice period extending over four or more work sessions under close supervision, as in teacher training, with a return to the classroom for follow-up discussion. Evaluation reports by the practice supervisors are used in making the permanent placements for the volunteers who are found qualified. These are invaluable in helping to eliminate any who may be unsuited or unqualified for placement in this field.

Content and Subject Matter
Recommended for General Orientation

Whether the orientation is conducted as a one-day session or in several weekly sessions certain basic areas and subject matter should be covered. These include:

1. History of the agency or organization, its purpose and goals, its financing (public or private), its role in the community, and its organizational structure.
2. The history and background of the volunteer movement, its principles and standards.
3. The requirements of volunteer service in general and special requirements of the individual agency.
4. The role of the volunteer in the agency and in the community.

5. Discussion of agency operations, policies, rules and regulations.
6. A tour of agency facilities.
7. Discussion of what the agency expects of its volunteers and what the volunteers may expect of the agency (Volunteer's Personnel Practices, fringe benefits, such as carfare, meals, uniforms, etc.).

The above areas and any others, as needed, can be programmed to fit into the needs of any size program.

LEADERSHIP IN ORIENTATION AND PRESERVICE TRAINING SESSIONS

The success of any training program depends largely on careful planning, but most important is the quality of the leadership involved in presenting material and in leading discussion sessions.

In general the sessions limited to and designated as orientation do not require or include experts from outside sources. However all who participate in leading the sessions or presenting material must have two basic qualifications; one, a sincere interest in and enthusiasm for volunteer service and an ability to project this through a warm, friendly personality; and two, accurate knowledge of the particular subject or area to be covered.

The orientation program should be under the general supervision of the Director of Volunteers, or a person charged with responsibility for training. However, the planning and leadership should be shared by other supervisory staff, such as department heads with whom volunteers may be working and with experienced volunteers whose contributions to the orientation can be of real value to the new volunteers.

Some practical considerations in the planning of orientation and preservice training sessions may be helpful.

1. *Timing and scheduling*
   The convenience of the group of new volunteers should be considered in setting up the dates, days, and hours of the training sessions.
2. *Dates near holidays* should be avoided.
3. *Children's school hours* and family meal times should be

considered.

4. *Sessions for employed volunteers,* if scheduled in the evenings, should allow ample time for relaxation and the supper hour before classes begin.
5. *Saturday sessions* may be scheduled for employed persons or students, but are inadvisable for mothers.
6. *Shorter sessions* need to be considered for evening classes, for student groups and for Senior Citizens.
7. *For all sessions* there should be a coffee or coke break of at least 15 minutes.

FACILITIES AND EQUIPMENT

1. Locations for orientation or preservice classes held outside the agency should be convenient in terms of the volunteers' transportation needs.
2. *Rooms* selected should be pleasant and conducive to a relaxed but attentive atmosphere, not distracted by noises.
3. *Elevators* and *rest rooms* should be convenient.
4. *Sufficient* seating must be provided in case of unregistered walk ins.
5. *Equipment* for films and slides should be ready and tested.
6. *Blackboards*, if needed, and pencils and paper are usually provided.
7. *Heat* and/or *air conditioning* should be checked and regulated.
8. *Equipment* and *materials* for *coffee* or coke breaks should be in readiness.
9. *Desks* and *personnel* should always be available for registration and roll call.
10. *Podium* or suitable table and chairs need to be arranged for chairman and speakers for round-table sessions.

Induction — the First Day's Training for the Assignment

In an organized volunteer program this term "induction" is used to designate the procedure for the volunteer's first working day on his assignment. This first day on the job can make or break a

volunteer. It is a most important day for him and should be treated as such. On this day he will be meeting administrative and professional staff, other volunteers serving in various capacities in the agency, his co-workers, both paid and volunteer, with whom he will be serving. He is in a new and strange environment, conscious of his "newness" and wondering how he will be accepted, how he himself will like it, and whether he will be adequate to the task assigned to him.

It is everyone's responsibility to make him feel at home, at ease with professional staff and office personnel, and ready to begin on his assignment with confidence and enthusiasm. His impressions, his feelings, and his reactions at the end of his first day may well determine whether the agency has gained a loyal and enthusiastic volunteer who will stay with the program or a disillusioned and frustrated one who may be an early drop-out.

This entire first day is a most important phase of the training process. All previous information obtained at the interview and through the orientation is brought into focus, and all that has been learned must now be put to the test. The induction day for the new volunteer is a special day for the agency staff as well and its routine cannot be left to chance. In a well-established program, a careful plan is made and all the staff is alerted so that a warm welcome is assured.

It is well to bear in mind some of the most important points in such a plan, even though some are quite obvious, such as:

1. The Director of Volunteers must have prepared all staff members from receptionist to supervisory personnel in earlier staff training on the role of the volunteers in the agency, and the staff's special responsibility to them on their first day's induction.

2. The Director must be free to give full attention on that day to greeting them, introducing them to office personnel, professional staff and without fail to the agency's executive director or administrator. If the administrator is not available on this day, the introduction should be arranged as early as possible in the volunteer's schedule. This is important for both the volunteer and the staff, as it establishes early in his service his status as an accepted

member "of the team." A warm greeting from top administration will do a great deal to make the volunteer feel needed and wanted.

3. If the volunteer's schedule calls for only a morning period the Director will then escort him to the department or unit where he will be serving and introduce him to his service supervisor.

4. Here, too, it is important that his assignment be clearly outlined to him, possibly with a written job description as a guide. He will be introduced to his co-workers, volunteer and paid, given his working space and with everyone's help made to feel as welcome as possible. More detailed instructions will come through the on-the-job training during his continued service.

5. The Director of Volunteers must plan to see the volunteer at the end of his first day, discuss the day's experience with him and answer any questions. A few minutes parting talk may reveal points of misunderstanding and areas which need special attention or more training. The agency's appreciation should be conveyed by the director and he should be certain that the volunteer leaves on a note of encouragement and enthusiasm.

ON-THE-JOB TRAINING

The training of volunteers does not stop with the general orientation or even with additional preservice training courses. The in-depth learning process takes place on the job. The volunteer's immediate supervisor or staff member to whose service he is assigned is responsible for the more intensive training which is needed for quality of performance. This involves weekly supervisory contacts which for some uncomplicated tasks may require not too much time and effort after the training for the specific task is completed. In some programs the supervisor may find it helpful to pair the new volunteer with an experienced one who is available to help him with the routine instructions during the first few weeks. This is often an upgrading assignment for an experienced volunteer as well as a time saving technique for the

supervisor. We know, too, that with many new volunteers, learning from a co-worker is easier than learning from the professional.

However, where the service involves the volunteer in contacts and relationships with the agency's clientele, all supervision and training on the job are the responsibility of the professional supervisor. Frequent individual conferences, special reading material, attendance at staff conferences, and all of these learning and training techniques are a part of on-the-job training in these special services. Some or all are needed to give the volunteer deeper insight and understanding of the scope of his own assignment and the goals of the agency.

It is this continuous training on the job which helps the volunteer to meet each challenge as it comes and to progress in skill and productivity. Not only does he thus become a more valuable "member of the team" and an asset to the agency, but he himself, through this experience and training, will have gained a great deal in personal growth and satisfaction. It is important to remember, also, that when the volunteer has reached his peak in productivity on any one assignment, he should not be left to get in a rut. A new assignment with new challenges should be found for him.

In-Service Training

This is broader than the on-the-job phase of training which comes in the first few days of the volunteer's assignment and almost wholly deals with training the individual volunteer for his specific task or service.

In-service training applies to all the volunteers, old and new. It is sometimes organized as group sessions with the volunteers from the same service, or those who serve on the same day, or annually, or more often if feasible, with the entire body of volunteers. Many techniques are utilized for this over-all in-service training. Some are described in the following paragraphs.

1. *The Refresher Courses.*

   These are usually arranged for the smaller groups serving on the same day or same service, to bring them up-to-date on any new methods, refresh their minds about previous

discussions of agency policies, rules and regulations, emphasize certain areas in which more training is needed, or to discuss problems of a personal or work nature, sometimes relating to volunteer dress or conduct.

2. *A general all-inclusive volunteer-staff meeting.* This might be necessary at a time of crisis in the agency or in the community such as after the assassination of Dr. King. At that time many agencies felt the need to avert panic. Agencies in the black communities had to notify all their volunteers, black and white, not to report for service until the crisis had passed. Other crises have arisen when urban renewal is closing down the agency or the area, or the agency is merging with another. Having to hold a general meeting for this purpose, one agency staff took advantage of the occasion to have a most enlightening and educational discussion of community conditions, and the role of the volunteers in the crisis. They found a surprising response from white volunteers who felt the agency's fear for their safety was unnecessary.

3. Other in-service training programs have found that refresher sessions for staff members and volunteers, held periodically, have produced benefits to both the volunteers and the agency. Such sessions have helped to create greater cohesiveness and "esprit de corps" among all the volunteers and between volunteers and staff. The sessions are set up on whatever phase of agency operation appears relevant or timely. Administrative staff, supervisors and volunteers all share in the discussion and also in leading the sessions. Problems of staff and volunteers are aired with frankness. Suggestions and good ideas for changes and improvements often emerge. Problems which indicate training can be warning signs to staff.

4. *Other inservice training* programs have made use of films, exhibits, and slides of importance to the agency's field or to volunteer service. These could be used in refresher courses or for a special occasion such as a tea or award ceremony.

5. *A volunteer newsletter* has been found most helpful as a training aid for exchange of ideas, for the "personals" which

keep volunteers acquainted with one another, for listing reading matter relevant to the service, and for current news relating to the neighborhood and the community.

There are many other varied and innovative techniques being developed to broaden the volunteers' understanding not only of the particular agency and service in which he is participating, but also of its relation to the general welfare of the community.

6. *Interagency Workshops and Seminars*

No longer does an established volunteer program confine itself to the narrow concerns of its own services. Volunteers are recognized as important links to the community as well as one of the strongest public relations channels for the agency. Inter-agency Workshops and Seminars are arranged through the cooperation of a number of agencies in the field or under the sponsorship of a local university or college. Such workshops are open to the public, to volunteers from many fields and arrangements made for representative volunteers to attend and report back to their own volunteer programs.

Often the agencies will pay the registration fee for the workshop (if there is a fee). The volunteers who attend may be asked to lead an inservice workshop in their own agency. By this method leadership is developed in the volunteer group and materials and speakers from the outside community are presented to the entire volunteer body. Exceptional volunteers have been appointed delegates to local and state welfare conferences with responsibility for later assisting in the training programs within their own agencies.

Evaluation as a Training Tool

No training program can move forward without the use of the evaluation process. As an aid to placement and early on-the-job training, and also as an ongoing procedure for continued supervision, training and up-grading of the volunteer program, evaluation is an invaluable tool. As a standard device for measuring the

progress of any worker, paid or volunteer, evaluations must be carried out by supervisory personnel, with the help of any others associated with or related to the worker's performance. A uniform rating scale on the details of the job requirements plus personal comments on personality, cooperativeness, willingness to learn, etc. should be prepared by the Director of Volunteers in cooperation with the on-the-job supervisory personnel.

A most important use of such an evaluation form in the training of new volunteers comes at the end of what many programs have designated as the "probationary period." Usually this is after three or four or even six months on the job. The form is filled out in conference between the volunteer's immediate supervisor and the Director of Volunteers. It is the latter's responsibility to hold an evaluation session with the new volunteer when the probation period has ended and on the basis of the evaluation rating and his conference with the volunteer's job supervisor review with each volunteer his strengths and weaknesses, his attitude toward his service and toward the agency, his problems, and his potentials.

The evaluation is in this way an individual training session for the volunteer and a most important one as he will learn what his supervisors think about his fitness for the service. He will have the opportunity to ask questions, to express any fears or reservations he has about his own ability, about his relations with staff and about his place in the agency program. From the evaluation may come the need for further training for him or for an assignment to a task or service of more interest to him. Whatever decision is reached, the volunteer has gained the realization that he is important to the agency and his service requires his maximum effort. Whatever the assessment of his ability, if he is retained in the service, he has the satisfaction of knowing that the agency feels that his contribution is or can be of value to the program. He is aware of his strengths and his weaknesses, and if he wishes to continue, he knows where and how to find the help he needs to gain confidence and to progress within the service.

However, evaluation does not stop with the probation period. It should be a standard procedure with all volunteer programs and for all volunteers as they progress in the service. It is a part of the continuous training process. It has most value to the volunteers

when it is a known and scheduled part of his continuing service as it keeps him alert to the job requirements and to the knowledge that like a paid staff member, his performance will be periodically evaluated. Everyone likes to know how he is performing and to have the approval of his superiors. Volunteers are no different.

Recognition Can Also Be A Training Device

It may appear that it is claiming too much to designate the recognition procedure as having any relation to training. However, there are certain aspects of recognition as it has been developed within the established volunteer programs that have definite relationship to the training process. Recognition, or appreciation for service rendered as some prefer to call it, has been accepted from the early beginnings of the volunteer movement as an important technique for stimulating the volunteers to better and longer service with the agency. Based on a number of hours of service, which in most cases would require regular attendance on the job, standards were developed for the conferring of awards or citations. Since human beings have a strong need for recognition, this need in volunteers is partly met through agency or public recognition in terms of award ceremonies, pins, citations, etc. Since this tends to stimulate the volunteer to greater service and to deeper satisfaction this recognition very definitely has in it some of the same goals as training. Without recognition, some of this would undoubtedly be lost as the training program alone does not supply this need for recognition.

Today we find in many of the agency recognition ceremonies the deletion entirely of the word "award" and a de-emphasizing of the "award" itself. The names of those who have earned an award or citation for the year are listed, and in a fairly small program may even be read at the occasion, but the actual "pinning" of the award or delivery of the certificate is done at the conclusion of the general program and not publicly as in earlier years. Instead the program for the occasion is given a definite educational and training flavor. Experts from the field may be the speakers or panel members to bring to the volunteers and their families and friends the latest development in the field; or prominent public

men or women will speak on subjects of current community interest. This can hold many training aspects while at the same time demonstrating that agencies consider their volunteers as intelligent civic-minded citizens, and as such they are as interested in broad community concerns as they are in the volunteer service with their particular agency.

SPECIAL PRESERVICE TRAINING AS DIFFERENTIATED FROM GENERAL ORIENTATION

Introduction

Special training courses are necessary to prepare volunteers for certain types of services which require some technical or paraprofessional knowledge. Opportunities are broader today for the volunteers to work closely with the professional staff in areas which bring them in direct relationship to agency clientele. To be adequately prepared for these services requires more than the general orientation discussed in the previous paragraphs.

To meet this need many communities have developed a cooperative plan for the agencies in the same field to work together. Because not many of them are in need of large numbers of such volunteers, a special training committee is organized with members of the professional staff from the agencies involved. This committee may be called the Joint Volunteer Training Committee (for the field) and under sponsorship of a local Social Planning Council, a Volunteer Bureau or one of the larger agencies develops and conducts the training program for volunteers; the basic course and refresher and advanced course, depending on the need of the special field.

We list here a number of such joint training programs which have been successful:
1. The Friendly Visitor Training Program
2. The Volunteer Case Aide Course
3. Training for youth leaders
4. Training for child care and Head Start volunteers
5. Training for tutors

A description of several is added here.

The Friendly Visitor Training Program

Since the 1950's there has been a growing interest in the assignment of volunteers as Friendly Visitors. In the early beginning of the program, the volunteers served primarily in services for the aged in homes for the aged, in senior centers, in the old age assistance departments of the public welfare programs, or in the geriatric wards of public hospitals. Their functions were confined to the simple tasks of letter writing, reading, doing small errands for the homebound and bringing some cheer and companionship to the lonely and unattached through a one-to-one relationship.

From the beginning it was recognized that such direct service to people required special understanding and training for volunteers, and various methods were tried. Today the generally accepted pattern that is recommended is the community-wide joint training course described earlier. The functions of the Friendly Visitor have broadened and have expanded into services with individual clients of many more professional agencies in the community and of differing age levels. For such service as being a "friend" to a teen-ager, or to a mother on public assistance, or a stroke victim in a rehabilitation center or nursing home much more in depth training is required than for the earlier restricted functions permitted the Friendly Visitor. Today's programs are usually developed and conducted under professional training committees, with full cooperation from the other professional agencies needing the volunteers.

Several special functions not always carried by the joint training committees in other fields are found in this program.

1. Follow-up sessions on a monthly basis are often scheduled for continued training by the committee. The supervisors of the agencies in which the volunteers are serving participate in these sessions, on a supervisory as well as a training basis. Since the volunteers are serving in the field and in many communities at inconvenient distances from the agency and their supervisors, they have little or no direct contact with them except for telephone calls. Staff is often not available, may fail to answer calls, and the volunteer having little

support or attention becomes frustrated and discouraged. Some professional training committees have recognized this unavoidable situation and are trying to meet it by the monthly sessions.

2. Special Recognition Events

The Friendly Visitor Training Committee may also sponsor an annual Recognition or Appreciation Tea. This has been organized on a joint basis with all agencies involved sharing the cost since perhaps no individual agency has enough Friendly Visitors to hold a separate recognition event of its own. Such a joint community-wide recognition event draws publicity, which in turn may bring new volunteers. It serves also to strengthen the cohesiveness of the group as they meet their fellow "graduates" of the training course; it tends to give them support and a sense of belonging, as well as community approval and a feeling of importance in serving a worthwhile program. A prominent speaker from the field is often included in the program, thus adding a training element to the occasion.

3. When agreed upon by the agencies concerned, several members of the training committee may act in place of the individual agency supervisor to answer calls from the Friendly Visitors, to serve in a consulting capacity to the volunteers or to be the middle man between the volunteers and their supervisors. This has been possible in those communities where a lay person, perhaps a retired social worker, is a member of the training committee and fully prepared to follow through with the volunteer's problems in the early weeks after assignment. Where this has been tried it has been very successful. It has provided, also, a challenging service for an administrative volunteer.

Training For Child Care and/or Head Start Volunteers

This training course is usually organized and sponsored by the central authority which operates the Head Start program. In most communities this is the local school system. In many areas, however, there may be churches, community centers and other private agencies which participate in the program. In such

situations the sponsoring agency may set up a joint training committee representing both the public and private sectors of child care and Head Start operations. This committee develops and conducts the training course. Professional staff from the cooperating agencies participate when possible, but experts from the field of child development and early education are often drawn into the program of the class sessions.

If there is a local Volunteer Bureau or other recruiting agency, the recruiting of new volunteers can be carried on independently of the Head Start program and the actual interviewing need not be the responsibility of the training committee. However, if necessary, a special committee may be set up to do this under the direction of the sponsoring agency or the training committee. Experienced volunteers from the child care or Head Start programs would do well in this capacity and can relieve the busy professional staff of this responsibility. Usually the interviewing of the new volunteers is conducted at the completion of the course, after those not seriously interested in serving have dropped out.

Through this cooperative arrangement among a group of agencies and a joint training committee such as described here, it is possible to open a Head Start training course to prospective volunteers for service in other types of child care programs, such as Day Care Centers, Half-day Play Centers, Day Nurseries, and others. Not all who volunteer for Head Start have the suitability or the time available for the Head Start schedules but have other qualifications for service elsewhere. In this manner neither their training nor their services will be lost to the community.

This joint training committee need not carry responsibility for continued training or follow-up sessions and may wish to dissolve when the training program is completed. However, in a number of communities, one follow-up session or final class is held after the volunteers have had a month's experience. This is as much for an evaluation of the training course as it is for the benefit of the volunteers. Head teachers and supervisory personnel are asked to participate and where the discussion reveals gaps in training or need for revision in the training program the training committee can proceed to draw up recommendations for future training courses.

The organizational structure of all child care and Head Start

centers assures the volunteers of close contact with their supervisors. The continuous in-service and job training thus afforded the volunteer may make further outside training unnecessary.

Joint Training For Youth Leaders

Where a community has a number of youth-serving agencies all in need of volunteers with similar skills and aptitudes, but not all equipped with sufficient staff to conduct special training courses or recruitment campaigns for new volunteers, the cooperative efforts outlined above for the Friendly Visitor and Head Start programs can be utilized.

A joint professional committee or a central bureau (if there is one) can organize recruitment plans, and carry through in the development and conducting of the training sessions.

Sponsorship might be one of the larger youth agencies, such as YMCA, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Boys Club Federation, or local Federation of Settlements and Community Centers. If the public recreation department is actively cooperating, it might well sponsor such a community-wide training of youth leaders.

As with all other community recruitment and training programs it should be open to any who are interested. However, if possible, there should be some screening of prospective volunteers prior to the opening of the training course. Where no Central Bureau exists for this, a special interviewing committee might be set up and the interviewers drawn from paid staff or volunteers of the larger agencies. In some communities the larger youth-serving agencies may prefer to conduct their own preservice training courses within their own agency. However, they have expertise in many areas and should be invited to participate in the deliberations of a broadly representative training committee, and be willing to spare some staff for assisting in the training sessions.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

There is a deep and abiding need in all human beings to be needed, to be wanted and to be recognized. It is through volunteer service that a great number of our lay citizens are seeking to

satisfy some of these basic needs. Agencies with volunteer programs must recognize the right of volunteers to expect this as part of their compensation for their services. They receive no financial or other tangible remuneration.

Therefore volunteer programs, to be successful, must make every effort to meet these fundamental human needs. Well planned and substantive training programs with expert leadership demonstrate early to the volunteer that his service is of value. Careful selection of an assignment suited to his interest, with continued training, evaluation and supervision, reinforces the feeling that he is needed. The acceptance and welcoming attitude of all staff, professional and nonprofessional serves to assure him that he is liked and wanted as a person as well as a co-worker "on the team."

These are responsibilities that an agency cannot ignore and must accept regardless of the cost in time and effort, and in expense as well, if it wishes to retain its volunteers. In addition there must be created within the agency an atmosphere of general approval and appreciation for volunteer service. If the agency holds periodically, as most of the larger programs do today, a public recognition ceremony, to which friends and family are invited, the individual's sense of self-worth is enhanced still more.

The procedures outlined in this chapter are for recruiting volunteers, for training staff to work with them, for training volunteers for maximum quality performance in service to the agency as well as in personal growth and satisfaction for themselves – all this may seem a heavy undertaking for agencies that are understaffed and overburdened. However, the experience of many years has shown that the time and effort, and the money spent in careful recruitment and sound training of volunteers has more than paid for itself in increased productive service to the agencies, and greater understanding by the public of community needs.

With attention to sound principles and adherence to the highest standards of operation a well-organized volunteer program can achieve excellent results in high quality service through a corps of loyal, dedicated and efficient volunteers.

APPENDIX FOR CHAPTER 3

Duties, Qualifications and Training of
the Director of Volunteers

1. The Director's first responsibility will be to work with all staff to effect their acceptance of the volunteers, as outlined in previous paragraphs, and to be assured that a welcoming atmosphere has been created in the agency.
2. It will be his responsibility to study the various departments or services and, with supervisory staff, ascertain in what areas volunteers can satisfactorily perform supplementary services.
3. The next step will be the drawing up of job descriptions, also with staff cooperation.
4. He will need to assist in the recruitment of the volunteers though he should not have to carry full responsibility for this. However, he should serve in an advisory capacity to the recruitment committee.
5. He will interview, select and place all volunteers recruited.
6. He must arrange the physical facilities of the Volunteer Department waiting room, select and arrange space for volunteer registration, for lockers or cloakroom, lounge, if there is space for this, and his own private office.
7. Develop all forms and records needed for efficient controls.
8. He is responsible for orientation and in-service training programs with the cooperation of supervisory staff.
9. He cooperates with other agencies in the field and with local educational institutions in developing preservice training courses in areas where this may be needed.
10. He is involved in developing volunteer manuals, brochures, recruitment material, and other written materials, including report forms. He may have help from public relations or other staff on this.
11. He plans, with board or auxiliary (if any) for recognition and award ceremonies.

12. He must interpret the functions and the need of volunteers to the community on a continuing basis, in conjunction with a recruitment committee or the public relations staff (if there is such).

These are some of the most obvious duties and responsibilities of the Director. There may be others depending on the situation. In some established programs the Director carries full responsibility for recruitment which takes a disproportionate percentage of his time and reduces the time needed for his responsibilities for supervision and in-service training of the volunteers. It has been found of value, where feasible, to have an Advisory Committee set up to assist the Director, or other working committees, such as Training, Recognition, and Staff Liaison Committees. In many of the larger programs, an Assistant Director has been employed to share the Director's duties.

Qualifications and Training for Directors of Volunteer Programs or as It Might Be Called "Training of the Trainers"

It is clear that the persons chosen to carry the duties and responsibilities listed in general terms above, (and these involve many details and ramifications not possible to include here) must have excellent qualifications. Their qualifications must be similar in personality, education, experience and training to those required of personnel in similar executive positions within the same agency. Unfortunately there is a serious shortage of persons experienced or qualified for the positions of directors or assistant directors of volunteer programs.

The volunteer movement is still too young to have developed to the point where it is fully accepted as a professional discipline. Only a few accredited educational institutions are offering training for careers in this field. Local and national associations of Directors of Volunteers have held short courses and workshops in basic managerial techniques for many years but primarily for their own membership. Therefore, administrators seeking qualified persons must search in many fields besides health and welfare. It has been in these fields that most of the best programs have

developed; and here many of the early leaders received both training and experience.

Most of the courses that have been organized whether under university or local agency sponsorship have been set up for six to ten weeks or for a college semester. They can in the time allowed cover only the bare minimum requirements for preparing a person for the multifold responsibilities of the position of a Volunteer Director. They give no academic credit and can lead only to a certificate of completion. However, some of these local training courses have gained a reputation for excellence and in lieu of more intensive educational training facilities in the professional schools their "graduates" have been employed and considered as having better preparation than persons who have had more training in unrelated fields.

We can report, too, that persons with professional training and experience in related fields such as social work, teaching, and personnel administration are becoming interested in moving into executive positions in the volunteer programs. Some of this interest has been stimulated by the emphasis on volunteer manpower at the federal level. However, more of it can be attributed to the development of sound personnel standards set up by a number of local associations of directors of volunteer programs across the nation. These local associations have worked persistently for salaries commensurate with the duties and responsibilities of the experienced directors and for the acceptance by administration of the status of the Director of the Volunteer Department as equal to the status of other department heads and supervisors. This is now generally accepted by top administration and Directors of Volunteers are accorded the same privileges and recognition as other department heads in the organization pattern of the larger agencies and hospitals today. The leaders in the development of the standards for qualifications for Directors of Volunteers and for the efficient management and operation of the volunteer programs have come from the hospital field. Such local associations as the Chicago Council of Directors of Hospital Volunteers as early as 1951 drew up a set of "Standards and Guidelines" for the operation of volunteer programs in hospitals and health care agencies, and beginning in 1956, has held annual

basic training courses for its membership and others in the community who were interested in a career in this field. The Volunteer Bureau of the Chicago Welfare Council sponsored and assisted in developing the early courses, but for some years now, the Council of Directors of Hospital Volunteers has operated independently, employing at times a Director of Training for both basic courses and advanced seminars. The Volunteer Bureau of Los Angeles has developed similar courses under the direction of the University of California at Los Angeles, with professional and academic leadership from related fields assisting in the lectures and discussions. These are just two of many other "grass roots" training programs operating in different parts of the country.

