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ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

The Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) is the professional association for those working in the field of volunteer management who want to shape the future of volunteerism, develop their professional skills, and further their careers. Members include volunteer program administrators in a wide variety of settings, agency executives, association officers, educators, researchers, consultants, students—anyone who shares a commitment to the effective utilization of volunteers. AVA is open to both salaried and nonsalaried professionals.

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Finally, AVA produces publications, including several informational newsletters and booklets, and THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION.

For further information about the ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION, contact AVA, P.O. Box 4584, Boulder, CO 80306.

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Handicap-italizing on a New Volunteer Resource

Helen G. Lacatis Levine, CAVS

INTRODUCTION

In 1981, international recognition was given to the approximately 15% of our world's population who have physical handicaps. The International Year of Disabled Persons (IYDP), so designated by the United Nations, sought to bring to the attention of the world the human rights and human dignity of this long-neglected group, and to promote the full participation of disabled persons in the life of our society.

Persons with physical handicaps are generally of two types: those who were born with a disability and those who acquired it later in life, through a traumatic injury or through disease. The differences are usually not those of abilities but rather of opportunities and life experiences.

Mental retardation is characterized by limited intellectual functioning as well as by problems (or diminished capacity) in coping with some aspects of living. "Perhaps the most important point that has been learned over the past three decades about persons with mental retardation is that they are more like other people than had been thought. We know now that mentally retarded individuals grow and change, just as all human life grows and changes."[1]

The current definition of developmental disability as defined by law is a severe, chronic disability of a person which (a) is attributable to a mental or physical impairment or a combination of mental and physical impairments; (b) is manifested before the person attains age 22; (c) is likely to continue indefinitely. Developmental disability further results in substantial functional limitations in three or more of the following areas of major life activity: self-care; receptive and expressive language; learning; mobility; self-direction; capacity for independent living; and economic sufficiency.

Add to the above list persons with emotional disabilities and those with chemical dependencies and one wonders how such divergent groups could be classified under one common label of "handicapped" or "disabled."

Because these terms are used as umbrellas to cover a wide variety of physical, developmental and emotional disabilities the danger lies in the type of generalization that ignores the innate individuality of the persons so labeled. People with physical handicaps have long proven that they have the same physical, emotional and social needs as the so-called "able-bodied."

Another problem is the phenomenon of assigning a variety of attributes to persons who have experienced physical disability, the subject of research for many years. It has long been noted that physical deviation is often seen as the key factor in a person's behavior and personality.[2] In his excellent book, Stigma,[2] Erving Goffman explains

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how society creates deviancy and then punishes the behavior that results from such labeling. The evaluation of a person is therefore based solely on a single characteristic.

In one research experiment, college students were asked to rate persons with handicaps on twenty-four character and personality traits, such as self-confidence, conscientiousness, kindness, restraint, persistence, unselfishness, tolerance, courage, sensitiveness and social adaptability. The subjects viewed this task as a sensible one, which in itself is startling, given that the only information available about the group to be rated was the fact that they were physically handicapped. Judgments were made on the wide variety of personality traits listed based on only one characteristic of the group, and a physical one at that.[3]

In another study, high school students were asked to rank order six photographs of college men according to a number of behavior and personality characteristics. One of the men was photographed in a wheelchair and this photo was presented to half of the subjects. The other half were shown a photo of the same man, but with the wheelchair blocked out. "When depicted as handicapped as compared to able-bodied, the stimulus was judged to be more conscientious, to feel more inferior, to be a better friend, to get better grades, to be more even-tempered, to be a better class president, to be more religious, to like parties less and to be more unhappy."[4]

This process of assembling different concrete realities only with respect to one feature forces us to overlook all other features. Gordon Allport refers to such symbols as "labels of primary potency" which "act like shrieking sirens, deafening us to all finer discriminations that we might otherwise perceive."[5]

Responses such as those described in these studies suggest that the subjects' impressions may not necessarily be arbitrary but reflect personal beliefs about disability. As Beatrice Wright notes:

> *He is able to generalize from the physical characteristic because this represents for him a crucial deviation that affects a person in ways he presumes to understand. That is to say, the subject's judgments are partly based on hypotheses as to crippling as a value loss. He sees, for example, that crippling leads to suffering, which is a necessary prerequisite for sensitivity to others' needs. If he regards crippling as a state to which one can adjust, his judgments could be expected to differ markedly from the case where he regards crippling as an overwhelming calamity.*[6]

Society's image in general has been to view handicappers[7] not as worthwhile, productive citizens, capable of giving, but rather as receivers, to be helped, protected and nurtured. Since they have been mainly ostracized as deviant and not considered as productive members of any work force, it is not surprising that they have generally been overlooked as a valuable resource for volunteer service.