Columbia University and Northeastern University are among the universities which have conducted training courses over a number of years. These are all examples of scattered short-term programs for "training the trainers" of volunteers which have sprung up from sheer necessity in the field. Much more of an accredited professional nature must be developed within our universities, professional schools and colleges to meet the needs of our expanding volunteer programs for qualified executive personnel. The American Society of Directors of Hospital Volunteers, under the American Hospital Association; the American Association of Volunteer Bureaus, and the Association for Directors of Volunteers in Psychiatric Settings, (one of the first to be organized on a national basis for developing standards within that field) are all working for the same end, the development of full professional training under accredited educational auspices for persons wishing, to make a career in this field. The need is acute today and, with the present expanding interest in new volunteer programs being accelerated by the National Voluntary Action Committee, the need will be even greater in the future.

Chapter 4

� SUPERVISING THE VOLUNTEER

HARRIETT H. NAYLOR

SINCE volunteers are first of all *people,* supervising them is not drastically different. No people like supervision which is merely the exercise of authority. In addition, there is a myth abroad that volunteers can't be supervised which must be dispelled. Volunteers appreciate *good* supervision. Without a salary reward system, good supervision requires great skill and genuine compassion to help volunteers remain motivated, and to encourage effort and progress toward greater responsibility. It is much easier to leave a volunteer job than a paid one, and there are many claims on volunteers. Supervision produces commitment if it is good; when people who share goals and objectives can enjoy their work together, each improves job performance because they have mutual respect and trust.

When volunteers on an assignment outnumber staff, supervisory conferences often become group meetings beginning with the initial orientation to a particular project, convening periodically, evaluating and adjusting work plans as conditions change, and sharing ideas. But many volunteer assignments are overseen on a one-to-one basis with a more experienced volunteer or paid staff member serving as the supervisor who teaches on the job and gives focus and administrative direction to the volunteer, supplementing his strengths and showing up his individual gaps or weaknesses with special help.

The supervisor has leadership responsibility for clarifying goals, recognizing volunteer objectives and helping the volunteer to develop his own congruent work objectives. Together, they work out their philosophy and the rationale underlying the assignment,

matching the knowledge, skills and special interests of the volunteer to the requirements of the assignment and discovering the many ways he can contribute to the whole while working on his part of a project. Even when the volunteer has more experience or higher educational qualifications than his supervisor, there are traditions, theories and important aspects of the organization work which the supervisor highlights for the newcomer so that he can test his qualifications and discover what he still needs to learn in order to apply himself constructively in a new setting.

BUILDING CONFIDENCE

A good supervisor builds confidence in volunteers by sincere appreciation of the unique strengths each worker brings to the assignment and realistic assessment of his weaknesses, offering advice and resources. Essential is shared confidence that the person can do the job, and wants to do it well. No matter how impressive his credentials, anyone beginning an assignment needs such reassurance while he learns the policy framework as ground rules for the new work. He is most teachable at the very beginning, most open to testing his assumptions and prior knowledge and to new ideas, seeking to learn the limits of his responsibilities and the expectations other persons have of him in his new role. He and the supervisor will want to explore as much as possible during the induction period, they will want to establish the best possible team work relationship.

GROUPS AND SUPERVISION

When supervision is handled in group meetings, it is essential to insure fairness and to individualize group members and their uniquenesses. Equal attention to each volunteer and his particular concerns must guarantee that he is not made to feel inadequate in front of the others, but given constructive help which is truly enabling. Each member can reinforce participation by the others so that the group identity will become another attraction to strengthen the retention of all the volunteers. Quiet members are sought out and dominant ones prevented from impinging on the

rights of others. Under skilled supervision, the volunteer learns to accept himself as an agent of the organization and to appreciate the feelings and ideas of others as they relate to him and the organization as a whole, as consumers, staff or as fellow volunteers. The behavior of others tends to mirror the way the volunteer is seen by them, when viewed with a discerning eye. Staff may feel their jobs are in jeopardy, and some consumers, that they have special status with their special volunteer. The supervisor helps the volunteer accept the fact that his presence means different things to different people, to understand these perspectives and to gain insight about himself from each new experience. He begins to see himself as a member of the staff with all of the accountability and responsibility which that fact implies. Thus, the volunteer becomes increasingly unwilling to disappoint himself, the consumers or his fellow workers. For persons serving for the first time, the development of a self-image as a giver of service and teammate of other staff is an important part of growth. With the co-worker concept comes the desire to please and willingness to learn from the others.

Group supervision makes possible efficient use of consultants and training resources such as films, with group discussion providing new points of view and stimulation. Periodically as opportunities arise, volunteers should be encouraged to pursue other learning opportunities at community meetings, extension courses and conferences which remove him from the usual work setting. Many a volunteer first attends only because his supervisor encouraged him by pointing out the benefits for his learning and therefore for the work to be done. It helps to facilitate enrollment. Again, the process of supervision focuses general communications to individual needs pointing out "this is for *you*." There is special meaning gained from learning away from the job, even when the same ideas have been mentioned in the work setting.

With the consumer revolution, clients are more likely to express their needs and their wishes, unwilling to remain poorly or unserved. They exercise rights of self-determination which may include the refusal of volunteer services or a particular volunteer. The volunteer may feel hurt at such rejection and respond

defensively or by withdrawal from the program since his good intentions have proved insufficient. The supervisor then has an obligation to support the volunteer, yet to point out the injustices often perpetrated on clients or other target groups when services were planned on behalf of the client rather than planned with him. No longer passively "placed," the same rights of choice are equally important for the volunteer. While most volunteers accept advice in placement and work out well, there is also the person who needs help to refuse an assignment which may overwhelm or not interest him. He will not exercise his right of choice out of fear that he will not be an acceptable volunteer unless he is willing to do whatever he is asked.

The supervisor must be sensitive and communicate his acceptance and understanding of preferences, prior loyalties and obligations which could mean discomfort on an assignement for a particular volunteer, even if he seems the most qualified candidate. As the work progresses, the volunteer may need the same kind of help to prevent his becoming overcommitted and losing his enthusiasm for the work. Too frequently, burned out volunteers drop out altogether when a discerning supervisor could have prevented their disappointment in their volunteer work. To be taken for granted or to be left to toil alone too long is for the volunteer grounds for resignation. He is unlikely to be trapped again, and he will warn his friends, becoming a potent counter force to all the positive public relations and recruitment efforts of the organization. Thus, the hedonic values to the volunteer are important to the organization as a whole as well.

As the work progresses, new strengths and new learning needs will emerge to which the supervisor must be attuned. A pattern of periodic review of a volunteer placement involves the whole organization: volunteer with the supervisor, with the client(s) and the supervisor with other staff, administration and some publics as well. Each perspective is important to discover whether the placement is productive and should be continued, adjusted or terminated. Evidence of new interests and intensified commitment may point toward opening new opportunities for the volunteer, where the induction and self-testing process will begin all over again in the light of the new work demands and contextual

conditions. The supervisor has a pivotal role in work evaluation and promotion or change of assignments.

Initial apprehension among staff about volunteers in advocate roles is understandable since, when unleashed against established practices, volunteer power can be a powerful force. But free of job worries, and unrestricted to bureaucratic channels of communication, the volunteer has a tremendous potential as an advocate. He can influence potential consumers to use services, taxpayers to support programs, administrators to seek qualified staff and provide auxiliary services; he can change public policy and legislation in ways not open to staff members from within the organization structure. Good supervision becomes the means by which volunteers are inspired to become advocates with concerns like the staff concerns, rather than as adversaries. A good supervisor exposes the volunteer to seek out the need for change and helps the volunteer to become effective in bringing about change in ways closed to staff, enjoying the outcome when the volunteer is advocating in areas of the community to which staff may not have easy access. Outsiders trust the volunteer because he seems to be acting out of altruism, not self-interest. A neighbor can intercede for a potential tenant or a job applicant in ways no official could use, by simplifying and translating technical language, layman-to-layman.

The possibilities for strengthening programs by volunteer advocacy are growing out of experience in community action programs and governmental services as well as more traditional voluntary agencies. Acting as advocates or interpreters, volunteers serve clients directly, help people find appropriate services, or mobilize resources in their behalf.

In the field of mental health the volunteer serves as advocate for services with patients and their families from the earliest prevention level throughout treatment, and continues to help persons find confidence and competence afterwards.

Volunteer advocates can extend staff outreach efforts. Gatekeepers in communities, those key persons whose approval is essential before a service is accepted by their neighbors, can persuade families to use services which may be new, or offered outside their immediate community. This kind of advocacy helps

preventive services to be used early before situations become acute.

Volunteers as hostesses in intake services can often allay the fears of patients and their families by understanding their feelings as a treatment program is initiated for a particular patient. An ex-patient is particularly valuable in this assignment since firsthand experience as a "consumer" gives his testimonial authenticity. Later on, a volunteer can sustain motivation, serving as a friend without clinical or job objectives, perceived by the patient as therefore more credible.

Volunteers don't come to us from a vacuum. The network of connections most volunteers have provides opportunities for telling their relatives, neighbors and fellow members the values and gratifications in being a volunteer. Thus, these advocates persuasively recruit people as both staff and as other volunteers for their service. Such interpretation of the service may be real education for their service club, church fellow members or a coffee klatch.

Volunteer advocates too may present the culture and tradition of a community to staff who may not have roots there or know what has gone on there before. Sometimes cultural patterns determine attitudes toward a service which may block effective use of that service. Staff may jump to the conclusion that parents are not interested in their children when they do not follow their progress by visits and seeking consultation. A volunteer can explain how difficult it is there to get transportation, or pay for it, or to come at times when staff is available for consultation. Many times hours can be adjusted to the cultural patterns of an area.

Perhaps the most telling volunteer advocacy comes at the social action level. This may mean expressing needs of persons in such a way as to persuade service professionals to make themselves available and their service relevant to those needs. This may mean persuading budget makers and decision makers at local, state, and even national legislative levels that services are needed and deserve budgetary support.

We on the staff have a tendency to present our best side when we are interpreting our services to the public. If we really want to enlist volunteers as advocates, it is essential that we also share our

problems and our aspirations with citizens so that they understand what our needs and frustrations are, as well as our tangible accomplishments. Through our risking such trust in volunteers, they take on our staff goals and objectives when they understand them, and work directly to achieve them in ways closed to paid staff. Volunteers frequently cut through protocol, red tape, the limitations of position on a structure chart, right to the people who can effect real change in a community, or who control support for the provision of services.

The volunteer represents a source of strength in gaining support for services, in insuring that services are designed realistically and relevantly for needs, and persuading the target group to use those services. Training for staff in enlisting volunteer advocacy is crucial to enjoying this fringe benefit of volunteer services.

The approach to volunteer supervision must be future oriented, not "how I used to do it" but "how could it be done, given today's resources and tomorrow's potentials." A supervisor has responsibility to know what is going on in the field beyond the ken of the volunteer and keep him informed of new ideas and resources to adapt for situations he may face in the future. By suggesting techniques, he nurtures new skills and creativity which will in turn enrich the field if the supervisor carries out his two-way communication responsibilities, bringing the fresh viewpoint and nontraditional thinking of the volunteer to reinspire more experienced persons who may be feeling jaded in their jobs. The supervisor represents a two-way link for the volunteer to other parts of the organizational setting as well as to the whole field of human service. Democratic concepts of participative management imply that the volunteer brings a valuable contribution to the program development and policy planning process through the supervisory relationships. If avenues for volunteer input are not open, job frustrations and budget limitations are likely to make an adversary out of the volunteer who started out as an ally. Providing for volunteer attendance at staff meetings creates a safety valve for such pressures and alerts other staff to conditions and developments which deserve consideration in the policy development process. Since frequently the volunteer watches the impact of services or the effects of gaps

in services on consumers as persons in a nontechnical way, he is likely to bring very practical, humane suggestions to the process of planning programs or delivery patterns for services. The supervisor may hold the key to his participation in the planning process at times when his contributions could be most influential. Such participation in planning and admittance to inner sanctums of administration is explicit recognition of the value of volunteer perspective and is inspiring to staff and volunteer alike. A heady experience for volunteers is to be invited to share their thinking with groups of professionals at their technical meetings. Sometimes seeing pros at work attracts student or housewife volunteers to those professions. For many, volunteering is an opportunity for career exploration. The loss of a volunteer is less disappointing when seen as the gain of an inspired new professional for human services which are always understaffed!

The supervisory relationship is essentially that of counselor-counseled. In the rehabilitation field, Charles Truax has identified three personality traits important to counseling effectiveness. He concludes that these traits are even more influential than technical knowledge: the counselor who has genuineness, the capacity for *accurate* empathy, and nonpossessive warmth is more effective in a helping relationship. These traits imply integrity and reliability, willingness to hear and care as well as to listen, and seeking independence rather than ego-serving dependence for volunteers. A supervisor's style is likely to be replicated by the supervisee when he progresses to the mentor stage himself. Thus, the style of supervision in an organization really sets its tone and aggregate personality. To Traux's triad, a wise psychiatrist advised me to add another, indispensible in this changing world: the ability to live with ambiguity and confusion, trusting spontaneous good will and common sense. Volunteers with supervisors like this will make our world a better place.

Chapter 5

THE MEANING OF PLANNING IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

HULDA F. HUBBELL

INTRODUCTION

OUR concern is with agencies, both public and private, and their approach to developing volunteer services. This approach may come from within or without, but real commitment is essential.

Communities are becoming increasingly aware of their problems through the efforts of citizen volunteers. Many organization, clubs, and groups can be valuable resources in helping to meet needs or in publicizing needs that are not being met. Planning their approach, knowing their own potential and researching the need are all important steps in the successful completion of a project.

Understanding the role of the citizen volunteer both in administration and direct service often presents a problem for the professional (and therefore, for the volunteer) who may have had little or no formal training in how to work with volunteers. However, there is evidence of progress with the rise of a new profession and increased understanding of volunteer – staff relationships.

Some examples of roles citizens play as volunteers in established and ever-expanding community programs illustrate the great potential "voluntarism" makes possible.

HOW AGENCIES APPROACH WORKING WITH VOLUNTEERS (– OR SHOULD)

The decision to integrate volunteers into an agency's service

program is an important one to all concerned. The pressure for this decision may come from within the agency itself or from the community at large.

Board and committee members, the administrative volunteers, may determine the need for involving individuals from the community: to help in meeting needs of the clientele to be served, to gain better community understanding of its program and to get additional financial support.

The staff may or may not have had a part in this action. In fact, they may resent and resist having nonprofessionals working with them. Conversely, they have agreed to commit themselves to examining their roles in relation to roles volunteers might assume and proceed to develop a realistic approach. The process may take time and it may be difficult, but it does prepare the way for developing each job, setting qualifications for the volunteers, gearing training programs to help the volunteer make his greatest contribution and gain the most satisfaction for his service.

Once the commitment has been made to initiate volunteer services, it must have total staff support — administrative, professional, clerical and maintenance.

Those receiving service, the clientele, may also wish to participate as volunteers. Here a different approach may be called for. Because these volunteers know the problems the agency is attempting to alleviate, orientation may be less formal and training may be in-service or on-the-job with careful supervision. They have the same need for self-fulfillment and the desire to learn how to help themselves, and others.

Since many agencies have developed decentralized neighborhood and satellite centers, this volunteer-client is a valuable resource who can more readily achieve rapport with recipients of the service.

A community welfare council may recommend expanding services with volunteers, especially when a proposed agency budget cannot be granted, for the services.

Other groups and organizations may bring pressure on agencies to perform services they feel are necessary to meet and help solve community problems.

Planning for volunteers involves structure. The appointment of

a professional staff member, a director or coordinator of volunteer services with responsibility full-time or part-time, is the first step in implementing a plan for the development of volunteer services within an agency's service program. Working with individual staff members to develop job descriptions, thinking through with each one the role of the volunteer in relation to his own, are essential elements in the development of the plan.

The director of volunteer services represents a new profession, preparation for which is only recently recognized as deserving of inclusion in the curriculum of both undergraduate and graduate schools.

The Volunteer Services Conference of the Health and Welfare Council (4), an organization of 180 members representing agencies and organizations in the National Capital Area employing directors of volunteers, conducted a study and met in workshops to develop a generic job description of —

DIRECTOR OR COORDINATOR OF VOLUNTEER SERVICES

General Description

Under general supervision of the agency Executive Director and in accordance with policies established by the Board and Administration is responsible for planning and organizing volunteer services to extend the agency's services to clients and patients.

Typical Duties and Responsibilities

The Director or Coordinator of Volunteer Services is responsible for: determining, in conjunction with appropriate staff members, what services can properly and effectively be performed by volunteers; developing job descriptions for specific duties; recruiting and orienting volunteers to meet the agency's stated needs; interviewing and assigning volunteers to specific jobs for which their skills, interests and background qualify them; arranging for training programs to enable volunteers to perform effectively under staff supervision; providing a handbook or

manual to provide interpretation of the agency's program and the role and obligation of the volunteer; working with staff to provide the proper supervision, evaluation and recognition of the volunteer's services; initiating and maintaining community contacts to interpret agency program and its needs; maintaining records and reporting to agency executive and/or committee on volunteer services; representing the agency in community activities and meetings; developing staff understanding of the role of volunteers in the agency's program; establishing an agency committee on volunteer services for guidance and support.

QUALIFICATIONS

1. Successful completion of study in an accredited college in a field of specialization appropriate for the agency program; progressively responsible experience in volunteer work; experience in supervision and management; special education and experience determined on the basis and size and complexity of the volunteer service to be directed.
2. Marked ability to establish and maintain satisfactory working relationships with others; ability to plan and direct work of others; skill in communication of ideas and the practice of public relations; knowledge of organizational techniques; and familiarity with the programs of the agency.

ORGANIZATION CHART

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┌────────────────────────┐          ┌────────────────────────┐
│   Board of the Agency   │──────────│   Executive Director    │
└────────────────────────┘          └────────────────────────┘
             ┊                                  ┊
┌────────────────────────────┐      ┌────────────────────────────────┐
│ Volunteer Services Committee │────│ Director of Volunteer Services  │
└────────────────────────────┘      └────────────────────────────────┘
             ┊
    ┌──────────────────┐
    │  Subcommittees    │
    └──────────────────┘
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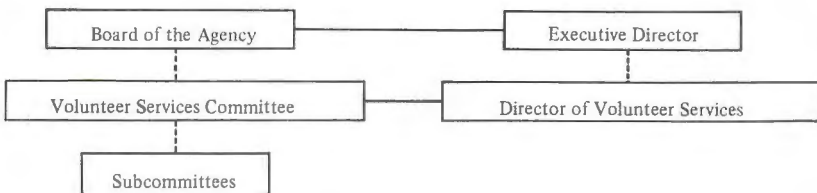
Volunteer Services Committee

This committee composed of representatives from the community can be invaluable, but its purpose and goal must be clearly defined. Determination should be made and understood

whether it is advisory and policy making or a working committee. The latter might require subcommittees and chairmen with well defined responsibilities.

ORGANIZATIONS AS POTENTIAL RESOURCES FOR VOLUNTEER SERVICES AND PROJECTS

Volunteers are people and people are everywhere. Many belong to associations, which perform some kind of service to humanity. This includes local affiliates of organizations having national service programs. The local chapters maintain close liaison and receive guidelines and direction from their national offices for programs and projects. Examples might include: The National Council of Jewish Women, the Junior League, the American Red Cross, Campfire Girls, the League of Women Voters, Jaycees and the Lions Club. Church groups, student groups in high schools and colleges, men's and women's service organizations, fraternal organizations, labor unions, foundations, community arts and athletic groups plus other special interest groups also represent vast potential resources.

1. *The National Center for Voluntary Action* maintains liaison and works with national organizations and agencies in publicizing and mobilizing their resources for helping to meet community needs. It also has developed a Clearing House or Data Bank of information on volunteer services and projects and has compiled materials relating to special interest areas. This material is available to groups and individuals seeking to enlarge their knowledge of community programs successfully meeting community needs.

2. *The Association of Volunteer Bureaus of America Inc.* organized since 1951 with 177 accredited local bureaus in the United States and Canada is also a tremendous resource for communities looking for assistance in developing volunteer services and for the individual searching for meaningful volunteer involvement.

Too often groups seek projects without adequate planning, group concensus or commitment. They often ignore the

interests of individual members, the size of the membership, its own financial resources or serious consideration of community needs. Others may be engaged in a similar project, thus research can avoid duplication and competition.

AN APPROACH TO PROJECT DEVELOPMENT

1. Appoint a projects research committee, individual members of which visit sites of proposed projects, interview staff and present a report of their findings and recommendations. *The National Center for Voluntary Action* – 1735 Eye St., N.W., Washington, D.C. 20006 (1). *The Association of Volunteer Bureaus of America Inc.* – 801 N. Fairfax St. Alexandria, Virginia – United Way of America (2).
2. Gain full commitment of membership and provide ample opportunity for discussion.
3. Organize and structure committees for implementation after interviewing and selecting members based upon special talents and interests.
4. Insure continuance of project after the demonstration or initial phase has been completed.
5. Assess and evaluate progress of project.
6. Develop record of procedures for documentary evidence or successful operations.
7. Issue report for membership and community.

There are many community programs and projects in which volunteer groups can become involved. In addition to the traditional agencies in health, welfare and recreation services, both voluntary and tax-supported, "self-help" programs and governmental programs such as *ACTION* (3). provide involvement and support for new experiences and challenge those with special skills and creative talents.

Some of the projects and programs in which groups can be involved concern themselves with:

Education –   keeping dropouts "in"
             preparing, repairing and securing educational
                  materials

giving extra individual attention to a child
    on   a one-to-one basis
developing and staffing school libraries
tutoring children and adults
raising funds for scholarships
developing pre-school programs

Employment —   setting up counseling programs
working with equal opportunity employers,
    job training and new career programs
advising and assisting the small business
    man
developing summer jobs

Ecology —   developing playgrounds and beautifying
    waste areas
advising local groups on pollution, sewage
    disposal
researching data on possible pollutants
organizing education projects on rat and
    pest control
conserving natural resources and creating
    wild life preserves and national monu-
    ments

Laws, Courts and Prevention of Delinquency and Crime —

giving free legal services and advice
working with probation officers as case
    aides and friends of the probationer on
    one-to-one basis
establishing visiting programs for men and
    women offenders
organizing volunteer services in the court
setting up rehabilitation, recreation for
    offenders
working to prevent juvenile delinquency

Housing —   renovating old and decayed neighborhoods.

buying up housing for improvement and nonprofit resale or rent to those with inadequate dwellings

participating in plans for relocation of displaced persons (owners and tenants)

working for fair housing laws

helping new tenants become oriented to modern appliances and new neighborhood facilities

advising prospective or new homeowners on financing mortages, insurance

counseling tenants on their rights in dealing with problems or maintenance or neglect

fostering forums for landlord-tenant relationships

helping to plan new towns and mobilizing citizens to take part in urban renewal

Other potential involvement —

sponsoring workshops for improving communication and cooperation among diverse ethnic, religious groups

organizing and staffing information centers, "hot lines"

developing friendly visitor services for the elderly, homebound and handicapped

serving "Meals on Wheels"

organizing or taking part in civil rights activities

highlighting problems in the community by organizing public hearings

ACTION administers the functions of the following programs:

—Volunteers in Service to America:VISTA volunteers work in

domestic poverty areas to help break the poverty cycle.

—Auxiliary and Special Volunteer Programs in the Office of Economic Opportunity: At Present the National Student Volunteer Program is administered under this authority. This program stimulates student voluntary action programs which deal with problems of the poor.

—Foster Grandparents: This program provides opportunities for the elderly to assist needy children.

—Retired Senior Volunteer Program: RSVP provides opportunities for retired persons to perform voluntary services in their communities.

—Service Corps of Retired Executives: SCORE provides opportunities for retired businessmen to assist in the development of small businesses.

—Active Corps of Executives: ACE provides opportunities for working businessmen to assist in the development of small business.

Further illustration of the recognized need to combine forces not only in service-oriented activities, but also in the effectuation of social changes needed in our society is one which recently appeared in the Washington Post. At a three day conference organized by the Center for a Voluntary Society* to discuss "Voluntarism and America's Future", two of the national organizations attending decided there should be more communication between them. It happened that the Junior League office and Girl Scout headquarters faced each other on the same street, but meeting together or planning programs together had never occurred.

THE ROLE OF CITIZENS IN COMMUNITY PLANNING

One question frequently asked locally and nationally is, "How many volunteers are there in the U.S.? It is difficult to guess or estimate since no one has succeeded in making a truly accurate count. It would be interesting if it were possible to analyze who these volunteers are, what age group

*Center for a Voluntary Society — 1507 M Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005

is most involved, how many are administrative volunteers (board and committee members) and how many are performing direct service or both.

However, we do know that Americans are characteristically jointers, form associations, create organizations and set up special interest groups. The stereotyped image of "Man or Lady Bountiful" and the privileged few is no longer a true reflection of today's volunteer. Reference has been made to this elsewhere in the chapter. We are therefore presenting some actual accounts of citizen involvement and the roles some of them have taken in community planning (5).

Volunteers in Courts and Corrections

A "Committee on Rehabilitation for Women Offenders" under the D. C. Commission on the Status of Women in the District of Columbia was formed to explore conditions, gather evidence and try to develop a plan for action. Information gathered about the Women's Detention Center and the Halfway House showed there was no provision for rehabilitation, no vocational programs and very limited recreational facilities. Conditions were not conducive to motivating inmates to improve in any way though the median education level was eleventh grade, social crimes the usual offenses and the average term from six months to one year. The Committee agreed that its efforts would be directed toward:

1. Orientation and training of staff to work with volunteers and at the appropriate time, volunteer training for the job to be done.
2. Program development and resources.
3. Follow-up of those on probation and release.

A few months later an Advisory Committee on Women and Girl Offenders was convened to propose methods of improving conditions of women and girl offenders. This committee recommended that a public hearing be held to focus community concern and applied to the D. C. Office of Criminal Justice Planning for funds to finance the hearing. Forces were combined and the hearings conducted by the D. C. Commission on the Status of Women did take place. Representatives of public and private

organizations and agencies, teachers, police, judges, probation officers, ex-convicts, civic organizations and private citizens testified for the purpose of gathering evidence to be used in making recommendations to the city council. After the problems, possible solutions and the facts are presented and discussed, reports will be circulated and "efforts made to stimulate local organizations to adopt various aspects of the problems as top priority concerns to which they might allocate volunteer resources."

A group known as *EFFEC, Inc.* (members of Effort From Ex-Convicts, Inc.) are recruiting children known to the court for participation in an art clinic. "Juveniles under the supervision of the Court, considered to be difficult need a lively and creative program to interest them" says the Administrator of the EFFEC Halfway House. He has succeeded in recruiting local artists of established reputation to volunteer their professional skills as teachers. Two classes of 15 students each are making efforts in writing, film making, photography and silk screen printing.

A program begun by volunteers in 1965 known as "Friends of the Juvenile Court" has grown from an all-volunteer operation to become an integral part of the court system with a paid Director of Volunteers. Her salary was originally made possible by a grant from a private organization, but she is now on the staff of the Court and serves under the Chief Administrator of the Court. Recently, the Juvenile Court became a branch of the Superior Court and under the reorganization of the courts, volunteers will serve throughout the system.