This neglect has been due in great measure to a general lack of understanding of their abilities, since so much attention is given to their disabilities. Age-old stereotypes are deeply ingrained and difficult at best to overcome. Negative attitudes and lack of architectural accessibility have long imprisoned handicappers in institutions and in their own homes, barred from the mainstream of society. Over the past fifteen years, significant strides have been taken to overcome the negative aspects of disability. Federal and state legislation on behalf of handicappers, initiated and lobbied for primarily by handicappers, has paved the way by mandating elimination of architectural barriers. The pasage of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, the first civil rights legislation affecting handicappers, offered great promise

to those who are categorized as physically, emotionally or developmentally disabled.

But laws are not self-executing and the great promise has yet to be fulfilled. As with other minorities, persons with handicaps face a long, hard road before they are recognized as equals.

It is generally accepted that giving volunteer service is a human right and a privilege of all citizens. It is the role of the volunteer administrator to provide the avenue or outlet for meeting the human need to be of service to others.

At the 1980 National Conference on Volunteerism, conference participants passed a resolution in support of IYDP, resolving to "convene workshops, seminars and other community education functions throughout their communities during 1981" and "to focus on eliminating attitudinal as well as architectural barriers which prevent disabled persons from volunteering."

PROBLEM

The state of the art of utilization of persons with physical handicaps as volunteers has generally been unknown. Two studies, one done in 1971, the other in 1972, appeared to provide the only documentation of handicapper volunteer participation.

The 1971 study of 695 rehabilitation facilities was approved by the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, and sponsored by Goodwill Industries of America.[8] It showed that although 69.2% of the facilities used volunteers, of the 69,193 volunteers active at the time, only 810 (1.2%) were persons with handicaps.

The 1972 study of 85 Chicago hospitals was conducted by Carol Bradford for the Chicago Council of Directors of Hospital Volunteers at the request of the American Society of Directors of Volunteer Services.

It seemed timely to conduct another survey to determine, if possible, if there had been any significant changes in numbers of volunteer handicappers in general and how they were being utilized. Rather than limit the survey to Chicago hospitals and in recognition of the increasing number of human service agencies using volunteers, it was decided to expand the scope of the 1972 survey.

METHODOLOGY

With permission from the Chicago Council and the American Society of Directors of Volunteer Services, the survey instrument developed by Ms. Bradford in 1972 was replicated intact. Three hundred volunteer administrators were selected at random using three resources:

1. Membership roster from the American Society of Directors of Volunteer Services
2. Membership roster from the Association for Volunteer Administration
3. Volunteer Opportunities Guide, Volunteer Action Center, Detroit

The response was unexpectedly high, with 138 respondents (46%), 70 from administrators of volunteer programs in hospitals and 68 from other types of agencies. An additional 25 responses were received after the cut-off time for the compilation of data and were not included in the results.

The majority of hospitals represented (71%) were general/acute/medical-surgical, with the balance psychiatric, physical rehabilitation, long term/chronic, V.A., community, cancer, university, women, residential and pediatric.

Among other agencies responding, national voluntary health organizations (Red Cross, UCP, Easter Seal, Heart Association, League/Goodwill) comprised 14%; social services, 12%; and nursing homes, 8%; followed by mental health, mental retardation, corrections, adult/family service, education, community service, human services, historic, religious, crisis intervention, employment, YWCA, family planning, Federal agency, Voluntary Action Center, Boys Club,

voter education, radio information (for the blind), zoo, residential/shelter for children, accounting/management service, RSVP and recreation.

RESULTS

Of the 138 respondents, 109 (79%)--60 hospitals and 49 agencies--reported that they now have persons with handicaps serving as volunteers, and 113 (82%) had used them in the past. In the 1972 study, 54% of the reporting hospitals had handicappers in the program and 55% had used them prior to that time.

There were 306 persons with handicaps serving in hospitals and 238 in agencies, compared to 97 in 53 hospitals in 1972, averaging 5.10 per hospital and 4.85 per agency in 1981, as compared to 3.34 per hospital in 1972.

Handicappers had applied as volunteers in 86% of the 1981 reporting facilities, 88% in 1972.

The types of disabilities represented were as follows:

	1972	1981 Hospitals	1981 Agencies	1981 Total
Visual impairment	24%	13%	18%	16%
Developmentally disabled	19%	11%	11%	11%
Physical (requiring use of crutches, cane)	17%	18%	12%	16%
Physical (involving arms or hands)	13%	10%	14%	12%
Hearing impairments	10%	13%	10%	12%
Speech impairments	8%	10%	10%	10%
Physical (requiring wheelchair)	8%	14%	13%	14%
Learning disabilities*	0%	10%	10%	10%

*added to the 1981 survey

In those instances where an applicant was not accepted as a volunteer, 40% of the respondents in 1981 gave as the reason "couldn't find a job he could do," as 36% of the 1972 responses had indicated. The responses were also the same for the second highest category, "difficulty of mobility within the building": 16% in 1981 and 31% in 1972. It would appear that in spite of legislation mandating architectural accessibility in agencies receiving Federal funding (and most hospitals and agencies would qualify), persons with wheelchairs still encounter difficulty.