The most successful program to date is that of Volunteer Attorneys not yet practicing but admitted to the Bar, who represent persons in need of supervision (PINS). These men and women often work five days per week accompanying youngsters to court who have been negelcted, abused, abandoned or cited for truancy. Cases are referred by parents, schools and police. Third-year law students also work as volunteer investigative assistants. Judges treat the volunteer lawyers no differently than paid lawyers and those who fail to appear or are late to Court are cited for contempt.

Volunteer Services Center – D. C. Jail

The Volunteer Services Center is successfully operating another program initiated by chaplains who realized the terrible frustrations and concerns of inmates. Predominant concerns were problems of communicating with families, not knowing how they were managing, and being unable to get in touch with their court-appointed lawyers. Church groups became interested once they realized the problems and money came in from such organizations as the Lutheran Social Services, the Missionary Development Fund of the Episcopal Diocese, St. Vincent de Paul Society and Group Ministries on Capital Hill among others. Foundations contributed and LEAA granted matching funds. After one year in operation the Center is already assured of a second year!

During the first year of operation volunteers gave over 1800 hours in a variety of services. Typical were visits to inmates who give the program a high degree of acceptance. In addition, they perform simple tasks like letter writing, following up information, running errands, getting families to clinics and to the right agency for assistance. Volunteers are crises oriented – even to finding false teeth! In process of being formed is a club for mothers and wives.

Volunteers in Day Care

A fine example of cooperative effort took place in 1965 when citizens in the community of Glen Cove, New York, at the request of the local Economic Opportunity Committee set up a day care center. Members of the Junior League and four parent families with donations from the community fixed up an old settlement house and opened their doors to 25 children. EOC funds and additional financing from the Junior League made it possible to carry on the program and within a few months it was receiving 15 more children. Parent participation has been outstanding and responsibilities are shared with volunteers from the community.

Now, seven years later, plans are nearing completion for a new

building and a new operation. A kindergarten day care class, in one of the public school buildings is about to start. This was accomplished only through voluntarism.

Volunteers in Education

Some years ago a group of volunteers in the Washington Area began services to the public schools in a variety of programs. Some schools, particularly the junior high and elementary schools lacked libraries. Volunteers changed this by collecting, cataloging and repairing books. Funds were sought not only for books but for a Supervisor of School Libraries. They were truly successful and funds were forthcoming from an organization as a demonstration to show need for this professional staff member for a two-year period. Request for funding was included in the D.C. Budget and appropriation was made the following year.

The Urban Service Corps begun by volunteers, some of whom were tutors, is now staffed by an Assistant Superintendent of Schools and has a Coordinator of Volunteers.

In a nearby county volunteers were recruited by the Volunteer Coordinator to help children with special learning disabilities. Concerned parents felt the schools were not meeting the needs of children with dyslexia. These parents are now working on a national level and may have already completed a TV presentation to highlight action which must be taken for early detection of this problem.

In some communities schools have been successful in attracting volunteers with special talents and knowledge to be on call for lectures and demonstrations to enrich classroom studies. The volunteers were recruited as a result of a survey which netted scientists, artists, musicians and others who enthusiastically participate.

Volunteers in Social Action

Citizens who influence legislation and social action in a sense may be the most important volunteers of all to the community and nation. The roles citizens play to some degree accomplish this

and effect important changes in our institutions.

We should however, mention the many community welfare councils with social legislation committees, members of which study federal and/or state legislation, gather facts, discuss appropriate action and present testimony before boards and committees which they can appropriately influence.

Membership and budget committees of local health & welfare councils also have impact on social action in the community. In the national capital area this committee has some 200 volunteers, community leaders, representing the six-member council in Virginia, Maryland and the District of Columbia on 11 subcommittees where agency eligibiity and allocation of funds is determined. The committee also approves or disapproves the admission of agencies for membership to the Council.

The Student Volunteer

It is important to call attention to this age group who contribute so much to the volunteer movement. During the school and college spring holiday, thousands across the nation register with a community volunteer bureau, a voluntary action center or an agency of their choice to assure themselves of a volunteer job experience during the summer months. Too many wait until family or vacation plans are finalized, only to find that many desired opportunities are closed and the jobs they wanted already filled.

Young people with real dedication and enthusiasm give from four to forty hours per week stepping into assignments which the so-called regular or older volunteer fulfills during the school year. During the summer they explore career interests and gain valuable experience and skills which can help qualify them for paid employment or college acceptance, later.

Evaluations by supervisors are very positive with little exception and the student evaluations enthusiastic where supervision has been readily available and the program well structured.

The Role of the Good Citizen

One of the obligations of good citizenship is service to the community.

"The good community cannot be created by a junto of busybodies, but it does need the services of a lot of busy people. There is no galaxy of experts competent to build a good community. It is necessary to make proper use of expert knowledge while preserving control by the people" (6).

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Chapter 6

THE RECONCILING OF COMMUNITY CONFLICT

WILLIAM W. BIDDLE

THE reconciliation of community conflicts is seldom spontaneous. Some person or group is necessary to bring disputants together and to arrive at a negotiated settlement.

Because a local social atmosphere is superficially calm, it is often assumed that persons and factions are not striving against each other. In most communities, such an assumption is incorrect; most of them are filled with forces striving against each other. The apparent social calm often hides a seething discontent and the unpleasantness of conflict.

Certain community organizers hold to the conviction that their task is to exacerbate or stir up social disputes. They hold that a community organization is meant to create conflict, to bring about a confrontation between the forces of righteousness ("our" side) and the forces of evil ("our" opponents). The purpose is to seek (political) power in order to crush villainous adversaries. These organizers seem to assume that once a confrontation has occurred in an open clash of adversaries, the way to a reconciliation is made easy. Nothing is further from the truth. Any resolution of the adversaries in confrontation is likely to produce further estrangement, unless someone skilled in the arts of compromise brings the confronting forces into a mutually satisfactory harmony.

Our purpose in this chapter is to inquire into those arts of compromise so that forces in conflict can find solutions to their disputes. Or even better, a new formulation can be reached whereby a new understanding or way of life is created as a result of reconciliation.

THE NUCLEUS

An individual can act as agent for reconciliation, but the impact of a single person is limited. Better is a social organization made up of several individuals who can act as reconcilers. Such an organization we shall refer to as a "nucleus." There are two kinds of nuclei: a basic nucleus which is related to a small population, a city block, a rural hamlet, and so on, and a larger community nucleus, related to a neighborhood or small city.* Both of these are made up of persons of good will, who are willing to give time to the cultivation of the arts of reconciliation.

The process has to be experienced to be understood. No verbal description will suffice. Be it said though, that we are talking about an educational process, in which learners educate themselves by mutual seeking for solutions to problems. An encourager who may have started the process becomes a member of the group and benefits also from the experience.

Experience in a basic nucleus provides a pattern for the larger community nucleus, and offers a first step in learning the arts of reconciliation. It is made up of citizens who come together for the purpose of finding an answer to some local problem. Their success in discussing and putting into action their concern for the first problem usually results in the shifting of interest to other more complicated problems. A feeling of competence to cope with easy problems is transferable to the larger and more difficult worries.

Although group members come together around a commonly-accepted problem, no effort should be made to recruit members who are all of one mind. On the contrary, it is wise to welcome as many different points of view as possible. The ultimate solution sought grows out of a clash of opinions over alternative solutions to be examined. The goal sought is not so much a "correct" solution to the problem as it is the growth of friendship and warmth of fellowship that grows out of experience together. The group atmosphere which develops out of such experience is one that is known to sociologists as the atmosphere of a primary group. The essential thing is the friendship and mutual acceptance

*For a full scale consideration of these concepts, see Biddle, William W. and Loureide J. *The Community Development Process,* New York, 1965. Holt, Rinehart and Winston.

of others, in spite of differences of opinion. Members teach themselves and each other the practicality of agreeing on specific action, while welcoming the continuation of differences of fundamental points of view. Indeed, the specific solutions to many problems depends upon variety in belief in a plurality of loyalties of members.

It is hard to visualize a basic nucleus without the initiative of an encourager. His (or her) role is a paradoxical one. He assumes responsibility for bringing a nucleus into being, but, by intention refuses to dominate it. His function is to start a process which, from the beginning, follows the logic of its own functioning. He starts and encourages a process of self-guided educational growth. He has faith in people, that they possess latent capabilities and that the process will awaken and educate.

Some of the fundamentals of reconciliation are learned in a basic nucleus. A member learns quickly that people of different religious persuasions, or none at all, Protestants, Catholics, Jews, and agnostics can be friends in common endeavor. None of them surrender affiliation and there is no pressure to do so. Instead, each proudly acknowledges his background in order to discover that people who differ can be friends. The same is true of racial differences, blacks, whites, Chicanos, American Indians, and so on, can cooperate without losing the uniqueness of their own backgrounds. And so, for any other differences that ordinarily separate people from each other.

Experience in a nucleus tends to develop attitudes and behaviors that are necessary to community reconciliation. Members tend to discover that people can differ and still be friends. They discover that people can unite in some mutually desired action while still holding to the differences that make them unique and interesting. In the warmth of a basic nucleus people tend to overcome both the separation and the alienation that makes them doubtful about their own identity. This discovery acts as a pattern for a larger community nucleus.

Typically a basic nucleus is made up of friends and neighbors, while a community nucleus is made up of the many varying interests and points of view in a neighborhood, small city, or rural area. Although it should be representative, it works best if it is not

a coming together of official delegates. Variety of backgrounds characterize the memberships, but they are united in the desire to serve the common good.

Seldom will an already existing community organization serve the desired purpose. A council of social agencies tends to act as a clearinghouse for welfare services. It may be no more than a money-raising association. It is too much proagency to be nonpartisan for the good of everyone. A council of churches or pastors is too much concerned with the growth and maintenance of congregations. A chamber of commerce also is probusiness, while a council of labor unions is proorganized worker, and so on. To be most effective, a community nucleus needs to be perceived as nonpartisan, but faithfully devoted to the enhanced good of all. Any of the above communities bodies can help set up a community nucleus, but is not one in itself. And certainly, for a successful outcome, members should come from all the named bodies, social agencies, churches (not just one denomination), chambers of commerce, labor unions (not just one union), and other organizations that can address themselves to community improvement.

As in the case of a basic nucleus, an encourager of social processes is needed. It is he (or she) who encourages a few to form and enlarge a community nucleus. It is he who keeps in mind the necessity for all important community interests to be found in the membership, lest a built-in opposition threaten to destroy the work it can do.

Typically a larger community nucleus lacks the warmth of intimate friendship that characterizes the smaller body, but members are friendly and tolerant of the backgrounds of all other members. In fact, this central body that serves the entire community does more than tolerate differences: it seeks out the points of friction and tries to alleviate ills before they come to a crisis.

A community nucleus needs to be perceived as a place where discontents are aired, and action taken to correct these grievances. One principal of a city elementary school stated it well, "It is good to have an organization to which problems with students and parents can be referred, with the full knowledge that something

will be done to correct the condition."

But in order to maintain its status in the community, a larger nucleus must remain nonpartisan in politics, religion and in the local disputes that tend to pull a community apart. It remains "above the battle," but committed to the over all good for everyone. As such, it can become an instrument for local reconsolidation.

It is with the larger community nucleus that we are mainly concerned in problems of local conflict. But some of the lessons learned in the basic nucleus must be kept in mind, especially that it is possible to differ with other people and yet be friends.

WITHIN THE NUCLEUS

There are two kinds of community disputes that call for community development attention. First are those that are internal to, or can be made internal to, the nucleus. Second are those which external conflicts in which the community nucleus can act as mediator.

In a small rural hamlet, a citizens' community council (nucleus) was deciding to erect a new high school. In the early stages of decision, an opposition had developed on the claim that a new school building would increase the tax rate. The chief spokesman for the opposition was invited into the discussion of a meeting. He stated his objections. These were discussed dispassionately, and the decision was reached to go ahead with the project, even if it did mean higher taxes. The spokesman left, discontented but mollified because he had been heard.

When the council went ahead with construction of the school, it turned out that the cost to taxpayers was less than predicted. This was accomplished partly by citizens working cooperatively to paint, lay floor tiles, install equipment and so on. The conflict was resolved by bringing the dispute right into the nucleus body. The opposition was partially satisfied by being heard.

In a small city, a community nucleus was set up to better relationships between blacks and whites. At the time of formation, the encourager asked if they wished to have officers equally distributed between the races. The response was, "No, we prefer

to choose whoever is best qualified." The members of the incipient group were freer from racial prejudice than was the encourager.

Despite the original purpose, conflicts between the races, and other minorities were frequent. At one point, black members, having a captive audience, insisted upon orating at length about the injustices they and their fathers before them had suffered. Their complaining became so eloquent and time-consuming that the whites became bored and stayed away from meetings. At this point other blacks were prevailed upon to recommend some self-restraint. After all, their points of complaint had been adequately covered. The problem now was to get down to the serious business of bringing recognition and opportunity to present day blacks. The blacks held their tongues and the nucleus was able to go forward with its self-assumed obligation of finding better homes and opening up employment for minorities.

A neighborhood of a large city was plagued by racial conflicts. It was a typical neighborhood in transition from a white home residential section to a black ghetto. "Block busters" had persuaded white home owners to sell their homes at a loss in order to get out before the ghetto overwhelmed them. Then these bargain homes would be sold to blacks at inflated prices. There was bad blood on both sides. There had been some scare and threatening phone calls, and threats of bombing.

A group of citizens, urged by an encourager, banded together as a community (neighborhood nucleus) council. Their express purpose was to keep their neighborhood as a desirable home section welcome to families of both races. They were interracial from the start. They chose two chairmen from each race to act as co-chairman, an unwise decision as later events made clear. It was their intention to draw the conflicts right into the nucleus group.

For a time period of over a year the council fared well. The two races worked side by side to save an undeveloped park from becoming a parking lot for a supermarket and opened a program of supervised recreation in it. But as time went on, it became apparent that there were social tensions that were not openly expressed; whites wanted an educational program, block by block, to introduce the idea of friendship between races. Blacks were

ambivalent. They too wanted an educational program, but felt that an assurance of good homes for Negroes took priority over all purposes. They were torn between a desire for an integrated neighborhood (which kept whites in residence) and a desire for more good homes for blacks (which meant ousting many white families).

There were many ramifications of the conflict too numerous to list here. At last, however, the dispute came out into the open at a meeting which resulted in an emotional rupture, rival name-calling, and a disintegration of the group. Bringing conflict into the nucleus resulted not in greater tolerance, but in the break-up of interracial friendship.

After a few months to "cool off," the encourager talked with both sides, finding that there was still a great desire to come together, despite misunderstandings. They finally came together, with the encourager as mediator of the conflict. They reconstituted the group, chose one chairman at a time, and once again plunged into the work of making their neighborhood into a good place for homes.

When members of the neighborhood nucleus reconstituted the council, they started again to do the work of reconciliation. They formed a welcoming committee to offer friendship to any newcomer family, white or black. They took care of several episodes of racial bigotry, inducing a neighbor to remove offensive signs on his front lawn, cleaning up the swastikas that were painted on a house just before a black family was to move in.

One particular episode illustrated the kind of positive action a nucleus can undertake. A black truck owner, living in the neighborhood, was in the business of renting his trucks for commercial hauling. He parked his trucks at the curbs near his home. In addition to taking up parking space, his trucks were often dirty and ill-smelling from having hauled manure or fertilizer. This encouraged flies and added to the unsightliness of the vehicles in a residential section.

The nucleus group discussed this problem and finally appointed a committee of both blacks and whites to call upon the owner to see if some way could be found for eliminating the nuisance. Committee members were very hesitant to approach the man,

fearing a response of indignation and anger. By approaching him, however, on a neighbor-to-neighbor basis the committee was favorably surprised by his readiness to admit his fault. He called upon the committee to help him find a better parking space, in addition to cleaning up his trucks. A vacant lot was found, and the owner was glad to rent its use for a nominal fee. The conflict (partly racial) was resolved by an active good will in the nucleus that met the problem head on.

In continuation of the nucleus group, several of the original members were unable to forget the hard words that had been spoken in the heat of name-calling. These gradually dropped out, both blacks and whites. Their places were taken up by others who carried on the reconciling work. The function of the neighborhood was not lost, but some of the members were. Is reconciliation likely to be bought at the price of losing persons who cannot go along with the negotiated settlement? We have no answer to this question.

One lesson could be learned from the experience: Reconciliation does not come easily. Someone is required to help heal breaches of misunderstanding. Is this the encourager? Or may it be one or two members of the group? This is a question to be researched.

OUTSIDE THE NUCLEUS

Most discussion of community reconciliation refers to conflicts which cannot be or are not handled within the nucleus group. The nucleus is called upon to become the conciliator.

In a city which is part of a metropolitan sprawl that involved three states, a community nucleus had been formed. Its purpose was announced as that of working on all kinds of local betterment.

Shortly after formation a municipal election was to take place. Members of the nucleus wanted to put its weight on the side of good government without becoming politically partisan. They dreamed up the idea of writing an open letter to be published by the local newspaper. It asked how each candidate for mayor and councilman would handle the problems if elected. They decided to limit their attention to certain specific issues rather than spread

their influence too thin. The areas chosen were: Ancient buses that hauled school children daily and were a hazard to all riders; better schools; bad and dangerous housing, recreation for both children and adults; and improvements in the library.

They suspected that the incumbent mayor and his council supporters were dishonest, but they made no attempt to challenge them since nonpartisanship was their ideal. Some years later the mayor and his cronies were elected out of office, with accusations of dishonesty made by an opposing political party. The initiative to oust the incumbents was not traceable to the group, but group members were active as individuals – a most delicate position to hold.

When their open letter to candidates was read by the general public, the incumbent mayor and his supporters, up for re-election, asked for an opportunity to meet the nucleus group and answer questions. When other candidates heard of this request, they asked for the same privilege. Ultimately all candidates for municipal office met with the nucleus group for similar question and answer meetings.

Perhaps the most significant meeting was that with the incumbent candidates seeking re-election. At this session, the mayor to be re-elected promised he would make progress in meeting the named problems, and asked for help from the citizen group. He and his supporters were re-elected. After the election the mayor asked the nucleus to ride buses and give him the name of operator, date of the infraction of the law, and nature of the infraction. With such information in hand, the city attorney was able to prosecute bus drivers and to force them to operate safe buses. In time the several bus owners and operators were replaced by another company that operated with safety for school children.

Attention then turned to bad housing. Once again the mayor called upon the nucleus to help him. He asked for names, dates and photographs of unsafe housing – especially photos of uncollected garbage, unsanitary toilets, peeling plaster, and so on. He especially wanted names and location of episodes when children had been bitten by the rats that lived on accumulations of garbage.

Solution of the bad housing proved to be more complicated

than unsafe buses. But on the basis of information supplied by nucleus members, the city attorney was able to correct the worst of slum housing. But the problem of tearing down and replacing ghetto housing seemed beyond the initiative of city officials. However, they were able to put in requests for federal aid and for rehabilitation of slums. Some work was done on demolition of the worst dwellings with federal funding, followed by rebuilding.

The nucleus itself did not challenge slum landlords. They supplied the information on the basis of which public officials could prosecute. It did not order demolition nor make appeals for federal funds to replace the worst housing. The nucleus served its function of alerting public opinion and public officials to do something about unhealthy and dangerous situations. The actual solution of problems was left to city government and later to a newly-formed housing authority.

On the matter of improving education, the nucleus was not so successful. Actually, there were few conflicts to mediate. Schools were deficient, as were recreational programs handled by the board of education. But the public was ill-informed or indifferent. The function open to nucleus members was to discover and publicize the deficiences, in the hope of getting some action. The nucleus stood ready to mediate conflict whenever it arose.

As part of its campaign of discovering deficiencies, the nucleus began attending meetings of the board of education. Such actions alarmed the members of the board, all appointed by the mayor with the concurrence of the city council. So great was the board's alarm, it started changing hours of meetings, going into executive sessions and other devices to discourage attendance of nucleus members. These members began wondering if there might be some corruption which the board was trying to hide. In any case, nucleus members kept on attending meetings of the board to let their pressure become an active inquiry into the business of education.

During the period when the most work was done to reconcile conflicts, a young businessman was chairman. When he left to obtain an advanced degree from a university, the nucleus elected a representative of an ethnic minority as chairman. This seemed a wise move until this chairman decided to use his position to come

out in favor of a particular candidate for governor. By his action he committed the entire nucleus to certain political outcomes against the wishes of most members. His action broke up the group for a time. It had to be reconstituted without this man as chairman. In fact, he ceased to attend meetings. The blow to the nucleus was doubly devastating when the ex-chairman's candidate was defeated at the polls. The group was never able to recover and to be as effective as it had been.

One of the interesting by-products found in a nucleus experience when attention is addressed to external community problems is that members of the group find themselves changing toward prosocial habits. A neighborhood council was developed in a city, coming together initially to provide better facilities for children and young people. The instigators of the group quickly found themselves in the midst of numerous conflicts. These were exaggerated by the fact that their neighborhood was a low income section of the city. White and black people harbored animosities. There were other ethnic minorities, Italians, Greeks, Mexicans and others. Black people and whites who lived in the neighborhood were looked down upon by more affluent people in other parts of the city. From the beginning membership on the council was open to all races and religious affiliations.

As part of the need to represent all important social forces, a nucleus member called upon the owner and publisher of the city's one newspaper. The editorial policy was known to be conservative, so members wished to avoid at least unfavorable publicity.

The editor and publisher agreed to avoid unfavorable publicity in exchange for a promise to give his paper first priority on any news event. But he said, "You know you are playing with dynamite on racial problems." "Yes," the member replied, "I suppose so, but we will take this responsibility on ourselves." The editor was as good as his word. Stories about the group and its activities were given favorable coverage.

The first task for the neighborhood council was the preparation of vacant land to make a recreation park. Members obtained permission from a well-to-do landlord who agreed to free use of his property for a number of years until he planned to put an industry in the area. He later became a member of the council and

joined in decisions that affected his property and other matters of concern.

Some hundreds of people in the slum area joined hands in work to turn the vacant land into a playground. Citizens leveled the property, a former city dump, and erected baseball back stops, volley ball courts, sand boxes and slides for the small children, and barbecue fire places for picnics. All this improvement was paid for by the council which learned early the difficult art of money-raising. Later they appealed to the community fund for money to employ recreation supervisors. Still later they decided this was a matter for their own responsibility.

Over the years the council served many causes. After recreation they turned to education, offering their services to the public school in this section of the city. The principal joined the group in stopping vandalism and destruction of school property. Then they turned to housing, managing to make up teams which would paint a house, repair a roof or broken stairway or a cement sidewalk. Most members of the council were labor union members also so it became easy to obtain approval for amateur jobs that would not otherwise be done. They did not make any proposals for slum clearance and building with federal funds. This was a matter for city government with these members pressing for such action. In this they created public interest to meet the needs of the poor, another example of affecting controversies that were external to the group.

Early in the life of the council, members began to learn the delicate arts of money-raising. Various members did all they could, but they needed one person to head up this activity. They finally persuaded a black truck driver to appeal to a local merchant for a watermelon to be sliced up for sale at twenty-five cents a piece. The truck driver was most reluctant to take on such a responsibility, but finally acquiesced, since everyone else had some assignment. He came back from his first venture, not with one melon, but with twelve. His next effort was the obtaining of 20 cases of soft drinks rather than one. His career as a money-raiser began. He had or developed a remarkable skill at such work, never having dreamed that he had or could acquire such talent. He became money-raiser-in-chief. As a result of these changes in

himself, he was put on the board of a neighborhood settlement house. Still later he was chosen to become a member and money-raiser for a city-wide Human Relations Council, and all the time he was and still is, a truck-driver, poorly educated and in a humble field of work.

Members of the council tried to discover what was the secret of his success. The best they could discover was that he offered donors a chance to serve the community and he had a most disarming smile that was good even when he was turned down. He created friendships and confidence in himself and in any enterprise he was affiliated with.

His fund-raising skill was shown in an amusing episode. The encourager received a phone call one day from the president of a wholesale baking company. He had, he said, a request from the truck driver for a gift of 100 dozen hamburger rolls. Didn't this sound a little excessive? "Don't get me wrong," he said, "We are willing to make the donation, but I wondered if there had been some mistake." The encourager assured him that he had no knowledge of the request. (He did not follow nucleus members around to see what they were doing.) He would investigate and call back.

He discovered that the request had been for 100 rolls. In the intracacies of business management this more modest figure had been translated into 100 dozen. The truck driver still had his magic touch.

Council members made a remarkable discovery, while they pursued community improvement work together, their separations, racial, religious, poor versus rich and so on were forgotten. They came to deal with each other as fellow human beings, not as members of some hated or feared category of humanity. They overcame some of their prejudices.

One episode indicates the impact of the nucleus on outside activities. The beginning playground had certain equipment, bats and balls, and so on. These remained safe until one day when a boy stole one bat and ball. Nucleus members refused to report the theft to the police. They called upon the boy to explain that he had stolen from all the community; he surely did not want to place his good ahead of all others. The boy agreed, returned the

stolen property, and there was no further stealing.

A clear-cut example of the trend away from prejudice was found in the case of the chairman of the council. He was a white factory worker. After five years of operation, this chairman found himself in a reminiscent mood one day. He starting talking about the many worries and triumphs of the years. He became more specific in telling how his wife had come to associate with blacks after having feared them for a long time. In fact, she had held to most of the cliches of prejudice of white people toward blacks but now she knew them as friends, working in their kitchens and they in hers, to prepare food for bake sales to raise money. The encourager marveled at the way the chairman expressed approval for prosocial changes in his wife. Was the speaker describing himself as well as his wife?

"Say," the chairman said suddenly, "Have you been workin' on us to get us to change this way?" The encourager, taken aback by such a question, decided to take refuge in truth. "Yes," he said, "I have been hoping to see such prosocial changes. But please note that you have changed yourselves. No one pressured you."

"Yes, I guess you are right," replied the chairman, "I think we are all better off as a result. Now we are friends instead of enemies." The chairman, as had others (less articulate), discovered that all the members had revised their concepts of themselves and of each other. This was a product of the process, not a teaching of ethical standards, or of preaching.

Because of outstanding success in reconciling racial conflicts, the neighborhood nucleus encouraged responsible citizens to form a city-wide human relations council. This broader nucleus started with the intention of reconciling conflicts that a neighborhood body could scarcely attempt.

Racial tensions were high and increasing in the city. Blacks resented the discrimination from which they suffered and many whites wanted merely to keep these "second-class citizens" in "their place." Any reconciliation would mean doing away with the discriminations.

A first place to start was in the motion picture theatres. These all had a special section set aside, in the balcony, for blacks. White people on the nucleus who knew managers and owners appealed to

these controllers of custom in the theatres to open their doors to all, irrespective of skin color, so that blacks could sit wherever they wished. One by one the managers agreed to eliminate the "Jim Crow" balcony. Finally all theatres were open to all who had the price of admission. Apparently the changes grew out the fact that white people managers admired personally requested an end to this discrimination. Quietly announcement was made to black citizens. There were no headlines in the newspapers.

Emboldened by this success, the nucleus turned attention to the city's restaurants. Again, one by one, owners and managers were approached on a friendly basis. And one by one the policy was changed to welcome blacks. As each eating place changed policy, quiet announcement was made to the city's blacks. As a result of one such announcement, two militant blacks went into a newly integrated restaurant, seated themselves at a table quite visible from the street, and drank two cups of coffee while spending more than an hour's time. The owner and manager received numerous phone calls from regular customers while the two were seated there, expressing indignation that he was now serving "niggers." The manager was harassed but remained faithful to his promise. However he complained to members of the community nucleus. Some of them remonstrated with the two blacks, pointing out that they had hurt a new-found friend. The two carried the complaint back to blacks who had been instrumental in opening up this particular eating place. Thereupon a breach of understanding threatened within the nucleus, temporarily splitting blacks from whites. The blacks, having blown off emotional steam, finally agreed that the two (not nucleus members) had been unfair to the restaurant keeper. He, by the way, kept his place open to blacks and suffered no diminution of business by his change of policy.

One restaurant remained adamant in refusing to serve blacks. This place was one of the largest in the city. It became a target for pressure from the militants. After a particularly unpleasant episode in which several of them went into the place of business and arose to make speeches to other diners about the way they were being mistreated, the manager appealed to the nucleus to find some way to "get these kids off my neck." By this time the nucleus had become known throughout the city as a conciliator of

conflict, so the manager appealed to them.

At his request, two nucleus members came to talk with him about his problem. First, these two assured the manager that they had no desire to put him out of business; they wanted him to prosper. Then they challenged him to try out an experiment; let him open his doors to all comers for one month while he kept records of the way his business was going. The manager agreed, but only after the nucleus agreed to bring in clean, well-dressed blacks during the month. He wanted to be sure that the "hoodlum element" would not take over his place of business. Nice blacks were to be welcome for a month at least. Nucleus members brought their black friends to eat at the restaurant.

At the end of the month, the manager found that his business had not dropped off, nor had it improved much. Thereafter he agreed to welcome all comers. He only reserved the right to refuse service to dirty, noisy people, who might be either black or white. Again, none of the negotiating was accorded headlines in the newspapers.

Apparently, the reconciliation took place because a community nucleus, speaking for fairness and democracy, was able to negotiate with discriminating places of business. Quietly, the theatres and restaurants were open to all. Later, by proclamation, the state governor insisted that all places of public service were to be open to everyone. When this occurred, there was no local antagonism against the governor's order because owners and managers had already taken this step by their own choosing.

As much as an encourager and a community nucleus may strive for community improvement, they are also participants in a process that tends to make them more prosocial – including also the encourager. The important thing is the process of self-induced development. All participants tended to become masters of their own self-change.

To what extent are developments found in nucleus members reflected in nonmembers? No one knows for sure. There is some evidence leading to the hypothesis that a general social atmosphere can be changed by the actions of a community nucleus. However, much more experimentation and the keeping of careful records is needed to supply a definitive answer.

RECONCILIATION IS AN ART

Reconciliation is a difficult art to be cultivated; it does not come easily. There seems to be no way of cultivating except by practice. Community Development supplies that opportunity at the local level.

Two requirements seem imperative: knowledge of pertinent facts and a determined but practical good will. Those who wish to cultivate this art in ordinary people will look to both.

Part III

Research and Communication Needs in Voluntary Action
The Future of Volunteer Action

RESEARCH AND COMMUNICATION NEEDS IN VOLUNTARY ACTION

DAVID HORTON SMITH

THE NATURE OF VOLUNTARY ACTION: AN INTRODUCTION

Before it is possible to understand the research and communication needs of the field of voluntary action, one must have an adequately broad definition of the field as well as some sense of the recent history of research and communication in this field. As we shall use the term, "voluntary action" refers to those kinds of human activity, whether individual or collective (i.e. performed by groups), that are performed primarily for reasons *other than* (a) the expectation of direct remuneration (pay, profits, etc.), (b) the coercion of law, custom, physical force, economic threats, or other sociopolitical force, or (c) the compulsion of physiological needs. Thus, voluntary action is generally aimed at goals beyond the necessities of life. It may well be said that voluntary action is what makes life worthwhile, tends to improve human life and society, brings us joy and satisfaction, and helps us transcend ourselves in some form of higher self-expression and self-realization. In a few words, voluntary action is human activity aimed primarily at psychic benefits and larger goals, rather than being directed primarily by remuneration, coercion, or compulsion (1).

But let us be more specific; what are the main forms of voluntary action that can be distinguished? When a broad view is taken, at least five main types of voluntary action can be distinguished, each with corresponding types of individual "volunteers" (though they would not always call themselves

volunteers) and various kinds of groups and organizations (2).

1. *Service-oriented voluntarism* is that form of voluntary action that is primarily dedicated to helping others or doing things for others (e.g. the Red Cross, court volunteers, hospital volunteers, etc.). This is the most traditional form of voluntarism, and the usual one that comes to mind for most people when voluntary action is mentioned. However, there are many changes taking place in voluntarism today so that the dominance of this particular form of voluntarism is being increasingly challenged. This challenge comes from two directions. First, there is an increasing emphasis by the disadvantaged, the minority groups, the disabled or sick, the socially deviant, etc., on *helping themselves* rather than being helped by others who may or may not understand their problems and may or may not in fact be able to help them in any basic way. At the very least there is a trend away from the concept of "doing for" toward the concepts of "doing with" and "helping to help themselves." The second kind of challenge comes from issue-oriented or cause-oriented voluntarism, which is increasingly making the case that many kinds of service-oriented voluntarism only tackle the symptoms of problems, rather than rooting out their causes.

2. *Issue-oriented or cause-oriented voluntarism* is that form of voluntary action that is primarily directed at some kind of public issue, usually at making some kind of change in society or the biophysical environment (e.g. consumerism, environmental protection groups, Common Cause, black power groups, etc.). The changes focused on may be very broad and humanitarian ones approached by way of public information and educational campaigns (e.g. various birth control, population growth, and planned parenthood groups). Or the issue/change may be one that is up for a vote in a local, state, or national election, as in the volunteer activities of political campaign workers, whether working for a particular candidate or an issue. The more active forms of cause-oriented voluntarism, however, are focused on more substantial forms of change in our society or world. There is today a whole array of public issues (racism, women's rights, equality, justice, opportunity, law and order, consumer protection, environmental protection, war and peace, etc.) on which

various kinds of voluntary groups and highly dedicated volunteers are focusing their energies.

3. *Consummatory or self-expressive voluntarism* is that form of voluntary action that is primarily aimed at enjoyment of activities for their own sake and for the sake of personal self-expression and self-realization, without any major focus on altruism or external goals (e.g. country clubs, little theatre groups, social clubs, garden clubs, bowling leagues, etc.). Many people who are part of service-oriented or issue-oriented voluntarism tend to ignore or deprecate the value of such organizations, holding to a narrower view of "voluntarism." Yet, in point of fact, the dividing line between consummatory/self-expressive voluntarism and other forms is not as clear as many would like to think, nor is the present form of voluntarism without important functions in society. We use the term "consummatory" here to convey a sense of things being done for their own sake, much as food or drink might be consumed for their own sake.

Consummatory voluntarism must be seen as part of the total picture of voluntary action for a variety of reasons. First, from both a scientific and a practical standpoint, there are many more similarities than differences in how consummatory voluntarism and other forms of voluntarism operate in terms of their basic structure and functioning. (In spite of differing goals, they all have a normative-voluntary compliance structure as a way of getting people to do things, rather than using force or remuneration.) Further, there are secondary consummatory and self-expressive functions of the *other* forms of voluntarism, just as there may be some secondary service-oriented or issue-oriented functions of primarily consummatory voluntarism (e.g. service-oriented volunteers *may* be getting more personal enjoyment and satisfaction out of their activity than they are providing any meaningful service to the people they are trying to help). However, most people engaged in consummatory voluntary action do not consider themselves "volunteers," the latter term being usually applied to people engaged in service-oriented or issue-oriented voluntarism. People involved in the present and the subsequent form of voluntarism simply consider themselves "members" of a particular voluntary group.

4. *Occupational/economic self-interest voluntarism* is that form of voluntary action that is primarily aimed at furthering the occupational and/or economic interests of its participants (e.g. trade unions, professional associations, businessmen's groups, etc.). This kind of activity must also be seen as a part of the broad picture of voluntary action because, again, it operates in a similar manner to other forms of voluntarism and because most other forms of voluntarism have some secondary elements of economic self-interest in them, just as the present form has some secondary elements of issue-oriented, service-oriented, and consummatory voluntarism within it (e.g. many occupational self-interest groups take stands on public issues or operate service-volunteer programs, just as they also have recreational, social, and self-expressive activities). The occupational/economic self-interest voluntary group is definitely *not* a profit-making organization, however; its members in fact pay dues to belong, rather than being themselves paid for participation. The kinds of economic benefits received are generally *long-term possibilities* of doing more and better business; obtaining more and better fees, wages, salaries, fringe benefits, etc.; protecting the standards and the supply/demand of one's occupational specialty; obtaining useful information; making useful contacts; etc. None of these is *direct, high probability remuneration for participation;* hence, participation in such groups qualifies as voluntary activity. Finally it should be noted that in their early days, trade unions were in the forefront of service-oriented and issue-oriented voluntarism, striving to improve the poor working conditions, payment and quality of life of the skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled laborer.

5. *Philanthropic/Funding Voluntarism* is that form of voluntarism that is primarily aimed at raising and/or distributing funds to nonprofit and voluntary organizations of all kinds in order to further philanthropic purposes in such areas as health, welfare, education, religion, politics, environment, etc. (e.g. the local United Fund or equivalent, disaster fund raising groups, the March of Dimes, philanthropic foundations, etc.). Most of the voluntary organizations falling into the four previous categories of voluntarism do attempt to raise some funds for their own operations and expenses. The present category of voluntarism is distinctive by

virtue of placing its *primary* emphasis on raising and/or distributing funds explicitly for philanthropic or voluntary action purposes. Yet, the present type of voluntarism is only secondarily concerned (if at all) with the direct performance of service-oriented, issue-oriented or consummatory voluntary action, preferring instead to serve as a facilitator (and a "fuel") of more direct action through its funding activities.

Having sketched out the major *substantive types of voluntarism,* in terms of types of goals sought, we shall now briefly note also some of the various *social structural forms of voluntarism.* By "social structural forms" here we mean the ways in which one or more individuals attempt to pursue *any* substantive type of voluntarism in various types of social settings or situational contexts. Another way of referring to these social structural forms of voluntarism is to call them "system levels" of voluntary action. Among the most important structural forms or system levels of voluntarism are the following (3):

(a) The *voluntary act* is the most basic structural form, referring to some specific act by an individual or group that qualifies as voluntary action in terms of earlier definitions (e.g. a person stopping to help an accident victim, a "volunteer in education" tutoring a disadvantaged child, a member of Zero Population Growth distributing birth control literature in her neighborhood, a charitable foundation making a grant to a local Boy's Club, etc.).

(b) The *voluntary role* at the next higher level refers a set of normative expectations regarding a series of primarily voluntary acts that are to be performed by some individual or group (e.g. the role of "court volunteer," "member of a little theatre group," or "member of a council of local voluntary welfare organizations"). In a sense, a voluntary role is "a bundle of voluntary acts" that are socially expected (whether they take place in a social *setting* or not).

(c) The *informal voluntary group* is a group that lacks a formal leadership structure, a unique proper name, and clear group boundaries, but that has goals that primarily require its members to perform voluntary roles and acts (e.g., an informal group of neighbors who voluntarily help out a family of fire victims; a mob

or group or rioters who "demonstrate" against R.O.T.C. on a college campus; a covert clique of army officers who plot and stage a coup against a dictator; etc.).

(d) The *formal voluntary group* is an organized group (having a formal leadership structure, a unique proper name, and clear group boundaries) that has goals primarily requiring its members to perform voluntary roles and acts, and possibly including within it one or more informal voluntary groups. (Examples of formal voluntary groups would include the Red Cross, a school volunteer program, Common Cause, The International Political Science Association, a power boat club, etc.). When a formal voluntary group is the largest set of members having essential sovereignty over their own group policy decisions and activities, its autonomy qualifies it as a formal voluntary organization.

(e) The *voluntary sector of society* is the whole complex of nongovernmental, noncommercial groups, organizations and roles within a given society that are aimed at all kinds of substantive voluntary action goals. In totalitarian societies, the voluntary sector (and the commercial sector as well, for that matter) may be very tiny and weak, or simply nonexistent. The voluntary sector is largest and strongest in democratic, nontotalitarian, highly developed, modern societies.

(f) A *voluntary society* (5) is a society (nation, country) that places a high level of reliance on voluntary action as an organizing principle for human behavior, with only a minimum dependence on coercion, compulsion, or remuneration as driving forces for individual or group activity. Hence, the voluntary society not only has an optimum of freedom for individuals and groups (freedom of speech, press, dissent, assembly, association, etc.), but also has a large, strong voluntary sector and numerous, varied voluntary organizations, groups, and roles.

THE PAST NATURE OF RESEARCH AND COMMUNICATION IN THE FIELD OF VOLUNTARY ACTION

The fact that it seemed necessary to present here the foregoing outline of the major substantive and structural types of voluntary action is one indication that the whole field of voluntary action

research is just beginning a phase of intensive development and growth. Only in the past few years have people in various disciplines, fields, and professions begun to wrestle seriously with the problems of just what is or is not included under the terms "voluntary action," "voluntary organization," "voluntary sector of society," etc. Only in recent years has there been any serious concern with the development of an interdisciplinary, interprofessional field of voluntary action research. Historically, *voluntary action scholars and professionals in over 30 fields of knowledge, inquiry and practice have largely operated in isolation from each other,* limited by the accepted boundaries of their respective fields.

Even within particular disciplines and professionals, intercommunication of voluntary action scholars has usually been inadequate. Very few established disciplines or professions relevant to voluntary action research have developed formal subgroups to bring together the voluntary action scholars within their midst. As a result, for instance, we find that in sociology those scholars working on the topic of "collective behavior" (riots, mobs, crowds, panics, etc.) – a relevant aspect of voluntary action – have little contact with other sociologists who are working on the topic of "voluntary associations," and neither of these kinds of sociological scholars has much contact with those sociologists who toil the subfields of religious behavior, political participation, or leisure behavior – all of which are related aspects of voluntary action. Similar instances of lack of internal communication could be cited for other disciplines and professions.

There has been a similar lack of communication among voluntary action scholars across national lines. Even where there has been a significant amount of intercommunication among voluntary action scholars within disciplines or across disciplinary lines within a country, this intercommunication has seldom been manifested at the international level. There *are* various kinds of international scholarly and professional associations, but these have generally been rather strictly focused on a particular established discipline or profession, with little interdisciplinary emphasis. Until the past year, there has been no attempt at drawing together voluntary scholars from various established

disciplines/professions *and* from various countries.

A separate, but related, kind of problem in the field of voluntary action research has been *the general lack of commitment of scholars in various disciplines and countries to the whole field of voluntary action research.* In the past, the great majority of research on voluntary action has tended to be done by scholars and researchers whose main commitments and professional self-identifications were elsewhere. What we are calling "the field of voluntary action research" has generally *not* been perceived by scholars *as* a field. And when it has been perceived as a field, scholars working in the field have seldom made it their life's work or even devoted more than a few years of their working lives to its questions and problems. Thus, voluntary action research has had serious problems in commanding the attention of good scholars over long periods of time. What has been needed here is a heightening of the "academic respectability" of the field, a clearer demonstration of the importance of voluntary action to human society, and a more adequate analytical outline of the field of voluntary action research and its major questions and problems.

The result of all of this has been an unnecessary level of fragmentation of our knowledge of voluntary action. This fragmentation of effort has manifested itself not only in a lack of commitment and intercommunication among scholars working on topics of voluntary action, but also in the lack of acceptable definitions, typologies, concepts and theories of voluntary action that are broadly useful to tie together the great variety of perspectives and data on voluntary action that exists. Thus, *intensive work in the realm of ideas and concepts of voluntary action is a prime need.* We must *at least* be able to communicate with each other about voluntary action in ways that do not beg important questions, build in questionable assumptions, omit key issues or aspects of voluntarism, etc. For these kinds of reasons, the first half of *Voluntary Action Research: 1972* is devoted wholly to definitional and conceptual questions (6). Subsequent volumes of this annual series will return to these kinds of conceptual problems, as will articles in the new *Journal of Voluntary Action Research* (7).

The lack of a common perspective or conceptual scheme and

the lack of development of a separate field of voluntary action research in the past has meant that, *although there has been a good deal of empirical research about voluntary action, this knowledge has not been adequately summarized and synthesized in most topical areas.* Hence, from all sides — all disciplines and professions that touch on voluntary action research — we hear of the fragmentation and noncumulation of knowledge about voluntary action topics. Often the statement that, "We do not know anything much about (that aspect of) voluntary action," should be taken to mean that what we *do* know about it is so scattered and fragmentary that, even though collectively massive, it does us little good.

An unflattering analogy of what has happened may be useful here. Science must consist of both "ants" and "spiders," it has been argued. The "ants" are vital to pile up little pieces of research about the multiplicity of facets of a given topical area. They are the hard workers who dig into vast problems in a slow but steady way, finding a small piece of the answer here, another small piece there, and a dead end in another direction. Yet piling up "facts" and "data", though necessary, is not sufficient for a complete understanding and explanation of any major problem. There must also be "spiders", the theoreticians and synthesizers who string the various known facts and data together in new and interesting ways in an attempt to develop a larger picture. Many of these "webs" of ideas will prove to be inadequate to capture and make sense of the multiplicity of data that has been gathered. Yet some of these theoretical webs, perspectives, analytical schemes will prove extremely useful, bringing order out of chaos, and permitting us to see the basic principles and causal linkages within broad areas of knowledge.

In terms of the foregoing analogy, voluntary action has had a substantial number of "ants" and too few "spiders." *We have had numerous scholars working on small pieces of the overall problem of understanding voluntary action, and too few who would attempt to put all of the pieces together, even for major subfields of voluntary action research. Thus, there has been and remains a great need for synthesis and synthesizers in voluntary action research.* We must not only have greater intercommunication

among voluntary action scholars in different disciplines/ professions and countries, we must also have more and better integration of the knowledge and research represented by these scholars and their work. Just bringing together voluntary action scholars from various places and perspectives will not be sufficient; bringing together the existing knowledge will also be essential. To use another analogy, we have probably had our Brahes and Keplers; we must now have our Newtons and our Einsteins.

Two very different kinds of problems from the foregoing also faces the field of voluntary action research, just as they also face most of social science in general. These are the problems of practical relevance and dissemination. In too many cases, voluntary action scholars have turned a deaf ear to the practical needs of voluntary action. Voluntary action has to grapple with reality in its day to day needs and demands. In so doing, voluntary action of the various kinds described earlier could almost invariably use some help from social science in various of its programs and activities – *if* social science knowledge were *synthesized, relevant and appropriately disseminated.* In the past, the matter of synthesis and integration of knowledge about voluntary action has been a great problem in its own right, as discussed in earlier paragraphs. But even if such knowledge were adequately synthesized, there would still be the problems of relevance and appropriate dissemination.

Voluntary action research in the past has often been irrelevant to practical voluntary action for at least two main reasons. One reason is the lack of appropriate dissemination mechanisms and channels. We shall speak of this in a moment. A prior reason is *the inadequate attention of voluntary action scholars to the kinds of problems that are most important to practical voluntary action.* This situation is really just *one* side of an inadequate information flow between scholars and practitioners, between knowledge and action, in the field of voluntary action. On the one hand, scholars are too quick to pursue their own academic interests in voluntary action research without regard to what might be useful or relevant to practical voluntary action. This is not to say that "basic research" on voluntary action is not important in the long run or that everyone should be involved only in "applied research."

Rather, we would argue that *every voluntary action scholar* should at least *ask* the question of practical relevance before a research project is undertaken and should seek ways in which at least a few practical questions could be answered in the process of answering some more theoretical questions.

On the other hand, practitioners in voluntary action (volunteer administrators, leaders of voluntary organizations, etc.) are too quick to dismiss the possible relevance of research and evaluation to their own practical goals. They are correct in viewing much of research as being "ivory tower stuff", but they are incorrect in viewing this as inevitable. Practitioners can do a number of things to press scholars and researchers for more relevant, practical, applied research on voluntary action. But before practitioners are likely to do so, they first have to understand the potential value of research for furthering their own voluntary action goals. Hence, just as every scholar should ask about practical relevance before undertaking a research project, so too should *every practitioner* ask about the relevance of research (both accumulated knowledge and techniques for answering key questions in a scientific manner) and evaluation to any major aspect or program of voluntary action in the field.

Merely getting the scholars to consider practical utility and getting the practitioners to consider relevant accumulated scientific knowledge are not sufficient, however necessary a beginning they may be. Without such a *mutual openness,* voluntary action research can never become relevant to actual voluntary action on a broad scale. *Yet something more is also needed: an actual interchange of ideas, perspectives, needs and problems between scholars and practitioners.* More and more voluntary action scholars must somehow begin to take practical needs and problems of voluntary action into account in designing their research. More and more voluntary action leaders and practitioners must somehow begin to communicate better their needs and problems to the scholarly community. Each community – the scholarly and the applied – must learn better to speak each other's language, and more and better translators must be found. *Better long-term forms of linkage and communication between scholars and practitioners must be devised and made to work*

effectively over the long run.

The matter of relevance just discussed focuses primarily on the *design* of research and scholarly projects so that their results can, in part at least, be of practical utility to ongoing voluntary action. There still remains the matter of *appropriate dissemination* of the results of research and scholarship, once arrived at. To understand the problem here, one must understand the necessary *phases or stages of transformation of scientific knowledge and scholarship into action.* It is helpful to think of this transformation as a process that can be graphically represented as an arch or bridge, spanning the "science" community and the "action" community. The base of the arch, rooted deeply in the scientific community, is the *individual research project* aimed at understanding better some natural phenomenon. The next level or phase attempts to weave together the results of a number of research projects into a coherent whole. This part of the arch is the *review of the literature* sort of piece, that introduces some kind of analytical scheme to make sense of the accumulated information in an area. Either as part of the review of the literature, or as a separate endeavor, there must also be some kind of *theoretical synthesis* of all of the known facts about a topic. Such a synthesis or theory, ideally, will be a rather simple way of making sense of a welter of perhaps conflicting facts and information.

At this point in the transformation of scientific knowledge into practice we are high on one side of the arch. Interestingly, there is a paradox here: the more *abstract* theoretical synthesis of scientific knowledge is precisely the kind of scientific knowledge that can be most readily *applied* to concrete practical problems of voluntary action. The reason for this is a simple one: particular scientific research projects tend to be narrow and specialized in focus, hence their implications for practice are generally quite limited. Yet when the findings of several projects are combined into a theoretical synthesis, the practical implications are usually much broader. Out of theoretical syntheses come the important scientific "laws," or at least generalizations regarding the way things work. Such generalizations are much more important than the results of any single project when it comes to transforming knowledge into practice. *Hence, theoretical synthesis is of prime*

importance both for the progress of voluntary action research itself as a field of inquiry (see our analogy of the ants and spiders earlier) *and also for the application of such scientific knowledge to ongoing voluntary action.*

The next phase in the knowledge transformation process represents the key linking activity between the scholarly community and the practitioner community, the "top" of the hypothetical arch spanning knowledge and action. This is the *specification of practical implications* of a particular theoretical synthesis of knowledge of voluntary action. To do this with optimum effectiveness demands the collaboration of both scientists and practitioners. In effect, it is a feedback process whereby the scholars attempt a simple, nontechnical summary of what is known and try to spell out some of the practical implications they can see for this knowledge. Then the practitioners react by asking for more clarification, suggesting concrete instances and problems, and attempting to understand how the available knowledge can be of help to them in their ongoing voluntary activity. This mutual feedback process can best be carried out in a face-to-face interpersonal context, with both scholars and practitioners participating. (An example of this kind of activity would be the Experimental Workshop on Knowledge Utilization in the Field of Voluntary Action that was run at the National 4-H Club Center in Washington, D. C. Feb. 14-18, 1972, under the auspices of the 4-H and Youth Development Section of the Extension Service of the U. S. Dept. of Agriculture (8).)

Coming down the other side of our hypothetical arch from knowledge to practice, the next phase involves *making practical plans with scientific knowledge inputs.* Before knowledge can effectively be transformed into action, the general implications for practice must be built into specific plans to do something, form something, change something, etc. It is well and good for physics to produce powerful generalizations about the properties of structures and the nature of gravity, etc. but unless someone actually uses this knowledge to build a particular better bridge or building, the transformation of the knowledge into action will not take place.

This holds true for voluntary action research being transformed

into more effective voluntary action, just as it holds true for physics, mechanical engineering, and the building of structures. *In order to make better short-term or long-term plans for operating voluntary organizations and programs, the practitioner must somehow consult with the "scientific knowledge representative" in some way in the planning process.* One way of doing this is again through the kind of knowledge utilization workshop referred to in the previous paragraph. Another approach is to make use of short term outside consultants, whether volunteers or paid, from the scholarly and research community. Still another way, though best seen as an adjunct to the former two ways, is to find and depend on detailed documentary or audio-visual cumulations of relevant knowledge about voluntary action. The key to this stage of the process, in any event, is to make a real attempt to *use* what is known about how voluntary action works while developing plans for specific programs and operations of voluntary action in the present and future.

An analogy may help to make ths point clearer. Voluntary action has been getting along pretty well for a long time without any significant inputs from voluntary action research. In doing so, most leaders and staff of voluntary organizations and programs have largely been "flying by the seat of their pants" — depending on intuition, accumulated personal experience, trial-and-error, knowledgeable colleagues, and others to do the best they can. *What we are suggesting here is that some kinds of "radar" and other "navigational instruments" have been discovered, figuratively speaking, that can improve still further the effectiveness of voluntary action. This being the case, the wise "pilot" or voluntary action leader/staff person will at least investigate how accumulated scientific knowledge can be of help in their operations.* This knowledge will not be a cure-all, but it may help the careful pilot avoid some of the more troublesome "mountains" (problems) he or she would otherwise have difficulty avoiding or dealing with.

The last phase of the knowledge transformation process is the *actual implementation of plans that involve scientific knowledge inputs.* This is the solid base of the other side of the hypothetical arch referred to earlier. Rooted in the reality of ongoing voluntary

action, this kind of implementation of plans has a higher probability of working out well because the best of relevant knowledge about voluntary action has been built into the plans in advance. Moreover, if the implications of the scientific method are carried through in earnest, the specific plan-implementation activities will themselves be tested and evaluated in an objective manner to see how they work and where they need further adaptation or substitution.

Seen in this way, the knowledge transformation process never ends, never assumes blindly that what worked well last year or five years ago will continue to work well next year or five years from now. *As new discoveries are made by voluntary action scholars and as the conditions (internal and external) under which a voluntary organization or program must operate change, the kind of knowledge-into-action process discussed here will, if followed over time, guarantee a higher probability of continued practical success of voluntary action.* In the long run, "radar" provides a marked improvement in the effectiveness of even the best "seat of the pants" pilot. This is especially true when the future is cloudy, when barriers and obstacles abound on every side, and when one is moving into new and unknown territory relative to past experience.