"Difficulty of communicating with the applicant" constituted 13% of the responses in 1981 and 5% in 1972; "reluctance of staff to work with him," 6% in 1981, 5% in 1972. Only one respondent gave "reluctance of volunteer director to work with him" as the reason for not accepting the applicant; none in 1972.

Twenty-three percent of the respondents in each of the surveys listed other reasons and specified:

Some couldn't qualify for the job we needed done

Emotionally unstable

Transportation problems

Skills, interests, time availability and motivation weren't appropriate or compatible

Inappropriately referred due to misconception by referring agencies, social workers, doctors and other professionals

Reluctance of volunteer to accept those few jobs that could be worked out

Applicant inappropriate to hospital setting

Could not read well enough

Could not take care of self in emergency situation

Personality not "right" for hospital work

JOB CATEGORIES

In answer to the question,"in what capacities have persons with handicaps served as volunteers?" the responses were numerous and diverse, so categories of activity were developed for greater ease in tabulation. Responses to the 1972 survey were then assigned to the same categories and tabulated, with the results shown in the accompanying chart:

While the numbers of handicapped volunteers increased in some areas of the hospital setting, these were primarily limited to traditional assignments: clerical; technical/departmental (which included admitting, building services, central supply, dietary, emergency, housekeeping, laundry, mail room, medical records, nursing, pharmacy); and information/reception. The agencies seemed to have been able to use handicappers effectively in the categories of Public Relations/Education, Administrative/Fundraising/Board, Caseworker, Research, Counselors/Peer Counselors.

Seventy-nine percent of these assignments were categorized by the recent respondents as "Regular," five percent as "Special," and sixteen percent as a combination of both, which would indicate that most handicappers were able to fill assignments generally held by non-handicapped volunteers.

When respondents were asked to assess the extent of special assistance required by handicapped volunteers to satisfactorily perform their assignments, responses were:

	1972	1981
GREAT DEAL	7(13%)	11(10%)
SOME	11(22%)	49(40%)
VERY LITTLE	33(65%)	49(40%)
NONE		12(10%)

Almost one fourth of the 1981 respondents indicated that the special assistance required was additional orientation and training. Personal assistance was next, followed by an equal number of responses for adjusting the environment and transportation. Adaptive equipment was called for in some instances, and assigning the volunteer to a "buddy" proved successful for others.

Both surveys elicited a similar response when asking if respondents felt the extra effort was compensated for by the service given, with 96% affirmative in 1981, 79% in 1972.

Resistance of staff to working with and/or supervising/training volunteers with handicaps was reflected most often in the "Some" or "Very Little" range. Fifty-five percent of the 1981 respondents rate staff reluctance in that range, with forty-one percent reporting "None." In 1972, fifty-five percent reported "None" and forty-two percent encountered "Some" or "Very Little."

The majority of respondents to both surveys viewed extra time for training/supervision as the basis for staff resistance, along with:

Lack of understanding of abilities of handicappers

Extra time for physical assistance

Negative attitude/physical appearance

Concern for safety of volunteer

Fear

Lack of experience working with persons with handicaps

Limitations of volunteer

Lack of empathy

Concern for safety of patients/clients

Reluctance to use clients

Physical environment not conducive

In most instances where resistance was encountered, it was resolved by increased communication with staff, through in-service programs, discussion, etc. (26%). Allowing the volunteers to prove themselves was a very close second response (23%). Another effective measure was careful selection and matching of the staff with the volunteer and the volunteer to the task. In some instances it was necessary to transfer the volunteer or pair him/her with another volunteer. Other respondents felt that patience, time and tolerance were effective and some assumed responsibility for the majority of the supervision. Only one administrator found it necessary to terminate the volunteer.

Whatever problems may have been encountered in placing handicapped volunteers apparently did not carry over to the patients/clients. In response to the question, "what was the reaction of patients/clients to volunteers with handicaps?" the responses were:

	1972	1981
VERY FAVORABLE	32%	40%
GENERALLY FAVORABLE	45%	45%
MIXED	16%	11%
GENERALLY UNFAVORABLE	3%	1%
VERY UNFAVORABLE	3%	2%

How this reaction was measured, however, is unknown, and may only reflect staff perception.