Looked at from the standpoint of competition and evolution, a given voluntary organization or program that does not make the best possible use of available scientific knowledge is likely in the long run to fall by the wayside as competing groups that *do* make use of such knowledge grow and prosper as a result of their increased effectiveness. Nearly all of those "buggy whip" producers who did not shift to the production of automobiles early in this century have vanished from the scene. And today the handwriting is on the wall for many of the older, more established forms of voluntary action: They must begin to change rapidly to adapt to new social conditions and new priorities, or wither and eventually die out (perhaps sooner than they could imagine).

We began our discussion of the knowledge-into-action transformation process as a prelude to stating briefly the problems of appropriate dissemination of scientific knowledge about voluntary action. Now let us return to that topic. We have reviewed the

several steps in the transformation process, each phase of which must be present for the complete process to occur. The key problems lie in the fact that the central three phases of the process receive insufficient attention to make the "arch" or "bridge" a substantial reality for voluntary action.

At present there is a good deal of voluntary action research at the level of individual projects and a good deal of practical voluntary action. *There is much less of the kind of review-of-the-literature and theoretical synthesis activity that is needed both for scientific and for practical progress and there is only a minuscule amount of work on the practical implications of theoretical syntheses of voluntary action research, with still less of the necessary sort of practical planning for voluntary action with significant voluntary action research inputs.* Thus, the solidity or volume of the "arch" tapers rapidly and becomes very weak as we move from knowledge to practice. Clearly a great deal needs to be done to expand and improve the knowledge transformation process, especially in those phases that involve actually building scholarly knowledge into the practical plans for voluntary action of specific organizations and programs.

Looked at from the standpoint of leaders and staff of voluntary organizations and programs, the problem of appropriate dissemination has been that there has been no central place or set of places to turn for help, information, expertise, etc. There have been few or no summaries and syntheses of voluntary action research and its practical implications that the practitioner could turn to, even if he or she were interested. Most of the material available to the practitioner has been "seat of the pants" advice or the statements of how someone thinks voluntary action *should* operate in terms of some ideal image or memory of the past. Only very seldom have there been simple descriptions of existing knowledge and its implications written *by* those who know the relevant research and theory, but written *for* those practitioners who wish to take such knowledge into account in operating their form of voluntary action. And there has been a corresponding lack of centralized compilations of available resources for voluntary action – people, documents, programs, courses, techniques, etc. that voluntary organizations and programs can use to improve

their impact and effectiveness, their size and longevity.

The foregoing, then, are some of the major problems of research and communication in voluntary action that have plagued us in the past. A number of recent attempts have been made to begin to find practical solutions to these problems in a long-term way. The nature of each of these attempts, where they are going, and what else needs to be done will form the meat of the following section of this chapter.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN VOLUNTARY ACTION RESEARCH AND COMMUNICATION

We shall discuss the various recent attempts at solving voluntary action research and communication problems in the same order that we introduced them in the previous section.

1. *Solutions to the problem of inadequate scholarly intercommunication and commitment to a field of voluntary action research:* The primary solution to the intercommunication and commitment problem was an obvious one — to create a new voluntary organization of voluntary action scholars. In June of 1971 the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars was formally incorporated in Washington, D. C. as a nonprofit, educational, and professional organization. This formal step culminated nearly two years of prior spadework and preparation. The Association (AVAS) is an autonomous voluntary organization that is international in scope. It is open to scholars and professionals interested in and/or engaged in research, scholarship, or programs related to voluntary action in any of its many forms. By "voluntary action" AVAS means to refer to all kinds of noncoerced human behavior, collective or individual, that is engaged in because of commitment to values other than direct, immediate remuneration. Thus, voluntary action includes and emphasizes a focus on voluntary associations; social movements; cause groups; voluntarism; interest groups; pluralism; citizen participation; private; initiative; consumer groups; participatory democracy; volunteering; altruism; helping behavior; philanthropy; social clubs; leisure behavior; political participation; religious sects; etc.

The definition of the term "scholar" is thus a broad one. Anyone who is genuinely interested in studying, thinking about, and understanding better the nature of voluntary action is encouraged to join and participate. And not only does AVAS seek the participation of "practitioner-intellectuals" or "practitioner-scholars," but it also seeks to relate voluntary action research to practice. Thus, *AVAS seeks to stimulate and aid the efforts of those engaged in voluntary action research, scholarship, and professional activity; and, also to make the results of that research, scholarship and action more readily available both to fellow professionals and scholars and to leaders of and participants in voluntary associations and voluntary action agencies.* In this way, AVAS attempts to foster the dissemination and application of social science knowledge about voluntary action in order to enhance the quality of life and the general welfare of mankind through effective and appropriate voluntary action.

AVAS attempts to be self-supporting on the basis of dues, subscriptions and gifts. Support for the creation and initial organizational expenses of AVAS was provided by the Center for a Voluntary Society (CVS), a nonprofit organization located in Washington, D. C. AVAS, while legally independent, maintains a close working relationship with CVS, since CVS is attempting to perform a catalytic linking role between the scholarly community and the whole realm of practical, ongoing voluntary action, both in the United States and elsewhere.

Although begun in the United States, AVAS is not and does not intend to be in any sense an "American" organization. From the beginning, AVAS has encouraged the participation of voluntary action scholars from any country. In particular, the official journal of AVAS – the *Journal of Voluntary Action Research* (10) – has sought associate editors in all fields from various countries other than the United States. And in the long run, various countries and continents may have their own subsections of AVAS (or independent collateral organizations of a similar kind) to make possible better intercommunication at those territorial levels.

AVAS fosters intercommunication among scholars in several ways. The existence of a quarterly journal (*JVAR*) fosters the sharing of scholarly research and ideas among scholars from

various disciplines and countries, while the *AVAS Newsletter* focuses more on informal communications, notices, descriptions of relevant meetings, research in progress, and related matters. Associated with *JVAR* is also a *JVAR Monograph* series, which publishes papers that are too long for the journal but too short for separate publication in the normal book form. The first two such *Monographs* have dealt with *Citizen Participation in Federal Programs* (by Hans B. C. Spiegel) and *Voluntary Action and Social Problems* (by David Horton Smith *et al.*). In addition, AVAS expects to hold its first annual meeting late in 1973.

Besides providing a forum of personal and scholarly intercommunication among scholars within fields, across fields within countries, and across countries, AVAS also is helping to stimulate greater commitment to the field of voluntary action research among scholars, AVAS, *JVAR* and the other related activities described will increasingly serve as a rallying point and focusing point for scholars who have some interest in voluntary action research. Further, the presence of mutual support, intercommunication, and mutual recognition through AVAS will help to raise the level and frequency of long-term commitment to the field of voluntary action research among scholars.

AVAS also will have a long-term impact *within* established fields and disciplines by fostering the existence of special subgroups, committees, sections, or related entities within existing professional and scholarly associations. Thus, if there is a nucleus of voluntary action scholars in a given discipline, AVAS will not only try to involve them in AVAS itself but also try to stimulate them to form official or informal subgroups within their discipline, which in turn can relate to AVAS in some way. Formation of such subgroups within existing disciplines and professions is especially important in generating commitment from scholars or professionals in each discipline, since it will give some facets of voluntary action research both visibility and legitimacy from the standpoint of the particular discipline.

So far we have spoken in general terms about the established disciplines and professions from which voluntary action scholars are most likely to come. Let us now be more specific. More than 30 disciplines, professions and fields have so far been identified as

containing at least some scholars with a serious interest in aspects of voluntary action. The listing below indicates what these disciplines and fields are, together with some of the phenomena and concepts that are of special interest to voluntary action scholars within each discipline. This listing is a preliminary one, in the sense that as time passes we expect to find additional fields that should be listed and additional phenomena that should be listed under the fields in the present list. Nevertheless, the present list will give the interested reader some sense of the broad range of phenomena and fields that overlap to some degree with the emerging field of voluntary action research. (The listing was first published in Volume 1, Number 1, January 1972, of the *Journal of Voluntary Action Research* and is reprinted here with permission.)

Accounting: Human resource accounting; value of *contributed* goods and services to an institution (as reflected in a balance sheet).

Agriculture/Rural Sociology: Peasant movements; co-operatives; farmers' associations; farm laborers' unions; 4-H and other rural youth groups; informal voluntary action in rural areas (barn raisings, mutual sharing, posses, vigilante groups, etc.).

Anthropology: Common interest associations; secret societies; mutual aid and co-operation; age grading groups; caste and clan associations; modern marriage as a "voluntary association"; adoption and fictive kinship; voluntary associations in developing countries.

Architecture/City Planning/Physical Planning: Citizen groups; advocacy planning; area planning councils; participatory democracy; citizen participation; demonstrations.

Black Studies: Civil rights groups; black power; black caucuses in professional organizations; slave revolts and uprisings; black churches and fraternal organizations; sit-ins, teach-ins, and demonstrations.

Business/Management: Corporate philanthropy; corporate volunteer programs; stockholder resistance movements; corporate community relations and urban affairs; pressure groups and corporate decision making; campus dissent and corporate recruitment; businessmen's clubs; trade associations; Chambers of

Commerce; impact of National Association of Manufacturers; generating voluntary commitment in a business organization; the role of *pro bono* time in recruiting and holding high quality executives.

Community Development: Community involvement and decision making; citizen participation; community organizational structure; local initiative; community leadership; volunteer committees, councils, and groups; democratic small group processes; community self-study groups and surveys; client or target area participation in decisions; community action groups; mass meetings (neighborhood and community meetings).

Criminology, Penology, and Deviance: Deviant associations; juvenile gangs; adult criminal gangs; criminal associations (Cosa Nostra, etc.); conspiracies; underground groups; covert associations in prisons and reformatories; wife swapping groups; orgiastic groups; covert paramilitary groups.

Demography: Demography of voluntary organizations and programs; voluntary birth control programs; voluntary sterilization; voluntary migration (individual and collective).

Economics: Nonmarket activities; nonprofit organizations; imputed values of contributed goods and services; flow of philanthropic money; total philanthropic giving, both organizational and individual; the grants economy; uncoerced grants; effect of voluntary activity on labor markets and prices; trade-offs between higher income and more time for voluntary activity; effects of Internal Revenue and taxation policies on voluntary action and voluntary donations.

Education, Training, and Human Development: Training volunteers, volunteer co-ordinators, and officials or staff of voluntary organizations and programs; human relations skills required for effective leadership in voluntary action; encounter and sensitivity groups; socialization and voluntary action; moral development; volunteers in schools (teacher aides, etc.); adult education participants ("volunteers for learning"); Teacher Corps; school committees and school boards; NEA; PTA; etc.

Future Studies: Possible alternative futures of the voluntary sector and voluntary action; probable impact of general future trends (in society and the natural environment) upon voluntary

action of various kinds; probable impact of specific future events on particular voluntary organizations or movements (e.g. effect of a cancer cure on the American Cancer Society, etc.).

Geography: Spatial distributions of voluntary action; participation gradients in relation to the geographical distribution of other human activities and resources; spatial diffusion of specific types of voluntary action or voluntary associations; tourism and vacation — recreational travel (intra— and internationally); patterns of location of and attendance at national and international conventions, congresses, and meetings of voluntary organizations; patterns of location of the headquarters of voluntary groups.

History: Social movements in history; the history of voluntarism and voluntary organizations; the role of "great men" in founding major social movements or voluntary organizations; the role of voluntary organizations in political change, revolutions, and coups in various times and places; the first historical appearance of various kinds of organized voluntary action — political parties, professional associations, labor unions, women's liberation groups, etc.; the impact of political change (e.g. the rise of a totalitarian state) upon voluntary action in a country; voluntarism and the social order.

International Relations and International Organizations: History and activities of the U. N. and its component agencies; impact of the U. N. on international relations, economic development, political change, peace and war; international governmental organizations other than the U. N.; international nongovernmental organizations (INGOs); role of INGOs in the international exchange of ideas, values, culture, technology, etc.; impact of INGOs on worldwide economic and political development.

Labor and Industrial Relations: Trade and craft unions; rise of labor unions and their impact on the economic status and working conditions of workers; impact of strikes; union participation and membership; union leaders, their selection and their background; relations between local unions and their national organizations; farm labor unions and peasant movements; role of communism and other political ideologies in the rise of trade unionism in various countries; impact of unions in politics and other

institutional realms.

Laws: Constitutional law and rights of free association, free speech, free assembly, orderly dissent, etc; administrative regulations and laws fostering voluntary associations or programs; abridgement of rights of voluntary groups and voluntary action by laws, regulations or policies; legal status of voluntary groups; *pro bono publico* volunteer legal aid to the poor or powerless; class action suits on behalf of voluntary consumer or environmental groups; American Civil Liberties Union and other groups protecting through legal action the boundaries of voluntary action, individual and collective; "Nader's Raiders."

Leisure, Recreation, and Sports: Leisure time; recreational and sports voluntary groups; hobby groups; individual and family recreational activities; spectatorship and attendance at sports events, entertainment, etc.: informal participation in games, sports and other recreation; amateur sports leagues; informal interpersonal relations; growth of the "leisure society" and its relation to the "voluntary society."

Medicine and Psychiatry: Psychiatric and psychodynamic roots of individual voluntary action of all kinds; effects of childhood experiences on the development of individual leaders and participants (or nonparticipants) in voluntary action; psychopathology and voluntary action or apathy; impact of physical health and illness conditions on individual voluntary action and participation in voluntary groups; role of American Medical Association and similar medical professional associations in affecting political decisions; hospital volunteers; ex-mental patient clubs; voluntary groups of handicapped, diabetics, etc.; voluntary medical aid to the poor, etc.

National Resources, Forestry, and Ecology: Environmental protection and conservation groups; volunteers in forests; environmental clean-up campaigns; voluntary professional monitoring of the extent businesses and industrial plants comply with antipollution regulations; defacement and pollution of the environment through individual voluntary action (littering, carelessness, etc.); maintenance and restoration of natural ecological balance through voluntary action of individual hunters, wildlife groups, etc.

Philanthropy, Foundations, and Fund Raising: Nature and

types of philanthropy; changes in patterns of philanthropy over time; major individual philanthropy vs. mass, collective philanthropic donations, vs. major organizational philanthropy; corporate philanthropy; philanthropic foundations vs. "tax dodges"; rise of major foundations; impact of foundation giving on other forms of voluntary action (advocacy groups, service voluntarism, etc.); fund raising techniques; mass canvass fund raising by volunteers (United Funds, March of Dimes, etc.).

Philosophy: Liberalism, libertarianism, civil liberties and their philosophical roots; philosophy and ideology of freedom vs. control, free will vs. determinism, individual wishes vs. state demands; anarchy, democracy, autocracy and their philosophical underpinnings; axiology, morals, and value theory as related to altruistic voluntary action; selfishness vs. altruism as a philosophical problem; epistemology and definitions of reality as bases for individual and collective voluntary action, or resistance to same.

Political Science and Government: Pressure groups; lobbies; interest groups; pluralism; political parties; social movements, student movements, demonstrations, and political power; underground voluntary organizations and revolutions; the impact of voluntary action on government decision making; the power structure of voluntary organizations; political influence and political leadership in voluntary groups and social movements; voting, helping in political campaigns, writing your legislators, attending public hearings, demonstrations, volunteer participation in local or county governments, etc. as voluntary political action; abridgment of freedom of association and other civil rights by political decisions, laws, regulations, military or police power, etc.

Psychology/Social Psychology: Altruism and helping behavior; psychology of social movements; psychological factors (attitudes, personality, capacities, etc.) in individual voluntary action; learning and socialization as roots of voluntary participation; social psychology of mobs, panics, crazes, mass hysteria, mass revolts; the psychology of conscience, morals and values as related to voluntary action; the psychology of "volunteering" for anything — voluntary groups, special tasks, experiments, riots, arduous or dangerous duties, etc.; the psychology of will, persistence, determination and commitment in relation to

voluntary action; reference groups and "significant others" as determinants of participation in voluntary action; small group processes and informal, interpersonal relations in the context of voluntary organizations or social movements; voluntary action and the psychology of meaning, perception, and interpretation of situations.

Public Administration: Citizen participation; citizen advocacy groups; community groups; voluntary action and public policy; impact of voluntary action on the staff of public agencies (local, county, state, national); rights of participation of public officials and staff in voluntary action on their "own time."

Rehabilitation and Counseling: Volunteers in courts; volunteers and the handicapped; volunteer half-way houses or programs for ex-addicts, ex-convicts, ex-mental patients, amputees, etc.; problems of setting up, staffing, funding, operating and evaluating volunteer rehabilitation and/or counseling programs; recruiting, training and supervising volunteers; Alcoholics Anonymous; Synanon; volunteer draft counseling, career counseling, educational counseling, family planning counseling, etc.

Religion and Theology: Churches, denominations, and sects as voluntary organizations; religiosocial movements; theological and moral bases of various kinds of voluntary action; the history and development of particular sects or religious groups; religious limitations on freedom of association; *local* churches (synagogues, etc.) as stimulators and sponsors of voluntary social service and advocacy groups in the community; *national* churches as supporters of service and advocacy oriented voluntary action; minority caucuses within existing national church bodies; the transition from volunteer to paid religious leaders in the development of a church or sect; religious affiliation as a voluntary choice in contemporary "polyreligious" society; attendance at religious services; participation in church business, operation and service committees; fund raising.

Social Work/Social Welfare: Community groups and community action; voluntary associations; citizen participation; client or consumer groups; welfare rights groups (e.g. N.W.R.O.); tenants' rights groups (e.g. N.T.O.); the origins of charity and social work as a profession (from volunteer to paid social welfare and service

roles); settlement houses.

Sociology: Voluntary associations; formal voluntary organizations (FVOs); social movements; collective behavior; mobs; riots; demonstrations; marches; interest groups; utopian communities; communes; the voluntary society; recruitment and selection of individuals to voluntary action; relations among voluntary groups or between voluntary groups and economic, governmental, or other institutional agencies; the impact of voluntary action on society and decision making; the incidence and prevalence of voluntary associations; the role of voluntary associations and programs in the community; informal organization within large bureaucratic voluntary associations; individual participation in voluntary groups; the internal organizational structure and functioning of voluntary associations; voluntary action and social change; organizational change in voluntary associations and social movements; leisure behavior and recreational voluntary groups.

Urban Studies/Urbanology: Citizen participation; community control; participatory democracy; decentralization of power in large cities; citizen protests and demonstrations; community groups; mass meetings; area planning councils; citizen advisory boards to governmental programs; individual and group participation in city council (or equivalent local governmental) meetings and hearings; neighborhood citizen representatives; citizen advocacy planning groups and consultants; administrative regulations dealing with citizen participation in government programs.

Volunteer Administration: Recruiting, training, placing, supervising, rewarding and otherwise dealing with volunteers in programs associated with hospitals, prisons, schools, welfare agencies, etc.; management and logistics of volunteer programs; differences between volunteer programs that are associated with some larger institution and autonomous voluntary organizations; training and education of administrators or coordinators of volunteers; emergence of volunteer administration as an independent professional field.

2. *Solutions to the need for more and better typologies, definitions, and conceptual schemes for the field of voluntary action research:* In the past year or two there has been some intensive activity in the realm of typologies and definitions of

voluntary action and related concepts, attempting to meet in part the pressing need for such activity that we discussed earlier. Much like the concepts of "community" or "organization", the concepts of "voluntary action" and "voluntary organization" have long been used without adequate explication. To remedy this problem various scholars have been turning a good deal of attention to definitional questions. As noted earlier, half of the annual review volume *Voluntary Action Research: 1972* (11) is devoted to a discussion of various kinds of definitional and conceptual issues in this field. The various authors of these chapters consider the nature of voluntary associations, the voluntary society, and individual voluntary acts. They also take up the sense in which religious denominations, trade unions and peasant movements, leisure behavior, social change, and other phenomena can fruitfully be considered as voluntary action. The coverage of definitional and typological issues in that volume is by no means complete, but at the very least makes a significant beginning. Future work will need to take up a number of additional issues relating to the sense in which voluntary action includes riots and other collective behavior, "regular" political participation by citizens, individual altruistic behavior, philanthropy, cooperatives and communes, conspiracies and underground groups, etc. (12).

Another relevant activity has been *the development of a conceptual scheme for the whole field of voluntary action research.* Defining the boundaries of the field in a clear analytical manner is one task. Specifying the kinds of major questions the field must deal with and the major themes of inquiry within the field is a related but somewhat different (and much broader) matter. About two years ago the author and two colleagues began to work out a conceptual scheme for the field of voluntary action research in conjunction with a Seminar Session at the 1970 American Sociological Association annual meetings. This scheme was subsequently discussed at an Interdisciplinary Voluntary Action Task Force Planning Conference held on October 31, 1970 at the Institute of Human Sciences, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Massachusetts. Cosponsored by the Institute and the Center for a Voluntary Society of Washington, D. C., this small interdisciplinary conference worked over the preliminary conceptual

scheme previously noted and made various important additions and changes (13).

The result was a conceptual framework for the interdisciplinary study of voluntary action entitled, "Major Analytical Topics of Voluntary Action Theory and Research: Version 2." (14) This framework, presented in brief form below, indicates the major substantive kinds of questions to which voluntary action research and theory are to be mainly directed. In a sense, these questions or topics specify the *subfields* of voluntary action research, much in the same way that medicine as a field is subdivided into such subfields as anatomy, physiology, psychiatry, etc. Unlike such well established fields as medicine, however, the field of voluntary action research does not yet have conventionally acceptable names for its subfields, but merely a question or series of related ones to indicate each field.

In the broadest sense, then, the following conceptual scheme represents a "shopping list" of questions that voluntary action research and theory are attempting to answer over the long run. These are the overall *basic* needs for research in voluntary action. It is thus a "conceptual scheme" only in a very rudimentary sense of ordering into a small set of broad categories the thousands of questions relevant to voluntary action that *could* be asked. Yet, even this first step is a crucial one, since it brings some conceptual order out of what would otherwise be intellectual chaos. While not pretending to be "the last word" on what the field of voluntary action research will deal with, the scheme nevertheless attempts to encompass all major relevant aspects of voluntary action and to do so in a way that is more or less neutral with regard to existing disciplines and national perspectives. Thus, it is hoped that the present scheme will be of use in focusing thought and research on voluntary action from the standpoint of any of the many relevant disciplines listed earlier, as well as from the standpoint of scholars from any country or culture. Insofar as the supposed "neutrality" is not the case, it is the task of other scholars to point out the scheme's failings and errors of both omission and commission. The present scheme is carefully labeled as "Version 2," in recognition of the fact that it must be a continually revised and growing conceptual framework if it is truly to serve its intended purpose.

Definitions, theory and conceptual issues in voluntary action.

This topic raises the basic definitional, conceptual, and theoretical issues, such as: What is included and what is excluded by the term "voluntary action?" What are the necessary and sufficient criteria for terming some phenomenon "voluntary action?" What is the role in defining voluntary action of such dimensions as the degree of remuneration involved in an activity (including reimbursement for expenses or subsistence), the degree of coercion involved, the degree of selfishness or self-orientation (vs. altruism or other-orientation), the degree of aggregation of individuals (i.e. is voluntary action first and foremost a characteristic of individuals or of groups?), the degree of formalization of the social context (i.e. are socially unstructured and informal actions of individuals or groups to be considered voluntary action under appropriate circumstances, or must voluntary action be formally organized?), the degree of involvement of meaning-ideology-values, the degree of social change orientation, etc. What makes an act, organization, group, or society really "voluntary?" How restrictive or broad do we want to make this latter term? What are the consequences of various definitional stances or approaches?

The nature and development of voluntary action from early times to modern society (history of voluntary action).

This analytical category emphasizes total, integrative description and understanding of some particular type of voluntary action for some given period and sociocultural context. Usually focusing on the history of a particular time, place and type of voluntary action, and scholarly work representing this category may also be comparative or deal with very long time spans. Any of the other analytical topics dealt with in the present scheme might well be involved in such integrative historical description-explanation, but attention to any particular analytical topic is generally subordinated to a desire for a wholistic description and appraisal over time. This analytical topic is *not* the same as special concern with the *conditions* for the development, growth, or dissolution of voluntary organizations or voluntary action of other types (see topics *d* and *e*), although the present analytical topic

may include such concerns. Further, the history of theories, concepts, and ideas about voluntary action is singled out for special attention as category *c*, rather than including this form of "intellectual history" with the history of voluntary action *per se.*

History of Theory, Concepts, and Ideas of Voluntary Action and Related Topics.

Where the preceding topic deals with an integrative account of the development of voluntary action over time (what might be considered part of institutional history, social history, or interpretive-historical sociology), the present analytical topic focuses primarily upon intellectual history and the sociology of knowledge regarding voluntary action ideas and concepts. Under the present rubric such questions may be raised as the following: When did the concept or idea of a "voluntary association" first arise? Is the notion of a "volunteer" a middle and upper class concept? Do all modern contemporary societies have a concept of voluntary associations? Of voluntary action? Of volunteers? How do national character, national traditions, cultural ethos, zeitgeist and related phenomena and ideas affect the development of voluntary action ideas and voluntary action itself in various forms?

The nature and determinants of the incidence, growth, change, and cessation of voluntary activity in territorially based social systems.

This analytical category is concerned with questions about what levels of voluntary activity exist and why voluntary action of various kinds begins, grows, spreads, declines, or ceases in given territorially based social systems. The emphasis here is on *comparative* explanation and description of voluntary activity rates for large social systems as units, in contrast with category *b*, which places more emphasis on a totally integrative description and understanding over time for a *single* society or social system, in general. Another way of putting this distinction between category *b* and the present category is to note that the former approach tends to be more humanistic and descriptive, seeking to understand the uniqueness of a particular society and time period, while the present category is more positivistic (scientific) and explanatory in a statistical sense, seeking not only to describe and understand but also to account for similar events across social

systems and time periods.

The nature and determinants of the incidence, growth, change, and dissolution of voluntary groups and organizations.

Where the previous analytical category dealt with the dynamics of voluntary activity for territorially based social systems as units of analysis, the present category focuses on the dynamics of voluntary groups or organizations themselves as units of analysis. Instead of being interested here in *rates* of voluntary activity of various kinds, we instead emphasize observable regularities in the birth, growth, and death of *particular groups* and organizations of various types, attempting to explain these dynamics both in terms of internal and external conditions of the organizations in question.

The nature and determinants of relationships between voluntary groups and other groups and individual affiliates.

The central focus of this topic is on what is often called "interorganizational relations" in current sociology, but with special attention here to voluntary groups as foci. Emphasis is placed upon understanding how a voluntary group or organization relates to other voluntary groups of the same or different kinds, as well as how it relates to groups and organizations that are not voluntary in nature. In addition, the present category deals with external *individual* affiliates of voluntary groups (e.g. with client populations, publics, donor populations, potential member populations, etc.). For both group and individual affiliates with a given voluntary group or type of group, we are interested not only in describing the usual nature of the relationships involved but also in explaining why these relationships occur and how they affect the structure and functioning of the group itself.

The nature and determinants of the effectiveness of voluntary groups and their impact on social processes, social institutions, the larger society and the biophysical environment.

The matter of impact is a crucial one in the area of voluntary action. Many social observers view voluntary action as both ephemeral and/or ineffectual, while others see voluntary action as the source of all workable good ideas in society and the very backbone of democracy. The impact of voluntary action may be divided into several analytical categories. The present category

focuses upon the impact of voluntary *groups* (rather than *individual* voluntary action) upon their social-biological-physical *environment* (rather than upon their *members*).