Seventy-one percent of the 1981 respondents felt that volunteers with handicaps had special assets or contributions to make which were unique to them; sixty-four percent of the 1972 group also responded in the affirmative.

The majority of respondents to both surveys found personal acquaintance with a volunteer or employee as being the primary means by which volunteers with handicaps learned about their volunteer program. Being a former patient or client was second in both surveys, followed by a tie between volunteer bureau and radio/tv or newspaper publicity. Other resources included schools/colleges/universities, agency referral, a current patient/client, physician referral, senior groups/RSVP, self-referral, community presentations, Department of Rehabilitation, church groups, handicapped organizations and reputation of program.

As with the 1972 survey, a significant number of respondents (63%) said that they had no plan to recruit additional handicapped persons for volunteer service, though the majority did indicate that they would be given every consideration should they apply. One respondent had developed a concerted effort to train staff supervisors, improve physical access to patient areas, attend training sessions and focus attention throughout

the hospital on those areas where handicappers had been used successfully.

Ninety-six (82%) of the 1981 respondents (77% in 1972) stated that they had had no special administrative problems in regard to use of handicappers in volunteer positions. Four did require medical clearance from the handicapper's physician, two found transportation to be a problem and two limited places where the volunteer could be assigned. Initial expense for special facilities, fire safety for wheelchair users, time required for supervision and assistance, and authority to adapt phones were other problems. One respondent encountered difficulty distinguishing volunteers from patients.

Respondents were invited to make additional comments and the majority were very positive and offered excellent advice to any volunteer administrators working with handicappers:

> *"I make no special allowances for them; they have the same rules as able-bodied volunteers; they receive the same evaluations as others; if they screw up they're fired the same as anyone else."*
>
> *"Give the handicapped person the benefit of not doubting their capability; they want to and will freely discuss their problems."*
>
> *"Keep an open mind."*
>
> *"Consider first the person. Allow them to set limitations from their own knowledge."*
>
> *"We adhere to a policy of frankly discussing all volunteers' limitations and how they can be absorbed in our programs."*
>
> *"All humans have limitations in one area or another and we should place all volunteers in areas to minimize these limitations--our job is to place people where they can do, not cannot do."*

Not all comments were favorable, however:

> *"Our experience with students from a school for handicapped has led us to cancel the program. The children were too retarded/damaged to function in this environment."*
>
> *"I have found this to be a very frustrating experience in most cases. The most disappointing experiences we have had with handicapped volunteers has been with those who have suffered or were suffering mental illness and were referred by psychiatrists. We are not an O.T. program. We do not have the staff or the capacity to monitor these kinds of volunteers and cannot justify the amount of staff or office time and expertise needed to help them to become effective and 'safe' volunteers. A hospital does have a heavy responsibility to the patients for their protection and safety and in many cases handicapped persons are not appropriate for service."*

These comments were not the only reference to inappropriate referrals by professionals:

> *"Be sure referring source (usually professionals) is fully cognizant of needs and is not referring to get disabled 'off their back' or is the 'last resort,' that 'anyone can work with mentally handicapped.'"*
>
> *"Lack of mobility, getting out of home and transportation seem to me to be the biggest problems. I would hate to see involvement in volunteer programs seen as a solution to all handicapper problems. I am sure that handicapped persons have a right to volunteer, however we are seeing a number of developmentally disabled and learning disabled referred to volunteer service and then written off by the referring agency because they are busy doing something. Volunteering should be a <u>part</u> of whatever one wants in life--it's not <u>all</u> there is to life however."*

CONCLUSIONS

While the average number of volunteers with handicaps serving in 1981 increased over the 1972 report, it would have been helpful to know the percentage of handicappers to the total volunteer population.

There were no significant differences in the nature of the handicaps of the persons who served or applied, with the exception of the new category "learning disabled," a category that had not been identified as such and labeled ten years ago.

It would appear that finding jobs that can be done by handicappers remains a problem for most volunteer administrators. Whether this problem arises from the limited number of volunteer opportunities available or is due to the physical limitations of the volunteer applicant is unknown.

While hospitals generally increased the number of handicapper volunteers in their programs, the areas of opportunity did not seem to expand beyond the traditional ones.

The extent of special assistance required by handicapped volunteers increased from 35% in the "Great Deal" and "Some" level (1972) to 50% in 1981, which may be due only to the increase in number, since there were no significant differences in the types of disabilities which might require such special effort.

The very little staff resistance encountered was overcome primarily by communication and the volunteers themselves. This would substantiate existing theory regarding negative attitudes toward persons with handicaps wherein the most effective changes have been found to result from a combination of education and exposure.

How a patient/client will react to a volunteer handicapper is dependent upon a number of factors, including the timing of the first encounter (if the patient/client and the volunteer exhibit the same characteristics), the type of characteristic manifested by the handicapper and the patient/client's own attitudes toward disability itself. As stated earlier, without knowing the method of assessment, the reactions reported may only reflect the perceptions and observations of the staff.

The responses to the question regarding special assets of volunteers with handicaps were disturbingly revealing. While it is true that in certain situations handicappers have a distinct advantage by virtue of their own unique life experiences, such as in peer counseling and as role models for patients/clients with similar circumstances, handicappers in general bring to their volunteer service the same qualities as any other volunteers.

Volunteers who are viewed to be "more dependable, more understanding," who "try harder," who have "better listening skills," are "more accepting of others," have a "more compassionate nature," are "more tolerant," "sensitive," "spunky," "cheerful," honest," "forthright," "happy," "cooperative," "gentle," "loyal," "friendly," and "appreciative" quite frankly sound almost too good to be true. These attributes sound very much like those mentioned in the Mussen and Ray studies.

The most realistic responses to this question about special assets would have been "same as any other volunteer," and "some 'yes' and some 'no'," which would indicate that the respondents were able to objectively evaluate individual performance without falling prey to stereotyping. The tendency to imply that handicappers are better than can be as dangerous as viewing them as less than.

RECOMMENDATIONS

A potential problem that volunteer administrators should be aware of is the recent tendency to categorize under the label of "transitional volunteer." In 1973, the National Center for Voluntary Action published a manual on the topic, with the following explanation: "Volunteer

work undertaken by a volunteer specifically as a rehabilitative step in his life is frequently referred to as 'transitional volunteering.' Programs for this purpose have been developed for people recovering from mental illnesses, from the abuse of alcohol or drugs and for persons recently released from prison."[9]

More recently, transitional volunteers have been described as "individuals with emotional, developmental and physical handicaps who are offering their time and abilities to the concerns and needs of the community. This volunteer experience will assist in the transitional volunteers successfully making a move toward greater independence."[10]

Another definition is "persons recovering from mental illness, drug addiction, alcoholism or who might be mentally or physically handicapped or disabled, who desire to re-enter the community through volunteer work."[11] A 1980 workshop leader added "juvenile delinquents and first offenders."

While it may be true that a number of handicappers utilize volunteer service to gain the confidence and experience they need to re-enter society, why not include the homemaker, the widow, the divorcee in the same category?

Not all persons with handicaps are "transitional" since they are already in the mainstream of society and, like other citizens, wish to give volunteer service in addition to being employees, homemakers, students, etc. The problem of sorting out individuals who have specific abilities as well as specific limitations from these broad categorizations can be a complex one.

First impressions provide a reaction direction that exerts a continuous effect on later impressions of that person. Visible handicaps are especially potent in establishing impressions as the person is presented first in terms of physique, thus establishing the direction for later impressions.

When we first encounter a stranger, it is his or her first appearance that enables us to anticipate his or her "social identity," whether it is virtual or actual. If in this first encounter the individual appears to possess an attribute that makes him or her different from others and of a less desirable kind, s/he is reduced in our minds from a whole and usual person to a tainted and discounted one.[12]

The important element to remember in considering handicappers as potential volunteers is to avoid identification based on the visible appearance of the individual without considering his or her invisible personality. Misconceptions about physical disability can distort the meaning of crucial aspects of a person's life. Not only is the disability seen as a physical characteristic but it can be incorrectly interpreted as the critical element in the events of life.

The "villains" in history and literature are usually "explained" in terms of their physical deformities (the Kaiser's withered arm, Goebbels' club foot, Captain Hook's prosthesis, Richard III's birth-related deformities). Franklin Roosevelt, however, is said to have become great through his polio, and we are told that Robert Louis Stevenson, Charles Darwin, Lord Byron, Edgar Allan Poe, Nietzche, Kant, da Vinci, Goethe, Beethoven, Aristotle and Demosthenes achieved greatness and distinction because of their physical limitations. Disability is seen as being the critical element in the lives of all of these men. While their characteristics may have played an important role in their intellectual and emotional lives, it could hardly be construed as constituting the primary factor responsible for the directions they took in their lives.

Beatrice Wright explains:

The theory of compensation as indemnity gives to physique a central organizing role to which life motivations are dynamically linked. The view emphasizing

containment of disability, on the other hand, includes physique as but one among an array of factors that determine the direction and intensity of the person's efforts.

The unrestrained spread of physique is again seen in the attitude that persons who have a disability stand apart from, rather than are a part of, the community of others.[13]

It is important to remember that handicappers are a significant part of the community, regardless of the characteristic they manifest. It is also important to view handicappers as the individuals they are, first, with their group identification only as a secondary attribute. There are no limitations that are generally applicable to all disabilities. The disability resides in the individual--the handicap resides in the environment.