The nature and determinants of the internal structure and functioning of voluntary groups, organizations and related collectivities.

The focus of this analytical category is on how voluntary groups operate internally and why they operate that way. Together with the foregoing analytical category, the present category is of great practical interest to leaders and administrators of all kinds of voluntary organizations, as well as being of interest to students of organizations and groups. Some of the major questions to be answered under the present rubric include the following: What are the usual sizes of voluntary groups, organizations or movements and what determines this size? What is the member composition of various kinds of voluntary groups, and what determines this mix (in terms of age, sex, socioeconomic status, capacities, beliefs, attitudes, values, desires, needs, habits, etc.)? How formalized is the structure of various voluntary groups and their boundaries? What is the power structure, bureaucratic structure, informal influence structure, compliance structure, etc. of voluntary groups, and how is this determined? What are the goals of the organization or movement: as stated officially, as inferred from the activities of members, as inferred from the activities of elected leaders, as inferred from the activities of professional staff, etc.? What is the ideology of the group, its accepted values and beliefs? What are the major economic aspects of the group — its budget, productive performances, distribution and consumption of goods and services as a group, the division of labor and task specialization within the group, etc.?

The nature and determinants of individual voluntary activity and role selection.

The focus of this analytical topic is on the voluntary action of individuals as units of analysis, rather than on groups or territorially based social systems as units of analysis. On the one hand we are interested in the kinds and amounts of voluntary action in which individuals engage, but more importantly we are interested in explaining the motivation, etc. for these levels and

kinds of participation. Among the types of individual activity included here are overall participation in various kinds of formal voluntary organizations, in informal voluntary groups, as well as voluntary activity in nongroup and solitary settings. For each of these kinds of setting we are interested in understanding an individual's decision to found a voluntary group or organization, join a voluntary group or enter a voluntary action setting, actively participate in voluntary activity of one or another kind within a given setting or group (e.g. committee work, recreational activity, service activities to outsiders, general meeting attendance, etc.), take on a leadership role, and leave the group or setting in question.

The nature and determinants of the impact of voluntary action upon individual participants.

Under category *g* we considered the impact of voluntary groups on *external* persons, groups and objects. By contrast, the present analytical category focuses upon the *internal* impact of voluntary action — how it affects individuals who are involved as participants (e.g. the members of a voluntary organization or group, the person who tries to help another in an altruistic behavior episode, etc.). On the one hand we are interested here in what impact, if any, various kinds of voluntary action tend to have on various kinds of individuals. On the other hand, we would also like to know why some kinds of voluntary action have a greater impact than others on some people.

The nature and determinants of the impact of exceptional individuals upon and through voluntary action of various kinds.

This category turns around the focus of the previous category. Instead of asking how voluntary action affects its participants, we ask how individual participants affect voluntary action. We are not interested in the obvious relationships here — that voluntary action, voluntary groups and voluntary societies could not exist without individuals. Rather, we are especially interested here in the impact of *exceptional* individuals upon voluntary action in various realms and at various system levels.

The values of voluntary action.

The questions that arise under this topic deal with evaluating various kinds of voluntary action in terms of various standards of

value. A complete description of the value of voluntary action would indicate how each of the many kinds of voluntary action (individual, group or societal voluntary action aimed at all kinds of purposes, using all kinds of means and having all kinds of effects) is good, bad or indifferent relative to major kinds of alternative value standards of interest. To make this task more manageable, it is probably wise to select a few major value systems or standards and then to determine how voluntary action contributes to, hinders, or is neutral with respect to the achievement of the goals implied by each of these value systems. For instance, if one wants a maximum of governmental control over citizen behavior, then certain kinds of voluntary action (e.g. of the sort found in Red China and the U.S.S.R.) are most "valuable" while others are "bad" or "dangerous." On the other hand, if one wants to optimize the freedom, equality of opportunity and the quality of life of all individuals, then quite different kinds of voluntary action may be most "valuable", while contrasting kinds of activity will be "bad." Under the present analytical category of interests will fall also concerns with the "normal" vs. the "pathological" in voluntary action, at least insofar as these terms are defined in terms of values rather than in terms of empirical frequency of occurrence. (*Empirical* frequency-based definitions of normality and deviance will emerge once adequate survey data is available on a broad scale for the various topics listed earlier in the present scheme.)

The futures of voluntary action.

Under this category come all manner of speculative questions, descriptions and projections regarding possible alternative futures for voluntary action of various kinds. In part, this category is included to make it clear that concern with voluntary action should very much be a part of the emerging field of future studies and that experts in that field should not overlook this important aspect of human and social behavior in their work. In another sense, the present analytical category is complementary to category *b*, which deals with the history of voluntary action, and category *c*, which deals with the history of concepts of voluntary action.

The development of methods for studying voluntary action.

Theories, concepts, definitions and ideas about voluntary action have been relevant to all of the foregoing analytical categories, with special emphasis being present in categories *a* and *c*. Methods of study, analysis and evaluation have likewise been relevant to most of the foregoing categories, yet our analytical scheme as a whole would be incomplete if we were to omit a special category that highlights concern for methods of studying voluntary action. Under the present category fall all manner of specific and comparative questions regarding how to study, reconstruct, understand, explain, predict and project voluntary action of all kinds.

The development of voluntary action theory and research as a professional and scholarly field of interdisciplinary study.

This final category of our analytical scheme indicates our self-consciousness about the professional, scholarly study of voluntary action. Here we wish to raise all of those questions about where we have been as professionals in the scholarly study of voluntary action and where we might be going. Matters of ethics, value assumptions and connections with practice are all appropriate to raise here, as are questions about how best to organize ourselves and to operate in the future.

The foregoing conceptual scheme is by no means the only one relevant to voluntary action research, of course. There have been and will continue to be many kinds of schemes developed for specific areas or aspects of voluntary action research, as well as schemes that attempt to encompass all major areas of voluntary action in general (15). Still, what we have presented here should give the interested reader a flavor of what is going on in the area of conceptualization and typologies of voluntary action. And there is great need for more of this kind of conceptual work in voluntary action. Without it we cannot even talk sensibly to one another about our mutual interests and problems.

3. *Solutions to the need for synthesis of knowledge and theory about voluntary action:* Where the main concern in the preceding section was developing adequate concepts and typologies of voluntary action, the present section deals with the problem of reviewing the literature and creating integrated theories of voluntary action. We are interested here in what has been done or

can be done to reduce the fragmentation of knowledge about voluntary action by stringing together and drawing together what we know from various fields, countries, and substantive areas of voluntary action.

Perhaps the most extensive effort aimed at meeting the need for review and synthesis of existing knowledge is the annual series of volumes entitled *Voluntary Action Research: 1972; 1973;* etc., being published by Lexington Books of D. C. Heath and Company (Lexington, Mass., U.S.A.), as noted earlier. This series was begun recently with the express purpose of bringing together what we know from different aspects of voluntary action research. Although the first two volumes have a strong sociological emphasis, reflecting the disciplinary background of most of their contributors and editors, future volumes will have an increasing range and balance of contributions from scholars of various disciplines and countries. *The important point is that the long-term effort has begun in earnest.* It will not be simply a "one-shot" operation at one point in time, but rather a continuous, ongoing process whose results are published annually in the different volumes of the series.

Each volume of the series will focus on two or three of the major topical areas of voluntary action theory and research, as described in the preceding section. No attempt will be made to make *every* annual volume completely comprehensive of *all* facets of voluntary action research. To attempt the latter would result, we believe, in continually skimming the surface of research knowledge, rather than digging more deeply into the various major areas. The present plan, by contrast, should result in all major topics being covered in some depth over a period of years, even though any given annual volume only tackles a few main themes.

Voluntary Action Research: 1972 (first published in late Spring of 1972) focused primarily on two areas. Part One, as suggested earlier, deals with various conceptual and definitional issues with regard to voluntary action. Part Two deals with the determinants of individual participation in organized voluntary action (who volunteers, why they do it, etc.). *Voluntary Action Research: 1973* (just published in early 1973) will focus on two quite different areas: voluntary action through space and time

(matters of the incidence and prevalence of voluntary groups in history, among contemporary nations, etc.) and the impact/effectiveness of voluntary action (how does it affect its participants, its "clients", the larger society, etc.).

The contents of *Voluntary Action Research: 1974* and subsequent volumes have not yet been finally determined. However, the overall plan for the next several volumes is to cover a series of themes that may be briefly summarized as follows.

A Cross-National and Cross-Cultural Review of Contemporary Research and Theory Regarding Voluntary Action

Reviews of research by nation for various Western and nonWestern nations. Where research is scarce, chapters will be prepared to cover whole regions (e.g. Black Africa, Saharan Africa and the Middle East, Southeast Asia, Central America, etc.). Where research is plentiful, several chapters may deal with subfields of research and theory within a given country or set of countries. To the extent possible, reviews will be done by competent nationals, or at the very least by persons actively engaged in research in the area concerned. Overview chapters will be included to compare findings between regions and nations. A standard list of *analytical* areas of voluntary action research to be touched on would be followed by chapter authors, although in many cases some analytical areas would have to be dismissed from lengthy consideration owing to lack of research. Overall, the present theme lends itself easily to being treated partially in a series of volumes over time, nation by nation, region by region, in rotation — returning to high-research-frequency countries or areas more often over the years.

Disciplinary and Professional Perspectives on Voluntary Action Research and Theory

Review of the work being done on or relevant to voluntary action in each of the social science disciplines and relevant professions, as listed earlier. The focus of chapters would be on how the members of the given discipline/profession view voluntary

action theoretically; the impact of recent changes on perspectives and research emphases; the emergence of new general theories or research findings in the discipline that have some bearing on voluntary action research; discussions of future needs, issues, and prospects; discussions of why the discipline/profession has its current level and type of interest in voluntary action; how disciplinary or professional considerations limit voluntary action research of certain kinds; etc. Chapters may be clustered in sets of related disciplines and professions, with an overview chapter relating the perspectives of these clusters of related disciplines/ professions. Alternatively, a broad mix of disciplines/professions may be sought in each volume. The broad theme lends itself to continuous, rotating treatment in a series of volumes over time, with high intensity voluntary action research disciplines/ professions being treated more frequently (e.g. sociology, political science, social work, etc.).

Voluntary Action as an Emerging Interdisciplinary and Interprofessional Field of Study

Review of major aspects of voluntary action as a separate emerging field of study in various countries and the world as a whole. The major topics to be dealt with include (a) *theories and concepts* that may contribute to integration of research across conventional disciplinary and professional lines, (b) *methods* (especially new or different methods) of voluntary action research and the actual vs. ideal usage of various methods for investigation of different topics, (c) *assumptions and values* underlying voluntary action theory and research, and the impact these values have on the nature, quality and impact of theory and research, (d) *past and present progress* in the development of voluntary action as a separate interdisciplinary field of study in comparison with the development of other similar special fields (urban studies, future studies, area studies, etc.) and (e) major *future alternatives and priorities* for research, theory, and the general development of the field of voluntary action.

The Nature and Development of Voluntary Action from Early Times to Modern Society

Interdisciplinary, interprofessional, and cross-cultural review of

the nature, origins, growth, change, decline and dissolution of voluntary action in its many forms over periods of historical time. Emphasis would be on a broad historical approach, although some contemporary review of the incidence-prevalence of voluntary action might also be included here. The growth and development of voluntary action on a territorial and cultural basis, and the linkage of such phenomena with specific theories of social change and development from various disciplines, would be summarized in overview chapters for certain broad historical time periods and/or nations-cultures-subcultures. Since this theme includes describing and analyzing voluntary action in all of human history, there will be little difficulty in treating portions of this vast array in *each* of a series of volumes. Breakdowns by society (or region) and time period readily suggest themselves. Special chapters might also be written from time to time on such topics as the *history* of *concepts* of voluntary action, and possibly the projection of *future* trends in popular or scientific concepts of voluntary action.

Analysis of the Nature and Operation of Voluntary Movements, Associations, Groups and Programs

Review of research and theory pertaining to the structure and functioning of the more organized forms of voluntary action. Major subthemes here would include: (a) the comparative nature and determinants of the *origin, growth, decline, and dissolution* of individual voluntary groups, movements, etc.; (b) the nature and determinants of *relationships and transactions* between voluntary groups and other organizations, groups or individual affiliates; (c) the nature and determinants of the *internal structure and functioning* of voluntary groups, movements, etc. − their membership composition, leadership and power structures, internal communications, economy, rituals, ideology, orientation and training procedures, standing in the community, recruitment practices, public relations activities, etc. Chapters fitting into this broad theme category will differ from those of the preceding theme by stressing comparative research and theory that is less tied to specific times and cultures. The prior theme takes more of a historical, interpretive, ethnographic, and case study approach, while the present theme seeks broad generalizations about how

voluntary groups work.

The Nature and Determinants of Individual Voluntary Action

Review of the role of individuals in voluntary action of all kinds. The 1972 volume of *Voluntary Action Research* places special emphasis on this theme, focusing in separate chapters on social background, attitudes, personality, capacities, and social context or environment as determinants of individual participation in the more organized forms of voluntary action. Future volumes may not only return to these subthemes after more research has accumulated, but also may focus on the role of each class of determinants on other forms or settings of individual voluntary action – riots and collective behavior, solitary altruistic behavior, informal groups of volunteers, volunteering for special tasks or roles, political participation, full-time volunteer roles (Peace Corps, Vista, etc.), and other major types of settings of individual voluntary action in addition to the usual focus on formal voluntary organizations as settings. Another kind of chapter falling into the present theme category would be reviews of the impact of special types of individuals on voluntary groups and movements (e.g. founders, charismatic leaders, revolutionaries, "great men," etc.). The role of socialization, learning, experience and education as ultimate determinants of individual voluntary action would be explored, as would situation and perceptual factors. Themes 4, 5, and 6 can be seen as ranges on a broad spectrum, starting with a very broad time and territorial focus (theme 4), narrowing then to a comparative focus on specific types of organizations or social movements (theme 5), and finally focusing even more narrowly on the individual participant in voluntary action (theme 6).

The Impact and Effects of Voluntary Action

Review of attempts to evaluate the impact of all forms of voluntary action on the individual participant, on groups, and on the larger society. Chapters would deal with (a) how voluntary action affects *individual* personality, capacities, attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, habits, emotions, relationships, etc.; (b) how voluntary action affects *constituent or affiliated groups* that are donors,

targets, competitors, suppliers, collaborators, consultants, etc., relative to a given voluntary association or movement; (c) how voluntary action affects the *larger community, society or world* in such areas as political decisions and power structures, public perceptions and beliefs, economic decisions and wealth distribution, religious beliefs and participation, access to public services and amenities of life, general satisfaction with life, educational and job opportunities, etc. Some review chapters will focus on a *class of outcomes* (e.g. economic or political outcomes) and summarize what kinds of voluntary action have been shown to have major or minor effects on these outcomes. Other review chapters will focus on a *type of voluntary action* (e.g. social protest groups or health service organizations) and summarize what kinds of outcomes have been shown to result from their activities. Special attention will be given to longitudinal evaluation studies, wherever available and relevant. Once again, the present theme lends itself to repeated treatment in a series of volumes, taking up different types or techniques of voluntary action and various types of possible effects or outcomes.

Transnational and International Voluntary Action

Review of those aspects of voluntary action that are specifically transnational or international in scope. This theme reflects the great and growing special importance of both governmental and nongovernmental international voluntary associations. The subtopics dealt with can include any or all of the foregoing themes, looking at them with a special interest in transnational relationships and phenomena. In some cases, chapters on particular aspects of transnational voluntary action will fit easily into the previous analytical theme categories suggested here, but the transnational perspective is perhaps sufficiently important to demand a theme category of its own − if only to serve as a reminder not to overlook it in dealing with the other themes. The collaboration of the Union of International Associations (Brussels, Belgium) will be sought to deal with this theme in the series of review volumes to come.

Utilization and Application of Voluntary Action Theory and Research Knowledge

Review of how existing voluntary action knowledge can or should be applied. Some chapters may focus on simple summaries of the most practically useful results coming out of all kinds of voluntary action research. Other chapters might focus on the most appropriate techniques for translating this scientific knowledge into changes and improvements in the real world of voluntary associations, movements, etc. Still other chapters would focus on "development research" or "application research" – research on how and why this knowledge *is* or is *not* applied effectively in various practical settings. Finally, some chapters would focus on the kinds of research or other activities that practitioners and leaders of voluntary action believe is *needed* if they are to change or improve the practice of voluntary action and its positive impact on society. Clearly, these topics also lend themselves to treatment in a series of volumes.

In addition to the *Voluntary Action Research* annual series of volumes, there are a number of other kinds of review and theoretical synthesis endeavors that bear mentioning. First, there has been at least one recent book *not* part of the foregoing series that attempts in a single volume to do much the same thing. This book, edited by Alan Booth and John Edwards (16), attempts to review knowledge about voluntary action.

The *Journal of Voluntary Action Research,* referred to earlier, will also serve as a long-term stimulus to synthesize knowledge about voluntary action by seeking out and publishing especially articles that attempt reviews, syntheses, or theoretical tasks. The *JVAR Monograph* series has already begun to serve this same purpose, as evidenced, for instance, by the Spiegel monograph on *Citizen Participation in Federal Programs: A Review* (17). In addition to examining the extent to which federal citizen participation programs in the United States have been functioning effectively, this paper also reviews the literature on citizen participation to determine what we know and where the big gaps in our knowledge lie.

Still another kind of synthesis of knowledge about voluntary

action is being fostered by the accumulation of a *master bibliography on all documents dealing with aspects of voluntary action.* With the contribution of existing bibliographies of various kinds, the Center for a Voluntary Society has been providing seed money for the development and computerization of this master bibliography over the course of the past year. The Center views this endeavor as part of its larger effort, in collaboration with the National Center for Voluntary Action, to develop and operate the VOLINFLO System (a partly computerized information collection, storage, synthesis, retrieval, and dissemination system dealing with all kinds of information relevant to voluntary action and voluntary groups).

Accumulating a comprehensive master bibliography on voluntary action research is a critical task since its component items will represent the base of knowledge that most needs to be synthesized and reviewed. The great variety of sources of research and publications about voluntary action makes such bibliographic work even more important than in some field where the past research studies can all be found reported in a small number of journals and books from only one or two disciplines. *Hence, sharing bibliographic information within and across disciplinary lines, within and across national lines, is a major priority in the field of voluntary action research.* Working on this task helps to meet the larger need for synthesis of knowledge about voluntarism.

If sufficient support can be found and if a publisher shows sufficient interest, the Center for a Voluntary Society expects to have some version of the master bibliography published every year or two. In addition, CVS is able to answer requests for bibliographic aid (references and materials on various topics and questions) for no cost or at a moderate cost, depending on the magnitude of the request and the work required to answer it.

Another relevant part of the VOLINFLO System on which CVS is working intensively is the "propositional inventory" of findings regarding voluntary action and how it works. This "file" of information is derived directly from review and synthesis documents, putting what we know in the form of capsulized generalizations about voluntary action. Because these generali-

zations only have scientific reliability and validity to the extent that they are rooted in, and come out of, adequate research and theory, the propositional inventory file can only grow at the same rate as review and synthesis activities within the field of voluntary action. So far, the propositions have come almost entirely from the papers in *Voluntary Action Research: 1972* and *1973.* Other review and synthesis materials will also gradually be assimilated as time passes.

4. *Solutions to the need for greater practical relevance of voluntary action research:*

As we presented it earlier, the problem of increasing the practical relevance of voluntary action research can be approached in two principal ways: through more effective dissemination of voluntary action research and through more interchange between scientists and practitioners in the research design process. Leaving the former aspect until the next section, we shall mention here *several recent kinds of attempts to increase the practical relevance of the design of voluntary action research.*

Perhaps the most important overall effort has been the creation of the Center for a Voluntary Society (CVS), a nonprofit organization located in Washington, D. C. As noted earlier, CVS is dedicated to serving a catalytic linking role between the scholarly research community, as represented in part by the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars (AVAS), and the full gamut of applied, practical voluntary action. Convinced of the importance of open and effective interchange between scholars and practitioners, CVS has worked, in the past year, on fostering such linkages in several ways.

One important kind of linkage CVS has worked on has been through aiding in the formation of AVAS itself. Agreeing in the great need for an Association of Voluntary Action Scholars, CVS has supplied this independent body with seed money for its foundation and initial year's operating expenses. Over the longer term, CVS will attempt, through collaboration with AVAS, to help link voluntary action scholars from all disciplines and countries with the needs and problems of applied voluntary action. In particular, CVS will attempt to convey to AVAS scholars a sense of the areas of special research concerns and needs

that are identified by CVS as critical from its day-to-day intensive contacts with all kinds of voluntary organizations and programs. Passed on through *JVAR,* the *AVAS Newsletter,* and other media to voluntary action scholars, this sense of the practical priorities of voluntary organizations and programs will serve in some degree as a continuous pressure on voluntary action scholars to make their research more relevant.

There are several other specific linkages between scholars and practical problems that CVS is providing. First of all, at the root of all major research projects are grants, whether from foundations or government agencies. If voluntary action research is really to become more relevant to practical needs, granting agencies must begin to insist on a greater practical relevance of projects they support. *CVS is able to make a contribution here to increasing the practical relevance of research in its capacity as referee for grant proposals on voluntary action research from various governmental agencies and foundations.* In providing a critique of such proposals, CVS pays careful attention to the overall practical as well as scientific needs of voluntary action.

Another type of linkage CVS performs between research and action needs is through consultation with graduate students and active scholars on the design of research projects. CVS provides design guidance to fledgling voluntary action scholars working on their dissertations as well as providing similar help and inputs to more advanced scholars in major local, national, or international projects. In each case, CVS tries to present the perspective of the practitioner to the researcher to help increase the practical relevance of the latter's research. By the same token, when surveys of various kinds are undertaken by voluntary organizations or practitioners, CVS also tries to help them see how their studies can contribute to science as well as to practical needs.

Still a third type of linkage CVS attempts to provide involves getting specific scholars in touch with specific voluntary organizations or programs, focusing on mutual research and application interests. When a particular voluntary group or program has a research or evaluation problem, CVS attempts to link them with researchers and scholars who can help them solve the problem. When a voluntary action scholar has a research interest or

problem, CVS attempts to link him or her with voluntary organizations or programs who are willing to cooperate with the scholar in being studied, providing that some kind of practically relevant results can be expected somewhere down the line.

A fourth type of linkage CVS provides comes directly from CVS-sponsored research. Though a small organization, CVS attempts to focus its resources for research, not only on the linking and catalytic activities just mentioned, but also on doing or *sponsoring some important kinds of practically relevant voluntary action research* itself, either with its own operating funds or with grants from external agencies. CVS chooses for such "sponsored" projects those voluntary action research topics that are of greatest practical relevance, greatest importance, or for which CVS has the best opportunity of success (e.g. as contrasted with some university-based research team). One major effort of this type was the study of "Business Executives as Community Volunteers", whose results were summarized in a recent *Harvard Business Review* article by Dan H. Fenn, Jr. (18). Another major effort, underway at the present time, involves studying the perceptions of voluntary organizations and the voluntary sector held by major institutional leaders in American society (in government, business, academia, religion, etc.).

A final type of linkage CVS provides between research and practice in attempting to make the design of voluntary action research more practically relevant comes in the form of *workshops, conferences, symposia, seminar sessions, etc.* Thus, CVS is regularly involved in a variety of formal and informal meetings of leaders and staff of voluntary organizations and programs. *To nearly all of these meetings, CVS attempts to invite voluntary action scholars as well as practitioners, with an eye to what scholars can take away in the form of sharpening their perceptions of the practical needs of voluntary action,* as well as any immediate contributions they might make to helping voluntary groups with their problems and needs.

For its part, the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars is involved in a number of parallel activities that are also related to increasing the practical relevance of voluntary action research. By no means are all AVAS scholars committed to making their

research *more* practically relevant, or even practically relevant at all. Nor should they be, necessarily. There is an important place for basic or "pure" research in the field of voluntary action as much as elsewhere in science. *Yet it is especially important that the practical relevance of voluntary action research be emphasized and increased. There are at least two basic reasons for this:*

First: without an increased demonstration of its relevance to action, social science research in general is going to find its sources of funding and grants declining, rather than increasing. Funds for more basic research are not likely to be eliminated, but are most likely to be viewed as a fraction of the total research budget, hence, with the bulk of funds going to more applied kinds of research. If the *percentage* of total research funds going to *basic* ("pure") social science research remains about constant (or even decreases), as is likely, then the principal means whereby the *absolute* amount of *basic* research funds can be increased is to increase the amount of applied research. Thus, a constant or declining percentage for basic research from increased *total* research budget in America (or elsewhere) may still result in more money in absolute terms for basic research. And, it must be remembered, basic research is what tends to get most scholars most excited.

Therefore, it is enlightened self-interest for more voluntary action scholars (or other social scientists) to increase the practical relevance of their research to applied needs, *even* if their long-range interests are in more basic research. Of course, the dichotomy between "applied" and "basic" research is an artificial one. These terms refer to two ends of a gradual continuum rather than to types of research that are different in kind. Hence, most scholars are able to do research that has both "pure" and "applied" components, if they so desire. It is our contention that voluntary action scholars (like other social scientists) are going to *have* to strike this balance more and more in the future in order to get funding for their research, rather than concentrating solely on the basic research questions that may primarily interest them now.

Second, there is an important moral obligation that challenges the voluntary action scholar as he designs his research: If he ignores the demands of practical relevance, he is thereby implicitly

refusing to help the many kinds of voluntary action that usually he would state that he supports in principle. Voluntary action in its many forms, especially in its service-oriented and issue-oriented forms, is the vital force for resolving a great many of our most pressing social problems as well as for developing new and better ways of coping with our human and biophysical environement. To refuse to attune voluntary research more adequately to practical needs and problems thus aids (by failure to act when the opportunity is there) the forces that produce and exacerbate these problems. "If you are not part of the solution, you are part of the problem."

Following on this line of thinking, AVAS has recently published a document on "Voluntary Action and Social Problems" (19). This *JVAR Monograph No. 2* reports the results of a year-long effort to identify some of the highest priority practical needs and problems seen by leaders and staff of major American voluntary organizations of various kinds. The principal aim of the *Monograph* is to make these practical needs and problems clear as research priorities for the scholarly community. Voluntary action leaders have spent some of their valuable time on cooperating with this study in the hope and belief that scholars would pay some attention, focusing some of their research more clearly on these pressing practical problems. With various kinds of stimulation and prodding from AVAS where necessary, it remains the task of scholars now to follow through in reaction to this document.

The *AVAS Newsletter, JVAR* and various conferences and meetings that AVAS holds will also devote some significant effort to this problem of increasing the practical relevance of voluntary action research. Among other things, these activities and publications will serve as forums (of a sort hitherto nonexistent) for the serious sharing of problems and ideas between voluntary action scholars and practitioners. In fact, the term "scholar" has been purposely defined very broadly by AVAS to include thoughtful practitioners and professionals who wish not only to link up with social science knowledge about voluntary action but also to influence the level of practical relevance of voluntary action research. *These AVAS-connected communication media now permit a kind of science vs. action, knowledge vs. practice*

interchange that has not been very feasible on a broad scale prior to the founding of AVAS.