When interviewing volunteer applicants, administrators may benefit from the advice of Prudence Sutherland, a writer and a handicapper:

Much of society regards the handicapped person solely as someone to be pitied and to be "kept busy" for his own good. These two factors make it extremely hard for the handicapped person to feel that he can be genuinely useful to others. He may think that the recruiter wants him merely in order to make him "feel good" and not because the recruiter really needs his services. To undercut such doubt the recruiter should emphasize the reasons why he is seeking the handicapped person as a volunteer and should also emphasize the unique services he feels the person can give.

If a person's handicap is one of the reasons he is sought as a volunteer, the recruiter should tell him so quite frankly. The handicapped person who is secure in himself always appreciates an unfettered discussion of his disability, and even those who are less secure may gain much confidence once they see that their handicap can be a plus and not just a minus.[14]

It is reasonable to assume that we have arrived at a degree of social maturity which allows us to recognize the individuality of members of other minority groups and to recognize the differences among them without devaluing their abilities. It is therefore not unreasonable to assume that the same level of discrimination can be achieved in considering handicappers in the same light.

Volunteer administrators, by virtue of their work, should have achieved a level of consciousness which permits an objective evaluation of each candidate based on the individual's own merit, rather than on some preconceived notions based on stereotypes. By retaining that objectivity, the door is opened to a whole new experience in working with persons with handicaps and their involvement is limited only by the constraints of our own creativity.

Most persons with handicaps may possess an attribute some may consider "different." It is for us to take account wisely of the difference that difference makes.

FOOTNOTES

[1] *National Center for a Barrier Free Environment, Access Information Bulletin: "Architectural Barriers and People with Mental Retardation," 1981.*

[2] *Erving Goffman, Stigma: Notes on the Management of Spoiled Identity (New York: Jason Aronson, 1974).*

[3] *P.H. Mussen and R.G. Barker, "Attitudes Toward Cripples," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 39, 1944, 351-355.*

[4] *M.H. Ray, "The effect of crippled appearance on personality judg-*

ment," Master's thesis, Stanford University, 1946.

[5]*Gordon Allport, The Nature of Prejudice (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday Anchor Books, Doubleday and Company, Inc.: 1958), p. 175.*

[6]*Beatrice Wright, Physical Disability: A Psychological Approach (New York: Harper & Row, 1960), p. 120.*

[7]*The term "handicapper" was developed and promoted by persons with physical handicaps in Michigan in preference to the terms "the disabled" and "the handicapped." Because it is a noun and not an adjective and refers to a person rather than a condition, it has acquired general acceptance and is even used in relevant State legislation. Since the "handicapper" is the one who determines the handicap, it reflects the movement toward self-determination.*

[8]*Goodwill Industries of America, Inc., "The State of the Art of Volunteering in Rehabilitation Facilities" (Stanley Levin, Project Director), 1971.*

[9]*Clearinghouse, National Center for Voluntary Action, Transitional Volunteering: Steps Toward Mental Health, 1973.*

[10]*Voluntary Action Center of Greater Kalamazoo: "Transitional Volunteer Program."*

[11]*Volunteer Bureau Division, United Way, San Diego, CA, 1981.*

[12]*Goffman, op. cit., p. 2.*

[13]*Wright, op. cit., p. 126.*

[14]*Prudence A. Sutherland, "The Handicapped: An Overlooked Volunteer Resource," Voluntary Action News, July, 1972.*

In Search of Volunteers: How to Crack a Major Corporation

Gayle Jasso

Does this sound familiar? You are the administrator of a nonprofit community organization. You have just returned from a marvelous national conference on volunteerism where you heard for days about wonderful corporations with hundreds of loving volunteers who are just dying to get involved in projects to help people. You walk into your office and sit down at your desk. Glancing about the jumbled room, you shake your head and wonder how you are ever going to get out from under all the paperwork, let alone conquer the great unknowns of the mysterious and foreign corporate world.

But where to begin? (That is the question.) And how to do the job right? (That is the challenge.) For although you think you know nothing about "corporate types," your instincts tell you that, whatever you do, you had better not bungle the job, because you will probably only have one chance to crack a major organization.

As manager of Community Affairs for Security Pacific National Bank, I have for years been approached by representatives from numerous nonprofit organizations who have asked for help, be it financial support, requests for volunteers, or participation in any number of career and vocational educational programs. My experience in dealing with these dedicated and well-meaning representatives of community organizations may be useful to you if you are the one responsible for mustering support in order to serve clients and keep your doors open. In this article, I've outlined key steps in attracting the support of corporations and have formulated twelve "rules" to guide you.