One final kind of practical relevance-inducing activity that AVAS and CVS both will undertake in increasing degree is *to test the knowledge of voluntary action scholars against harsh reality.* If voluntary action scholars really know anything of any use, then practitioners should be able to use it and scholars should be able to tell them *how* to use it. Through CVS and through other connections with practical voluntary action, *AVAS scholars will be encouraged increasingly to consult with specific voluntary groups and programs in an effort to help them with their problems.* Where the scholar has relevant knowledge from past research or theory, he will have to marshall it simply and succinctly to help solve the need or problem presented. Where he thought he knew something and it turns out not to work or not to be true, the scholar (and others) will have to consider further research to find out what happened and why – which will lead to increasing the practical relevance of voluntary action research. And where the scholar can find no substantial scientific knowledge supporting any particular line of attack or solution, he will again have to consider some specific kind of research to begin to supply the relevant knowledge – which again will lead to increasing the practical relevance of voluntary action research. *Thus, whether or not the researcher-scholar is able to help immediately, it will help markedly to increase the practical relevance of voluntary action research in the future if more and more scholar-researchers are sought out and/or seek to engage in practical consultation with voluntary groups and programs about their problems.* Scholars must see such activity in part as an investment in designing more relevant (and hence, probably more fundable) research of their own in the future, while practitioners must see such activity as a complementary investment in more relevant future research results that can help them with their problems and effectiveness. Each must be willing to meet the other half way –scholar and practitioner.

5. *Solutions to the need for more effective dissemination of voluntary action research and accumulated experience (20):*

People who want to start a volunteer program or group focused

on a particular task or interest need to find out whether they are duplicating existing services in their community, metropolitan area, state or nation. They need to learn both from the accumulated practical experience of people who are successfully operating such programs elsewhere, as well as from the accumulated research and evaluation studies that have been made on such programs or groups. They need to know where to turn for possible technical assistance, training courses for key staff members, training materials for volunteers, funding sources, evaluation methods, possible collaborators, etc.

The leaders, staff and coordinators of volunteer programs and groups need all of these kinds of information, but they especially need program management skill, information about how to obtain it and information about what it can do to improve their program. In order to improve the skills of present leaders and administrators, information on available training materials and training courses is necessary. Young people and people making career decisions in midlife need to know about career possibilities in the voluntary sector and how to prepare for and enter such career roles. Information on specific "exemplary practices" are needed to improve particular aspects of the operation of their program — recruitment, supervision, training, budgeting, etc.

At all levels of government, from federal to local (even neighborhood) levels, both legislators and administrative governmental officials need to know what sorts of voluntary groups and programs are available, whom they serve, how effective they are, how they can be helped to improve, etc. Only with such information available can the leaders of the public sector make rational and wise decisions regarding the allocation of scarce public resources so that the activities of the public sector and the voluntary sector of any nation are mutually complementary rather than wastefully competitive and uncoordinated.

Corporate planners and chief executives, public affairs executives, community relations executives and other corporate business officials need information about voluntary action at the international, national and more local levels, especially in the localities where they have their branch plants and offices. Such information is necessary for the business sector to make rational and wise

decisions regarding the allocation of scarce corporate resources to the voluntary sector – charitable and philanthropic corporate giving, *"pro bono publico"* time of executives assigned to participate in voluntary organizations or programs, and encouragement of executive and employee participation in local or national voluntary programs, etc.

Foundations, major philanthropists, and even the average charitable donor need comprehensive information about the activities of the voluntary sector and its bewildering variety of voluntary groups and programs, all of whom need or want more money. Information is especially necessary on the degree of coverage of different service areas in a given region or locality (lack of certain kinds of volunteer programs versus duplication of certain other kinds) and on the cost-effectiveness of all kinds of voluntary programs. Such cost-effectiveness information should not only compare voluntary programs with *similar* programs elsewhere, but should also compare voluntary programs with *different* kinds of voluntary programs and even with public sector or business sector programs. In this way, foundations, philanthropists and the general public can better determine where their charitable giving can do the most good.

The developing field of voluntary action theory and research, drawing upon scholars from more than 30 disciplines, needs a number of important kinds of information in order to facilitate and foster more and better study and evaluation of voluntary action in its many forms. Researchers require information on which other scholars are working on what topics, what past theory and research have found, where to find funding for research or evaluation studies, what research issues or practical problems are most in need of research attention, what voluntary organizations or programs are most likely to be able to use a given set of new research findings, etc. *By building a concern for the information needs of researchers into our definition of the problem, along with a concern for the information needs of practitioners, the vital two-way linkage and communication flow between knowledge and practice will be assured in the field of voluntary action.* If either scholars or practitioners have to develop their own information systems in isolation from the other group, the subsequent links

between the two groups will always be less strong than if they develop from the outset a merged information system that serves the needs of both and that fosters easy communication between members of the two groups.

In the face of these massive needs for *more* information, and in particular, *the need for more effective dissemination of existing (and expected future) information relevant to voluntary action,* a number of important organizations and programs have developed in the past few years in the United States. Together with similar efforts elsewhere, these activities provide a variety of workable solutions to the needs outlined above.

One of the first organizational responses to such needs on an international scale was the Union of International Associations, located in Brussels, Belgium (21). The U.I.A. has focused particularly on meeting the research and information needs of *international* voluntary organizations (or nonprofit, nongovernmental organizations, to use their usual terminology). In the course of their work, they publish a *Yearbook of International Organizations* and the monthly journal *International Associations,* as well as special studies on various aspects of this important area of voluntarism. They also disseminate relevant information on their chosen aspect of voluntary action by means of conferences, international congresses, and through personal consultation.

In various countries there exist resource organizations that attempt to meet specific information dissemination needs regarding voluntary action in general or a particular kind of voluntary organizations. For instance, Great Britain has a nation-wide network of Citizen Advice Bureaus that, among other things, supply information to individuals and groups about most kinds of voluntary organizations and programs that exist in a given community. Or, to pick a substantive type of voluntary action, there is, also in Great Britain, a clearinghouse on the nature and activities of cooperatives all over the world. Similar information centers, focused on a variety of substantive types of voluntary action, can be found in the United States and elsewhere (22).

There have been two major problems with such voluntary action-relevant information centers and resource organizations in the U. S. (and to a substantial degree in many other countries): (1)

the lack of a truly comprehensive national information center or system, and (2) the lack of specialized information centers in a number of important areas of voluntary action. To deal with these problems, the Center for a Voluntary Society and the National Center for Voluntary Action have been collaborating in a joint venture called the VOLINFLO (*Vol*untary Action *In*formation *Flow*) System.

The VOLINFLO System is an information collection, organization, storage, retrieval and dissemination system for *all* kinds of voluntary action, but with a special initial emphasis on service-oriented volunteer programs in the U.S.A. When fully operational, VOLINFLO will have as its information base a score of different types of primary information "files", each one dealing with a different type of voluntary action information and designed to meet the needs of one or more types of users. There will be three broad categories of files:

1. One set of files will be specifically oriented toward usage by leaders and members of the several million voluntary groups and programs active in the United States and elsewhere. These files will deal with *answering practical questions about voluntary action, training and education materials, training courses and programs, funding sources, exemplary practices and expert human resources available for consultation* on the planning and implementation of voluntary action.

2. Another set of files are oriented more toward usage by researchers and scholars from all countries in the developing field of voluntary action, both for basic research as well as for applied research and program evaluation. These files will contain *information on voluntary action scholars, research problems, research in progress, evaluation methods, research and evaluation funding sources, synthesized knowledge in the form of propositions and social indicators (primary data) relevant to voluntary action.*

3. A third set of information files are expected to receive general usage by both practitioners and scholars, as well as by interested individuals and groups from the government and business sectors. These general files will include *information on voluntary action programs and projects, voluntary organizations and groups, voluntary action leaders past and present, and*

references and abstracts of printed materials or documents of all kinds dealing with voluntary action.

The CVS-NCVA Collaboration

The Center for a Voluntary Society and the National Center for Voluntary Action are the two organizations best suited for the task of developing and operating the VOLINFLO System in the United States. CVS places its substantive emphasis on research, policy analysis, training, field services (consultation), and information dissemination in the field of voluntary action, while the primary emphases of NCVA are placed on coordinating voluntary action itself (through local Voluntary Action Centers), publicity and public relations regarding voluntary action, a newsletter reporting on current trends in voluntarism, and dissemination of program information (through the present clearinghouse). *The activities of the two organizations currently overlap mainly in the area of information dissemination, and this is precisely where they attempt to collaborate in developing and operating the VOLINFLO System.* The other substantive areas of CVS and NCVA are largely *complementary.* In terms of their grass roots organizational structures and plans for near term future growth, the two are also complementary: NCVA is developing and supporting the operation of permanent Voluntary Action Centers in communities around the country, while CVS is developing more *ad hoc* and task-specific forms of relationships with practitioners and scholars in the field of voluntary action around the country (specific training programs, research projects, consultations, etc.).

Both CVS and NCVA have demonstrated a capability to develop and operate the kind of information system envisaged here by developing pilot or, in some cases, fully operational versions of some of the information files to be part of VOLINFLO. A rough division of labor, with some overlap, has been arrived at, as follows.

The *Research and Documentation Service of the Center for a Voluntary Society* has been working for the past year on preliminary versions of several of the information files for which it is responsible. At the present time, these "operational" files

include (1) a computerized bibliography of over 5,000 documents (books, articles, pamphlets, dissertations, reports, etc.) relevant to voluntary action, (2) a "Core Library" of basic books and other documents of interest to the practitioner and/or scholar of voluntary action, (3) a list of important and practically relevant research problems that representatives of voluntary action groups would like to see solved, (4) a set of propositions summarizing and synthesizing the latest social science knowledge about several major facets of voluntary action theory and research, (5) a computerized list of nearly 1,000 researchers and scholars from more than 30 disciplines who are known to be interested in one or another aspect of voluntary action theory and research, (6) a computerized list of the largest voluntary organizations (those with 10,000 or more members) in the United States, and (7) a Question-and-Answer File that lists many of the basic questions often raised by pragmatic voluntary action leaders and staff, together with the best available answers or solutions derived from research, evaluation, and the experience of others.

Work also is in progress by CVS on (8) a nationwide sample survey of college level courses on voluntary action-related topics, (9) a directory of resource organizations and information services from all over the U. S. that are able to help voluntary groups in various ways (e.g., through research, information, consultation, funding, etc.) and (10) a set of materials describing various kinds of evaluation methods for voluntary action groups and programs. Several of these information files are being developed in close collaboration with the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars discussed earlier.

For its part, *the Clearinghouse of the National Center for Voluntary Action* is now providing brief "case histories" of voluntary action programs registered by about 5,000 groups and agencies across the United States in all areas of human and social services as well as the improvement of the environment. A beginning has also been made in several other areas of VOLINFLO information files, including (a) a listing of organizations that can provide specialized information and/or technical assistance to voluntary programs, (b) a listing of publications which provide practical backup information in all major areas of voluntary

action, (c) a listing and description of the special training courses and programs available for volunteers and volunteer administrators at major universities and colleges around the country, and (d) a listing-description of training materials published and available to the public.

All interested individuals and groups will have access to the contents of the VOLINFLO System, although a queueing system may eventually be instituted in an attempt to serve major and repeated users on a higher priority basis. Insofar as external funding permits, usage of the VOLINFLO System will be on a no-fee or very low-fee basis, although in the long term (i.e. five years after the system began to be developed and operated) user fees are one major possibility for maintenance of VOLINFLO. Other long-term funding possibilities include dedicated endowment income, an annual fund-raising campaign, annual contributions from major users, etc. The most viable long-term funding "mix" remains to be worked out as part of the development of the overall VOLINFLO System. At the moment, both CVS and NCVA are working on VOLINFLO mainly with funds from their respective central operating budgets, not yet having been able to obtain extensive external funding.

The need for information systems in the voluntary sector is made clear in the most concrete way by the fact that a number of specialized and often localized information services already exist and serve an expanding body of users. At the national level, CVS and NCVA in combination handle hundreds of information requests each month. With normal expansion, these requests could number in the thousands within a few short years. Other national and local information centers could doubtless cite similar or often larger figures. *Yet without some degree of centralization and coordination, these various information sources will continue to grow in a way that leads to unnecessary duplication in some areas and to lack of coverage in other areas.* The VOLINFLO System will attempt to provide some of the necessary centralization and coordination. It will attempt to serve, through its two principal operational arms (the CVS Research and Documentation Service and the NCVA Clearinghouse), both as a *central linking agent* with all other existing information sources on voluntary action, *as well*

as a primary information source itself, developing further and operating a number of information files.

Channels of Dissemination

There will be three main channels of distribution for the information in the System, and these same three channels will also be the primary sources of requests or queries for the System.

NVCA will be one major channel, handling major users and specialized requests through its Clearinghouse in Washington, D. C., while an increasing number of individual users and general requests will be handled at the local level through affiliated Voluntary Action Centers in communities around the country. Service consumers and individual volunteers, for instance, will be mainly served through the information and referral services of local VACs, while officials and staff of major foundations, governmental agencies, corporations and voluntary organizations are more likely to be served by the national Clearinghouse.

CVS will be a second major channel, again handling major users and specialized requests through its national research and documentation service in Washington, D. C. In addition, CVS will both receive requests and disseminate information through its training programs, field services, publication program, and special VOLINFLO System Usage Workshops in localities all over the country. The affiliation of CVS with its own Voluntarism Resource Network and with the independent Association of Voluntary Action Scholars will facilitate all of these connections with local levels.

The third channel both for information requests and for information dissemination *will be the various specialized local or national voluntary action information sources currently in existence* (or that may arise in the future). As part of its basic linkage function, the VOLINFLO System will attempt to work out agreements with these other information sources. When these other sources receive requests that are outside their specialized area of competence or their geographical coverage, they will be asked to send them on to NCVA or CVS. Similarly, when CVS or NCVA receives specialized requests that can be best answered by

one of these existing information sources, the interested party will be referred to them, The VOLINFLO System will also attempt to work out a satisfactory basis for the continuing exchange of primary information between CVS-NCVA and the other more specialized information sources and centers in existence. Thus, the VOLINFLO System does not propose to replace or compete with the more specialized existing information sources on the voluntary sector. Instead, *VOLINFLO proposes to link, coordinate, centralize, and fill in the gaps in information systems for voluntary action.*

In line with this last point, and responding to a problem mentioned earlier, *CVS is attempting to stimulate and facilitate the development of new specialized information centers for particular areas of voluntary action that now lack such centers.* Such centers will generally be quite independent of CVS (or NCVA), though linked to both through VOLINFLO. It is our firm belief that *each* substantive area of voluntary action (environmentalism, consumerism, volunteers in education, women's liberation, etc.) must eventually have its *own* comprehensive special information center, staffed by professionals who know their field "inside and out."

Such centers do not, however, eliminate the need for a VOLINFLO System as a central, national linking agent. Only with the parallel existence of a broader scope information system like VOLINFLO will the various *different* areas of voluntarism and their respective information centers be able to share effectively their information and accumulated experience *across* the major type areas (court volunteers, environment, citizen participation, voluntary health organizations, etc.). Further, only through something like VOLINFLO can the whole realm of applied voluntary action be effectively linked to the full range of voluntary action research and scholarship. In sum, both a central resource system and more specific substantive information centers are needed — though much work remains to bring both aspects to their full potentials of effectiveness and breadth of coverage.

Practical Payoffs for the User of VOLINFLO

As things now stand, the various types of user-clients described

earlier face a number of severe problems in getting the information they need to pursue their various individual and organizational goals. For many kinds of necessary information on the voluntary sector there is currently *no* place to go, no really relevant source in existence. For other kinds of information, there *are* some relevant existing sources but those sources are scattered, incomplete, too specialized or too generalized, understaffed, or simply unknown to those who are most likely to use them. Even where really relevant and appropriate sources are known and accessible, present levels of coordination are inadequate and the user may have to write or call several different sources in order to obtain complete information on his topic of interest. VOLINFLO proposes to help change this situation.

When in full operation, VOLINFLO will help all types of users in the following ways:

By providing widespread publicity and hence increased aware-ness at all levels (national and local) of the information related to voluntary action that is available through VOLINFLO. If everyone can be made aware of VOLINFLO, and how to use it to advantage, then VOLINFLO can effectively use its three channels to link *all* kinds of users to the specific, practically useful kinds of information they need.

By providing direct linkage to and coordination among all existing voluntary action-relevant information sources. This will greatly reduce the many forms of wasted effort that now face the user who presently must try to sort out for himself what the existing sources are and which ones could help most with particular information needs.

By providing the user with primary information about voluntary action that is relevant to his needs. This will centralize user access to many kinds of important information already available, while at the same time filling in a number of important gaps in existing information resources. With a single request to VOLINFLO, the user will be able to obtain all of the following kinds of information about his question, topic, or area of interest: Brief descriptions of successful programs or projects on the topic specified, a brief or lengthy list of documents dealing with research and/or practical experience on the topic, brief

descriptions or relevant training materials and/or training courses dealing with the topic specified, brief descriptions of "how to do it" packages dealing with exemplary practices and ways of accomplishing things in the area specified, a list of resource persons or groups in one's locality that can be called on for consultation on the topic of interest, etc.

By constantly monitoring the information needs and priorities of all types of users and attempting to develop and operate the VOLINFLO System with changing user needs in mind. This central focus on users will require ongoing "test-marketing" of various kinds of information and materials as well as ongoing applied researcn on what new kinds of information and materials might potentially be most helpful to users. The result will be an information system that is optimally responsive to actual user needs, rather than being merely a *tour de force* of information handling techniques.

In sum, VOLINFLO will improve the situation for the potential user by increasing awareness of information resources regarding the voluntary sector, by developing linkages among all relevant information sources, by providing presently missing information that is needed and by being especially responsive to user needs. In this manner, dissemination of research and information about voluntary action will become more effective and more comprehensive over the next several years. CVS and NCVA have been working on various aspects of VOLINFLO for one to two years now (early 1973). With appropriate external grant funding, the system can be expected to become fully operational within four to five years more. It is a large task, but one well worth the effort, for it is aimed at filling a large need.

OTHER IMPORTANT TYPES OF RESEARCH AND INFORMATION DISSEMINATION RECENTLY INITIATED

Earlier in this paper we have described briefly the nature of several publications of the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars (e.g., *JVAR, JVAR Monographs,* the *AVAS Newsletter*) that are among the important new types of information dissemination recently instituted. *These AVAS-related publication*

media, together with AVAS conferences and meetings, are especially important because they represent effective dissemination of information to and from a whole new field of scholarly study that is emerging out of the common interests of numerous hitherto unrelated and somewhat isolated scholars who were "compartmentalized" in a single, traditional discipline or profession. The *Voluntary Action Research* Annual Series plays a similar innovative knowledge-disseminating role.

The recently established newsletter of N.C.V.A. (*Voluntary Action News* (23), edited by Jerry Boscher) also plays an important information dissemination role, with special focus on volunteer leaders and staff (although reviews of research reports are included), rather than on scholars as is the case with AVAS publications. This newsletter is unique in its attempt to cover the whole field of voluntary action in the U. S. on a monthly basis, rather than being specifically aimed at the members of a single voluntary group or at participants in a single field of voluntary action. Naturally, there are also excellent newsletters in various special fields of voluntarism and for various national voluntary organizations.

Two other important general communication media for the field of voluntary action require mention here: First, there is the established journal, *Volunteer Administration*, edited by Marvin Arffa (24). This quarterly publication is aimed at coordinators of volunteers, especially in hospitals or other health and welfare settings. It publishes thoughtful articles of a practical sort by knowledgeable professionals in the field. Second, there is the *Journal of Volunteers with Delinquents*, a newly begun quarterly journal edited by Donald Jansen (25). This periodical will focus mainly on the kind of voluntary action suggested by the title, with articles of both applied and scholarly interest.

The Center for a Voluntary Society has also recently begun some significant contributions to dissemination of knowledge about voluntary action. Through its *CVS Reprint Series* it makes available articles and papers from scattered sources of publication that have something special to offer to practitioners. Through its new *CVS Occasional Papers Series,* it makes available original (previously unpublished) contributions to knowledge relevant to

applied voluntary action, while the *CVS Monograph Series* does the same for longer documents. Several other kinds of printed media are in the development stage.

Turning from printed media to the more "active" mass media, we should simply like to note briefly that there are both films and TV program series in existence now on aspects of voluntary action. Most of these films and programs (usually college courses, credit or noncredit) are very recent developments. A great deal more development along these lines is needed in the future, especially with the growth of community-based Cable TV in the U. S.

Still another important form of dissemination is by means of workshops, conferences and training sessions. Since 1970 the Center for a Voluntary Society has run a special 10-day summer "Workshop for Administrators and Coordinators of Volunteers," at Bethel, Maine, intended to help leaders of voluntary organizations and others interested in improving their knowledge of and skills in the field of voluntarism. This workshop has been an innovation in being open to a wide *range* of leaders from different types of voluntary action groups and programs. Somewhat similar programs have also been run by the Center for the Study of Voluntarism at the School of Social Work of the University of Maryland, by the School of Continuing Education of Northeastern University, and by other colleges and universities in the U. S. (26). In addition, CVS and other groups and consultants have run a wide variety of special training workshops for particular voluntary groups and programs over the past year or two. These activities provide a kind of communication and dissemination of knowledge that simply did not exist to any significant degree until the past few years. But, of course, we need a great deal more of this.

A very special kind of workshop that needs to be mentioned here again is the "Workshop on Knowledge Utilization." The first such workshop of any magnitude held in the U. S. with a focus on voluntary action took place in February 1972 at the 4-H Club Center near Washington, D. C. (27). The aim of the workshop was to bring together both practitioners and scholars to share their problems and information. We spoke of this workshop earlier in this paper when discussing new modes for increasing the relevance

of voluntary action research to practice. Now we speak of it again in the context of new ways of disseminating research knowledge and accumulated practical experience to practitioners and leaders of voluntary action groups. *Such a "knowledge utilization workshop" can and should be held similarly on a regular (perhaps annual) basis for all kinds of voluntary action and perhaps in all states or regions of the country.* To do any less is to ignore one very powerful and effective mode of implementing research knowledge in applied voluntary action. *Voluntary action needs to have many more such knowledge utilization workshops if its future effectiveness and impact are to outstrip its past.*

Another very special conference-type activity in which CVS has taken a leadership role is the "Conference on Voluntarism and America's Future: Prologue to the Third Century." Taking place in January, 1972, this was one of the first (perhaps *the* first) national conferences called explicitly for voluntary groups of *all* kinds to examine and discuss their problems, strengths, and manner of relating most effectively to future trends in the United States and particularly in the voluntary sector of U. S. society. The voluntary sector of society clearly *needs* more of this kind of self-conscious sharing across the usual "compartments" of voluntarism if it is to grow and increase in effectiveness in the years to come.

Finally, CVS and various other resource organizations have increasingly begun to offer both free and fee-for-services consultation to leaders and staff of voluntary groups, as well as other individuals concerned with voluntary action. This is an important aspect of effective research and information dissemination because it brings the "knowledge-into-practice arch" down to its solid base in the reality of on-going problems and needs of voluntary action. Through such on-the-spot consultation, especially in the design and planning phases of problem-definition and problem-solution activities, CVS and other consulting organizations are able to help voluntary groups become more effective in both defining and accomplishing their goals. The *need* here is for more support for, and willingness to engage in such collaborative activities between voluntary action groups and resource organizations.

SUMMARY OF SOME KEY RESEARCH AND
COMMUNICATION NEEDS FOR THE FUTURE

We have now reviewed the past problems of voluntary action research and communication, together with recent attempts to provide various kinds of solutions to these problems. Before concluding this paper, we should make *a brief statement of the half-dozen of the areas of research and communication that most need attention in the future.* These six are chosen both because of their intrinsic importance and because of the amount of work remaining to be done on each. Various other important recent endeavors mentioned earlier in this paper will not be repeated, since they seem to be coming along pretty well at the moment. The tasks below are the ones that *most* need money, effort and imagination.

The VOLINFLO System

Above all else, the voluntary sector needs a comprehensive information and analysis system. Working together, CVS and NCVA have prepared the plan for such a system in general terms and have implemented various parts of it, at least in preliminary fashion, though often on a large scale. Literally billions of dollars are spent on voluntary action in this country each year, and additional billions worth of contributed time are given. Even more is spent on voluntary action in the rest of the world. Yet only a very tiny proportion of this money or time is spent gathering, collating, interpreting and disseminating information of broad usefulness to voluntary organizations and the voluntary sector. As a result, the wheel is continually reinvented, while many groups are trying to run trains in the dark with square wheels. *Funding and expanding VOLINFLO must be a top priority;* on its hinges the usefulness of most or all of the subsequent high priority topics in the present list.

Comprehensive Evaluation of Voluntary Action

A second very clear priority is the need for comprehensive and

detailed evaluation of voluntary action of all kinds. We need to know the impact, effectiveness, and consequences of various kinds of voluntary action programs, activities, and organizations. Voluntary action is increasingly receiving criticism that in focusing too often on a service role ("doing for") it is applying "band-aids" to the symptoms of deep-seated problems, rather than directing attention to the underlying causes of the problems. Policy-oriented and advocacy groups are much concerned with what they believe to be the causes of social and environmental problems, but are they really attacking the roots or are they in some cases self-deluded? Given a certain goal of voluntary action, what are the best means of accomplishing it? What is the optimal use of human resources (e.g. businessmen, youth, women, the aged, minority groups, the poor, etc.) in reaching a given goal? The voluntary sector probably needs some sort of combination of the four major types of voluntary action: service oriented, policy oriented, self-interest, and self-expressive voluntary action. But what is an optimal mix of each for long-range preservation and enhancement of our quality of life, civil rights and human rights? What are the areas where voluntary action vs. business vs. government can best do the job, and what combinations will work well in certain areas? All of these kinds of evaluation problems need to be attacked in a careful, thorough and scientific way, insofar as this is possible.

Study of Changes in Voluntary Organization Goals, Image, and Constituencies

The voluntary sector is in continual flux and change. By its very nature it contains a small minority of change-oriented, innovative groups and a large majority of more stable and traditional groups who are generally content to seek their service, self-interest, self-expressive or even policy goals within the context of the *status quo.* Moreover, today's innovative groups are tomorrow's stable groups. Thus, no single group or set of groups can for very long carry the banner of change and unselfish concern for the general welfare. Increasing size, bureaucratization, routinization of deeply felt values and commitment, organizational inertia and tendencies

for self-preservation lead every kind of group eventually to deviate from its original path, sooner or later. Yet this need not be a one-way process. Organizational revitalization can and does take place in certain cases. Many of the stable "majority" groups of voluntarism in America and elsewhere today are crying out for help in how *they* can change in the direction of greater relevance, greater responsiveness to present priorities and needs — both locally and nationally. These groups are seriously wrestling with questions of their own image and identity. In many cases, they find they must either change their "official" goal statements to bring them into line with the narrower or changed reality of what they are actually doing, or else they must change what they are doing to bring their activities once again into line with their aspirations as expressed in an official goal statement. Very often the latter alternative is expressed as a need to serve (in the broadest sense) a broader constituency or at least different constituencies (e.g. low income or minority groups, youth, the aged, women, etc.). *To deal with these problems, a number of research studies are needed that focus more intensively and extensively on these problems of goal change, image, self-identity and changing constituencies of voluntary organizations and programs.* The aim of the study would be to understand how these processes have worked historically and at the present time, as well as to describe the alternatives and options facing voluntary organizations for the future as they strive to retain or recover relevance to the general welfare and our quality of life. These options then may become action strategies to enhance the future of voluntarism, as adapted for use by various concerned voluntary groups.