PLAY NEW ROLES

After giving the matter much thought, I am convinced that a major corporation can be approached, interested and sold on a program and organization if that organization's representative is willing to wear a few new hats and learn a few new skills to accomplish the job.

I believe successful nonprofit representatives must add the following new roles to their self-images and careers: detective, business executive, salesperson and missionary. The latter role can only be successfully filled if the first three roles have already been effectively assimilated.

Why is being a detective first on your agenda? The reason is that you cannot sell a product if you do not have the right buyer. Ignoring this role leads to wheel spinning and burn

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out. Having doors slammed in your face does not do a lot for your ego. Playing detective in locating the right companies for you is essential to eliminate some of those slammed doors and to open many others.

USE CONTACTS

The first and often most difficult rule to learn is to think in terms of contacts. From now on, every person you meet must be regarded as a contact who may be useful in the future. Scratch your head and try to remember anyone you have ever met or heard about who is connected to a business in your area. Friends, relatives, acquaintances, strangers who know someone you know--all must be considered. Any one of these people may be able to introduce you to someone, point you in the right direction, or open a door.

The second important rule is to swallow your pride and ask for help from these contacts. You may think your all-knowing and confident image will be shattered by admitting you need help, but usually it will not. In fact, asking for help makes you more human and makes others feel more comfortable around you.

Rule three is to follow the advice you receive, or at least look into it seriously. Nothing is so offensive as to ask for help or advice when you have no intention of using or following it. Your contacts soon learn not to waste their time and energy on you.

Rule four is to thank everyone who helps you. Send a special note, letter or card as concrete evidence of thanks, and tell the person the results of his or her help and advice, especially if positive. Such a thoughtful touch will do much to further any relationship, and this is especially true with contacts.

STUDY THE CORPORATION

Being a detective is essential when approaching a corporation. These factors must be considered: (1) Which corporation might be most likely to be supportive of your organization? (2) Whom in the company should you approach? (3) How should you approach this person? (4) What information will this person/corporation need to evaluate your request?

Question number one will be answered by you through your research and contacts. Remember that a corporation's annual report provides lots of excellent information.

Question number two is more challenging. Although corporate volunteer programs are becoming in vogue, most corporations do not have formal programs. Therefore, finding the appropriate department which has, should have or could have such a program or involvement requires a private investigation which can usually be handled through a series of simple phone calls. Expect to be passed around within the company, but eventually you will find the right department with responsibility for the help you seek. Possible departments are Public Relations, Public Affairs, Community Relations, Community Affairs, Employee Relations, or Personnel. Every company is different.

Next you need to find the right person. By sticking with the secretary in the department you have located by perseverance, you can learn who approves requests for employee volunteers, how this person likes to be approached, and what information this person will need to evaluate your request. At this point, thank the secretary very graciously and hang up. You will call back when you are wearing your salesperson hat.

Rule number five is: only sell the person who can say yes.

DEVELOP YOUR PERSONAL IMAGE

Before you contact the correct potential buyer in the corporation, you need to take a good look at your professional image and that of your organization. My advice is to think, look and act like a business executive, because that is the type of

person who can say yes to your request.

If you are daring, take a deep breath and look at yourself in the mirror. Do you look like a professional business person, or do your clothes indicate a less formal occupation? Do you own a business suit (with a skirt, for women)?

Rule number six is invest in yourself. Now is not the time to pat yourself on the back for being frugal and sacrificing. You need to pay the price to improve your image--not just for approaching corporations but in all of your professional endeavors.

Try it. Spend a little money on yourself. It will probably feel so good that you might decide to continue the investment. And remember, every professional must have a business card. If a card is not provided by your organization, print your own. You need to be able to leave a card with every contact, and in your new roles, you will need plenty of cards as you meet all of those new contacts. Nothing spoils an impression like leaving someone your name, address and phone number written on a scraggly piece of yellow lined paper.

PREPARE YOUR ORGANIZATION'S IMAGE

Can your organization present a professional image to the corporation? Does your organization have a proposal folder? Are your books in order? Do you have a current financial statement, list of board of directors, statement of purpose? These are things a corporation will probably require. If you walk into an interview well prepared, you will demonstrate that you and your organization could make effective use of that corporation's resources. Corporations are looking for winners--needy winners, but winners.

THE COMPETITION IS STIFF

I was offering comments such as these at a state conference on youth a few years ago, and many faces in the audience immediately turned hostile. One woman stood up and said that she resented having to put time and effort into a proposal package. She thought it was humiliating. After all, she was an educated professional. And besides, she could not afford good clothes on her salary. Her voice was shaking as she shared her thoughts.