Study of Coalitions, Co-operation, and Internationalization in Voluntary Action

For too long voluntary organizations and programs have tended to ignore each other's existence, or compete with each other, at least when it comes to concerted action and avoidance of redundant effort. With increasing pressures on America's and the world's resources, both natural and social, voluntary action must

give increasingly hard thought to the questions of short and long-term collaboration for the accomplishment of common goals. These forms of coalition must *not* be accomplished at the cost of eliminating pluralism, nor can the whole voluntary sector ever be neatly "managed" in a rational, economic, efficient way (unless totalitarian dictatorship is one's goal). But maintenance of freedom and pluralism is compatible with a consideration of greater collaboration than has so far been evident. When one looks at the world as a whole, at our "spaceship earth," the demands for such collaboration become even clearer. And collaboration in the voluntary sector need not be limited to our country or even to our continent. Some of the most important developments with regard to the survival of the human species as a whole revolve around our abilities to find areas of collaboration across national lines around the world, in the voluntary action area as much as in the areas of business and government. A great deal of information has been assembled and interpreted in recent years regarding transnational collaboration in the business and governmental fields, now *we need to mount an equal research effort in the realm of voluntary action, focusing not only on collaboration, actual and potential, within the voluntary sector of our society, but focusing also on the many kinds of actual and potential collaboration in voluntary action across national boundaries.*

Study of the Role of the Voluntary Sector in Society

Implicit in most of the studies suggested above is the assumption that the voluntary sector of society – *any* society – is important and worth preserving if one is interested in the general welfare of mankind, raising and maintaining the quality of life, preserving and enhancing civil and human rights at home and abroad. This does not mean that *all* kinds of voluntary action are good for the specific aims of the leaders of the business, government, or voluntary sectors of all societies in the world at the present time. Yet a strong historical case can be made for the general value of voluntary action and the voluntary sector as the source of "mutations," change, innovation, new ideas and new social relationships and ways of doing things in society. *What is*

needed is a marshalling of the evidence regarding the values and roles of voluntary action and the voluntary sector in general, so that reasonable leaders can make wise decisions in regard to voluntary action with full knowledge of the pros and cons. Many people (leaders of government, business, and the voluntary sector itself) fear all change-oriented forms of voluntary action and consider most other forms of voluntary action trivial or at best a harmless diversion. Both of the latter viewpoints are serious misperceptions – forms of prejudice – if applied across the board. Yet *some* forms of change-oriented voluntary action *are* dangerous and *some* other forms of voluntary action *are* trivial or harmless diversions. These facts do not detract from the overall importance of the voluntary sector in society and in the world as a whole. In particular we need to give attention to perceptions of the voluntary sector by the leaders of business, government, foundations, education, religion, etc. We need to understand how the subtleties of a Tax Reform Act can in the long-run hamstring the voluntary sector's sources of funds, how an expanded Subversive Activities Committee can mainly have the consequence of registering and controlling the *non*subversive groups of the voluntary sector, how government entry into ever wider aspects of voluntarism can end up co-opting and stifling the independence and the innovative, creative impluses of the voluntary sector, etc.

Regular Performance of a National Baseline Survey of Voluntary Action

Last but not least of the half-dozen top priorities for research and communication is the pressing need for comprehensive time series data on what voluntary action is all about in this country. The government sector has regular data-gathering and reporting processes that provide the necessary baseline information on what different levels of government are doing where. The business sector can likewise depend, in America, for instance, on the decennial census, Current Population Surveys, the Census of Manufacturers, Dun and Bradstreet Reports, Standard and Poors Reports, their own company or industry market surveys and analyses, etc. to provide baseline information for rational

decisions. But the voluntary sector of society is totally lacking in any kind of comprehensive and regular data-gathering process for voluntary action in the nation as a whole. It is all well and good for the VOLINFLO System, mentioned in point #1, to pull together all of the scattered pieces of information available and to disseminate such information and interpretations to where it will do the most good. Yet without substantially greater inputs of "hard data," as from a biennial national sample survey of substantial magnitude, VOLINFLO will be insufficient. The most relevant information and data must be *produced* somewhere before VOLINFLO can gather, analyze and disseminate it. National leaders in all sectors – government, business and the voluntary sector – will be unable to make decisions or to settle priorities on the basis of adequate facts about voluntarism unless a regular baseline survey is done. Such baseline data must come both from a national sample survey of *individuals and* a national sample survey of voluntary *organizations* and programs; neither approach is sufficient by itself. This kind of baseline survey is an important component of *nonmarket activities* in our nation, and as such will be receiving increasing attention from economists as a possible component of GNP computations in the future, *if* we gather adequate data. At the very least, comprehensive data on voluntary action is a vital component of the social indicators approach that hopes to provide us increasingly with ways of measuring the good things of life, the quality of our lives on a national scale, in addition to (or as an alternative to) our traditional national focus on economic productivity as America's goal. In sum, from a number of points of view *there is great need for a comprehensive national baseline survey of the voluntary activity of both individuals and groups in our nation.*

CONCLUSION

"Voluntary action" refers to all those kinds of activity that are performed mainly for reasons other than direct economic remuneration or strong physical-legal-social coercion. Voluntary action is what people do, individually or collectively, because they really *want* to rather than because they *have* to in order to survive

in society. The motivation of individual voluntary action is distinguished generally by the prominence of psychic benefits and a sense of psychological-philosophical meaning. To use the current idiom, voluntary action is the kind of activity that "turns people on," regardless of whether it is helpful to others, to themselves, or to no one. We are naturally especially interested in voluntary action that has a *socially useful service component.* Yet the "voluntary sector" (or "independent sector") of society as a whole includes *all* those activities, groups, organizations, and institutions that have voluntary action as a primary element.

Organized voluntary action has a long history and is becoming an increasingly important and pervasive force in our society. Some organized voluntary action is relatively uncontroversial and rather clearly contributes to the general welfare – this is perhaps the traditional kind of activity (e.g. the Red Cross, YMCA, philanthropy, etc.) that most people think of when they hear the term "voluntary action." Other organized forms of voluntary action (e.g. lodges, clubs, art and musical societies, hobby and recreation groups) seem to be harmless diversions or "mere" recreational-social activities, yet their actual contribution to the social integration and psychic well-being of modern man in high pressure "mass society" can all too easily be overlooked. Still other organized forms of voluntary action are the controversial, often change-oriented groups and movements of a kind that have been active throughout history, but that have especially come to the fore in recent years (among, youth, blacks, women, etc.). For some, these "cause groups," "pressure groups" and militant movements toward a variety of goals are disturbances to the equilibrium of political, economic and social processes in our nation. On the other hand, many of us see these groups as the cutting edge of progress and social innovation in our society – a validation of our constitutional rights of free association, assembly and dissent. The presence of a great diversity of voluntary associations is at once a manifestation of, and part a guarantee for the continuation of, a pluralistic and democratic society.

Too many people, especially business, government and even foundation leaders, dismiss various forms of voluntary action as trivial, ephemeral, nonessential, or diversionary. But how can one

dismiss offhand such facts, for the United States alone, as the many *billions of man hours* devoted to voluntary action each year? *Billions of dollars in services contributed by volunteers? Billions of dollars* in services and goods *consumed? Billions of dollars contributed* for philanthropic purposes, for self-betterment, for social change? More than *50 million people* of all ages engaged in voluntary action? More than *5 million voluntary groups,* organizations and programs? *Millions of people helped* in various ways by voluntary action? *Thousands of different goals* sought and activities engaged in? When we add in the corresponding figures for other nations of the world the total is large indeed − too large to ignore.

Voluntary action, in some way, touches all individuals, all groups, and all nations (though more common in some nations than others). It has ancient and honorable roots. It is a major and unfathomed influence on the present, with great potential for good or ill. It will have an even greater influence in the future, as ever more people have more discretionary time and money to dispose of as they want, and as ever more nations strive for greater economic development (since voluntary groups are more prevalent in nations with a higher economic level) (28). Yet, voluntary action is still generally ignored, underestimated and left to its own devices.

Ours is a competitive world. To a startling extent, the vigorous and effective survive and prosper in every realm of activity. *Voluntary action must now become more fit and effective if it is to survive, prosper, and have its full measure of positive effect on the quality of our lives.* Ineffective and inefficient voluntary action is perhaps a luxury we can no longer afford to the same degree as has been true in the past. There is simply too much voluntary action for all of it to survive, compete for existing support, and be successful. Information, knowledge, and evaluations of effectiveness hold the key to deciding rationally what voluntary action should be supported (by foundations, corporations, citizens, government, etc.) and what should be left to decline as obsolete, ineffective, or actually harmful. The time has come to begin to take stands on these issues, rather than ignoring or sidestepping them as if there were no scarcity of relevant

resources and no hierarchy of goal priorities.

Formulating policy and selecting among alternative goals is always difficult, more an art than a science. But once goals have been set, research, knowledge, and practical information are the best guides to action. Without the necessary research and information to guide it, voluntary action can *never* fulfill its promise and potentials. Considering the importance of voluntary action and the billions of dollars and hours of valuable time involved, it is extremely negligent not to provide voluntary action and the voluntary sector of society with an adequate and continuing information-knowledge base for planning and evaluation. For a relatively small dollar investment (by government agencies, business corporations, foundations, private philanthropists, etc.), a very great relative impact can be expected upon voluntary action and the society at large. Only by developing adequate research and information systems and operating them over time for the general benefit of all kinds of legal voluntary action can the voluntary sector move out of the realm of myth, ignorance, wishful thinking, tradition and trial-and-error. *Only the development of such systems can enable voluntary action to become optimally effective and efficient in any society.*

In this paper, we have examined a number of major research and communication needs in the field of voluntary action, together with a series of several projects aimed at meeting these needs. *These projects are aimed at developing new, relevant, pragmatic, optimally effective forms of voluntary action*, while understanding and evaluating the nature of existing voluntary (nonmarket) activities. Given an adequate information base, scientific evaluation techniques, operations analysis, and general "cost-effectiveness" approaches can be applied with appropriate adaptations to voluntary action, in much the same manner as they have been applied successfully to other areas of human activity — technology, business, government. The long-run result will be, we expect, better voluntary action — better in the sense of less wasteful of human and other resources, less redundant, more effective, more clearly aimed at the greatest good of the greatest number.

Such projects as the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars,

the *Journal of Voluntary Action Research,* the *Voluntary Action Research* Annual Series (of Lexington Books, D. C. Heath and Company, U. S. A.), the VOLINFLO System (of the Center for a Voluntary Society and the National Center for Voluntary Action), and the Biennial National Baseline Survey of Voluntary Action, in particular, are unique.

They are *uniquely necessary* and likely to be *uniquely useful.* All are *comprehensive* in that they are not projects that need to be duplicated by various groups within a given country but should be done well by some agency or consortium. All are relatively *value-neutral* projects, whose results should be open for use by all public and private agencies and individuals, in the same way that U. N. statistics and national census data are freely available. All projects will thus be *accessible and responsive* to a very wide range of user and client (consumer) groups and individuals from all over the U. S. and elsewhere. And finally, all offer the potential for a *tremendous leveraged impact* upon the quality and effectiveness of voluntary action in the U. S. A. and the larger world community.

National goals, human progress, and plain common sense require that adequate information systems for the voluntary sector be developed. More importantly, the millions of international, national, regional, and local voluntary groups and programs comprising the voluntary sector in world society need such information if they are to play the strong role that is the hallmark of freedom and democracy. Legislative leaders, government officials, corporate planners, public affairs and community relations executives, foundation officials, philanthropists, scholars and many others also need this information about voluntary action in order to plan and pursue their *own* goals without duplication of effort or inefficiency relative to the voluntary sector. *Voluntary action is there all around us, yet it goes largely unmeasured and unevaluated, if not unnoticed. The result is a great waste of our precious resources!*

REFERENCES

1. A much more detailed view of how "voluntary action" might be defined may be found in Part One of David Horton Smith, *et al.,* Eds., Voluntary Action Research: 1972 (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, D. C. Heath

and Company, 1972, in press). See especially Chapter 11 of that volume, co-authored by the present writer, for a full presentation of the present approach.

2. The nature and history of these various kinds of voluntary organizations is sketched in some greater detail in a paper by John Dixon and David Horton Smith entitled "Management and Voluntary Organizations," a chapter in a forthcoming book entitled Management in a Changing World (New York: The Conference Board, 1972, forthcoming).

3. For greater elaboration of the present approach to social structural levels of voluntary action, see Chapter 11 of Smith, *et al.*, Eds. (Note 1).

4. Groups are defined in detail in David Horton Smith, "A Parsimonious Definition of 'Group': Toward Conceptual Clarity and Scientific Utility," Sociological Inquiry 37 (Spring 1967): 141-168.

5. See James Shultz, "The Voluntary Society and Its Component Elements," in David Horton Smith, *et al.*, Eds., Voluntary Action Research: 1972 (see note 1).

6. See reference 1.

7. The Journal of Voluntary Action Research is published quarterly by the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars, an international, interdisciplinary and interprofessional association of persons with a serious intellectual interest in voluntary action (irrespective of academic degrees). Dues and subscription to JVAR are $12.00 per year at present. The Business Office of AVAS-JVAR is located in Room 506, 300, 1507 M St. N. W., Wash., D. C., 20005.

8. That workshop was stimulated and in part designed by the author, together with Dr. Milton Boyce of the 4-H Youth Development Section of U.S.D.A. and with Conrad Griffin, a Ford Foundation Leadership Fellow (1971-1972) and Cooperative Extension Agent from the State of Maine. A description of the content and process of the workshop can be obtained from the author at the Center for a Voluntary Society, 1507 M St., N. W., Wash., D. C., 20005.

9. This paragraph quotes and paraphrases freely, with permission, from the statement of purpose of AVAS printed in the Journal of Voluntary Action Research (Jan. 1972).

10. See reference 7.

11. See reference 1.

12. See Chapter of Voluntary Action Research: 1972 for a somewhat more extended view of major definitional-conceptual areas that still need substantial attention.

13. For a more complete description of the Conference, see "An Interdisciplinary Voluntary Action Task Force Planning Conference: Brief Report" by David Horton Smith (available from the Center for a Voluntary Society, 1507 M St., N. W., Wash., D. C., 20005.

14. Co-authored by David Horton Smith and the Participants of the

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15. Some examples of other typologies would include: David Horton Smith, "Types of Volunteers," Unpublished mimeo. paper, December, 1971, Center for a Voluntary Society, Washington, D. C.; C. Wayne Gordon and Nicholas Babchuk, "A typology of voluntary associations," American Sociological Review 24 (1959): 22-29; Dwight Sanderson, "A preliminary group classification based on structure," Social Forces 17 (1938): 196-201; Charles K. Warriner and Jane Prather, "Four Types of Voluntary Associations," Sociological Inquiry 35 (1965): 138-140.

16. Alan Booth and John Edwards, Social Participation in Urban Society; Morristown, New Jersey, General Learning Press, 1972.

17. Journal of Voluntary Action Research Monograph, Whole No. 1, 1971. Available from the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars (see footnote 7) as part of membership/subscription for calendar year 1972, or available separately from AVAS for $1.00.

18. See the Harvard Business Review, March-April, 1971.

19. See "Voluntary Action and Social Problems," Journal of Voluntary Action Research Monograph No. 2, 1971, published by the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars (see note 7). This monograph is available as part of membership/subscription ($12.00) for calendar year 1972, or available separately from AVAS for $1.00.

20. This section draws, with permission, on the unpublished document "Information Needs and Sources in the Field of Voluntary Action: The VOLINFLO System," by Helga Roth and David Horton Smith (available form the Center for a Voluntary Society, Room 300, 1507 M St., N. W., Wash., D. C. 20005). Dr. Roth's valuable contributions of ideas relating to these mstters of effective dissemination of voluntary action information are gratefully acknowledged.

21. Information on the activities and publications of the U.I.A. can be obtained from their headquarters at 1, rue aux Laines, 1000 Bruxelles, Belgium.

22. One of the best examples is the National Information Center on Volunteers in the Courts, directed by Dr. Ivan Scheier. Located in Boulder, Colorado, U. S. A. (P. O. Box 2150), this excellent resource organization plays a vital role in gathering and disseminating useful practical information (both from research and from accumulated experience) to the more than 2,000 court volunteer programs and more than 200,000 court volunteers in the U. S.

23. Available free from N.C.V.A., 1735 I Street, N. W., Wash., D. C., 20006.

24. Volunteer Administration is available on an annual subscription basis for $5.00, from the business office at 15 Pleasant Park Road, Sharon, Mass., 02067.

25. Journal of Volunteers with Delinquents is available on an annual

subscription basis for $8.00 from the Editor of the Journal at Ohio University – Lancaster, Lancaster, Ohio, 43130.

26. Dr. Helga Roth of the NCVA Clearinghouse can supply a folder of numerous similar courses either for volunteer coordinators or for volunteers themselves. Write to the Clearinghouse, NCVA, 1735 I Street, N. W., Wash., D. C., 20006.

27. See reference 8.

28. See David Horton Smith, "Modernization and the Emergence of Volunteer Organizations" Working Paper No. 6 of the Institute of Human Sciences Working Paper Series, Boston College, Chestnut Hill, Mass., 02167. A somewhat revised version appears in David Horton Smith, Ed., Voluntary Action Research: 1973 (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, D. C. Heath and Co., 1973).

Chapter 8

THE FUTURE OF VOLUNTEER ACTION

RUBY SILLS MILLER

IN the mid-sixties according to a U. S. Department of Labor study, the volunteer was profiled as: age — 30 to 44; race — white; occupation — housewife; socio economic group — middle class.

She was a homemaker with some leisure time and provided assistance to an elderly person, transported the ill to the hospital, led small groups in the church and community organizations, stuffed envelopes, and made coffee. She was usually called upon to provide some form of direct service and had sufficient financial resources to pay out-of-pocket costs of transportation, meals and incidentals.

By contrast, in the early seventies one large city reports a dramatic growth in the number of single, employed people, 20 to 30 years old, men as well as women, of all income groups. The federal government is conducting pilot programs to test volunteer contributions of the 65-plus age group by subsidizing their out-of-pocket costs.

Now and in the future the volunteer can no longer be referred to as "she", and no longer can women be expected to answer only direct-service appeals.

The career-oriented or housewife seeking liberation is no longer willing to just stuff envelopes, do the office detail, and accept the traditional housewife service roles. There is every indication that women's consciousness raising groups who are saying "make policy, not coffee" have no intention of lessening their demands. They want to engage in change-directed activities that will lead to active participation in the decision-making process.

With an increasing percentage of women leaving their homes for full-time, often demanding, professional and executive jobs,

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voluntary organizations accustomed to the volunteer housewife to carry out their programs are facing serious shortages. The situation is even more crucial for those organizations that must depend upon volunteers to provide direct service, particularly in leading informal education programs for young children on a regular basis during weekdays. Such organizations have two practical alternatives if quality direct service is to be maintained: (1) to reduce their programs to match the traditional volunteer resource pool available, thereby widening the gap in needs, or (2) to extend the opportunities to new and untested segments of the population.

Survival of volunteer-directed service programs in the 70's may depend upon using both alternatives with particular attention on innovative approaches and commitments on the part of paid professional leaders. They may need to offer many volunteers the opportunities to serve in both direct-service and decision-making or advocacy roles. The valued traditional volunteer, if retained for long periods, is often looking for greater stimulation and growth opportunities. The professional staff may need to improve their adult education programs, invite much younger and much older people, offer shared leadership opportunities, and adjust working hours to be available at the convenience of the volunteer who wants to get involved in evening or weekend activities.

Today there is the luxury of free time for a large segment of the population, many are highly educated and technically trained. There is the laboring or blue-collar class working only 35 to 40 hours per week, looking for worthwhile missions. There is a growing group of professionals, executives and manual workers who are at their paid jobs only four days each week.

One out of ten persons is in the retired age range. No longer are young people required to go to work at an early age, and if they were, there are not enough unskilled paid jobs open to them. Shorter working hours for the masses and limited job opportunities for the young appear to be continuing trends.

However engrossing one's paid job, hobbies or spectator sports may be, individuals with a reasonable amount of free time often lack a sense of participation, lack the stimulation that comes from exchanging ideas and experience frustration in being unable to resolve the myriad of societal problems affecting him and his

family. Men and women, young and old from all socioeconomic levels, want "a piece of the action."

In highly urbanized communities, cause-oriented groups met a special need for newcomers wishing to develop one-to-one or small group relationships. Without a common goal, many encounter difficulty linking with people they would like to know better. With no apparent curb in the tide of urbanization, an upward trend of issue and action-oriented groups is expected.

Many wish to engage in intellectual pursuits to compensate for lack of satisfaction in the day-to-day routine work and would engage in volunteer experiences if they added meaning and zest to living. They want to try new ways of solving problems that are sorely affecting them and their families. They want to help alleviate conditions of poverty; they want clean air; they want better housing; they want safer streets. They want to reduce pollution so they can be assured of a better quality of life for their children and future generations.

Social pressures and legislation in the late sixties and early seventies calling for "grass root participation" identified throngs of new leaders and willing followers who gave time, energies, and monies to causes in which they believe. They like what they have learned about themselves. Despite frustrations and many failures, they experienced sufficient successes to know "they can make a difference."

The business executive is beginning through citizen pressures to look at his corporation's social responsibility. Heretofore he personally took time out to be on community boards, to use his "clout," to be "in the know," to protect his business and to be recognized as a community leader. It was good for his image. He was not thought of as a volunteer, he had special status.

Today and in the future the corporate executive can expect to share the limelight with a cross section of citizens in the community. He has new opportunities of listening to Mr., Mrs., and Miss Average Citizen as they take their places on community boards and committees.

The average citizen is looking for status and recognition, too. He is also looking for ways of keeping the pressures on the business and corporate leaders to resolve the pollution and

energy-shortage problems. Business and corporate executives know they must now look at their social contribution for the citizenry rather than only the profit line for the benefit of their stockholders.

Tenants groups, welfare rights groups, block associations, and numerous others are experiencing a "sense of community" in their specialized groups. With success in a single purpose for which they came together, the participants do not disband easily. They have found the experience enlightening, intellectually stimulating, and encounter little difficulty in finding another problem to which they want and need to devote their attention. The astute community leaders and planners will be alert to helping such groups find new causes for channeling their energies and attention.

Volunteering today embraces the millions who participate in the political processes. Advocacy is becoming a key role for the ordinary citizen. He has learned that if he chooses he can combine forces with others of similar mind and pressure for changes, often quite effectively.

A far greater percentage of persons appears to be getting involved in decisions that are being made at all levels of government. The average citizen is becoming progressively more sophisticated and knowledgeable. He is and will increasingly in the future ask for more opportunities to engage in dialogue with government officials prior to and during consideration of legislation and regulations. Taxpayer revolts may be only a forerunner of citizens agreeing to gather around the conference tables to think through what cooperative services they wish and are willing to pay for through taxation. Such a process can be expected to replace the demonstrations and marches of the past decade. And legislators and lawmakers can be expected to listen more carefully and intelligently than they have in earlier years.

Families and individuals appear to be looking at themselves as individually responsible for their own future. With help of scientific knowledge and acceptance of new practices, much of which has come through voluntary organizations, families are voluntarily limiting the number of children because of the threatened overpopulation for available resources. The future of volunteer action may be focussed to a large extent on what an

individual or family unit chooses to do personally. Shortages of certain foods and the attendant price rises may well bring about a consumer revolution. With good communications and reliable information imparted to the average citizen via television, radio and newspaper, he may be expected to assume a vital "at home" volunteer role.

Voluntary organizations may begin to recognize a broader social responsibility than their individual programs to the extent that they will be willing to invest more time and energies and expertise for persons who need volunteer opportunities. Many young people, including those from low-income families, and housewives wishing to return to the world of work want to explore career opportunities. Others locked into dead end jobs want to upgrade their skills. Volunteering in the right situation gives them a chance to find out if they have the talent, the time, and the desire to pursue their goals.

Professional and business executives can be expected to contribute their highly priced skills if they can see results from their efforts; they are willing to make possible a community service that cannot reach the top of the priority list for tax revenue funding. This will account for some immediate monetary gains for a community from volunteering. The greater gains though are in the long range. The person whose objective is to explore career fields through short-term volunteering or who does not continue his service beyond a few days or weeks may not show immediate payoffs. The welfare recipient or ex-mental patient who gains independence will save future tax dollars even though having his volunteer help today may cost an organization or the community a few dollars.

But the greatest gain of all is the psychic income to every individual volunteer who increases his sense of dignity and identity and knows that he is often in a one-to-one relationship supplying an intangible need that cannot be paid for — even if money were available.

In today's highly depersonalized and computerized society, often Mr., Mrs., and Miss Average Citizen is in a quandary, feels isolated from his neighbor, and believes he can do nothing to improve his lot in life. Volunteering is only in its infancy if it can

find ways for citizens to become true participants, not just spectators, in the community's problem-solving tasks.

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APPLIED VOLUNTEERISM IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT
RICHARD E. HARDY and JOHN G. CULL

This book is an unusual combination of useful theoretical information and practical "how-to-do-it" approaches in applied volunteerism. It will be of real interest to all lay and professional persons interested and involved in the broad field of volunteerism. The book will be of considerable value in numerous settings including university classes in rehabilitation counseling, psychology, social work and other social science fields.

Among the topics included are: Origin and Types of Voluntary Activities, A Description of Some Federal Voluntary Programs, Industry and Volunteerism, College Students as Volunteers, Volunteers in Rehabilitation Settings, Retired Persons as Volunteers, Handicapped Persons as Volunteers, Volunteerism in Adult Basic Education, Volunteerism in Public Welfare Programs, and Voluntary Health Agencies and Their Work.

This well written text is highly practitioner oriented and includes a foreword by Mrs. George Romney. This book should be considered as a companion text to the book VOLUNTEERISM: AN EMERGING PROFESSION also published by Charles C Thomas, Publisher.

DRUG DEPENDENCE AND REHABILITATION APPROACHES
RICHARD E. HARDY and JOHN G. CULL

This book represents an unusual approach to offering information in the area of drug misuse and abuse. It bridges the gap which has existed between academic material on the effects of drugs and practical information on how to deal with problems associated with drugs. This book will be of real interest to many people who are involved with drug problems and our society.

It is a collection of writings by professional persons who are actively working in the field of rehabilitation of the drug abuser. The text will be of great use in numerous settings including various university classes for social scientists and social workers will find it of particular value to them in their work.

In short, this is a practitioner-oriented volume written by practitioners in the field. It provides an unusual combination of useful theoretical information and practical "how-to-do-it" approaches in rehabilitation of the drug dependent person. Among the topics included are types of drugs and their effects, causes of drug abuse and addiction, types of abusers, special problems during and after military service, the State-Federal Vocational Rehabilitation effort in drug rehabilitation work, special therapeutic and counseling approaches, the therapeutic value of work, case studies, and language patterns of the drug abuser.

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