My response was then and is now, that this is life. The competition is stiff. Resources are limited. Those who receive help are those who make the best case for assistance in the most professional and well-prepared manner. Making this case includes how you look, what you say, how you say it, and the materials you present. These are the realities of life, not just of corporations. If you do not know how to act the part of the business executive, rule number seven should be helpful: learn from role models. Learn from your new contacts.

SELL, SELL, SELL

Cracking a major corporation, or any business for that matter, boils down to selling. The first sales challenge is getting an interview. When you are granted an interview by the right person, you will have that one chance to sell yourself and your product, so the second sales challenge is persuading that individual to convince his/her corporation to assist your organization. You must convince this key person that by satisfying your organization's needs, the person will also be satisfying his/her company's needs.

My best recommendation is to take a seminar or read a book on sales technique. Since getting a yes answer is crucial, you will find the investment of time and money in such training and research well worth-while. Such exposure will make you aware of various sales methods and of selling stages such as qualifying, selling and closing.

You will also need a supply of "ammunition" for your sales presen-

tation. You must anticipate the person's questions, fears and concerns and have good responses prepared. You will also need an impressive list of benefits to the corporation for helping your organization. The more specific the benefits, the better. For example, the benefit of increasing employee productivity is more specific than the possibility of creating good will or good public relations.

Consider every possible benefit to that corporation, and rank each in order of concrete payoff. A good brainstorming session with your peers could produce this valuable ammunition. If you have business friends, invite them to sit in. Their ideas will be helpful and give you more confidence in your list.

After you have presented your sales pitch, remember rule number eight: do not take no for an answer until you are sure it is absolutely, positively no. In sales, "no" does not really mean "no." Often it is just the expression of another doubt or question which, with additional input of information or time, could become a "yes."

ASK THE GOLDEN QUESTION

Rule number nine is to ask what I call the "golden question." If you receive no for an answer, simply ask: "Well, what would I need to do to be able to get what I'm asking for?" Most often, the person will tell you exactly what your next steps should be. And if you follow this good advice, you are often on your way to a "yes."

Rules number ten and eleven go hand-in-hand. Be persistent and be patient. Think of the time you spend with a corporation as an investment. If you have done your homework and carefully donned your roles as detective, business executive and salesperson, the investment should pay off.

DEMONSTRATE COMMITMENT

At this point, we need to bring in the role of missionary. Actually, as a dedicated professional, you have probably always been an evangelist for your cause. The things to remember are to demonstrate dedication and commitment through your enthusiasm and joy in your work. These qualities will shine through your spirit, your eyes, your smile. This missionary role can often make the difference between a yes and no answer. It can also make the difference between winning someone's support and turning someone off.

My recommendation is to aim at being a low-key, professional missionary. Such an approach can put the frosting on the cake. Too much eagerness will probably be too much.

Remember that the missionary role should be an addition to the other important roles. Even if you are enthusiastic, without the groundwork of the other roles, you may not be taken seriously. You might make an impression, but not necessarily the one you had in mind.

SERVICE THE ACCOUNT

My last piece of advice is to remember that the challenge really begins after making the sale and receiving the yes. Wearing your very best salesperson hat, please remember that while your goal is immediate, it should also be long-term. Think of the corporation as your account. You, your staff and volunteers must provide ongoing and quality service to the account.

Corporations are composed of people who have feelings like everyone else. You can help corporations enjoy the sense of satisfaction which comes from being able to serve their fellow citizens because, as we all know, helping people feels good. But, business people do not like to be taken advantage of, taken for granted, or taken for a ride. A little respect, consideration and tender loving care will go a long way in cultivating meaningful, mutually-beneficial relationships with corporations.

ENJOY THE RELATIONSHIP

There are thousands of corporations out there waiting to be "cracked." As you take on your new roles and apply the skills discussed here, I am confident you will find responsiveness from those corporate towers. Remember, those towers are filled with human beings, potential volunteers, waiting to be given the opportunity to make a contribution to their communities. Your persistence and patience will enable them to feel good about themselves while you and your organizations better serve your clients. And that is the secret of the twelfth and golden rule: everyone must win.

The Volunteer Needs Profile: A Tool for Reducing Turnover

George Ray Francies

INTRODUCTION

Brown County (Wisconsin) Department of Social Services recruited 104 volunteers in 1979. But they also lost 102 volunteers and so tallied a net gain of two! The problem addressed by this research is that of volunteer turnover. People terminate their voluntary work for two reasons: they may be fired or they may quit. None of the volunteers who terminated at Brown County Social Services were fired. The focus of this study was therefore to determine how to reduce the number of volunteers who quit their volunteer work.

A common notion about volunteers is that they are people who give unselfishly without any thought of reward. They are called "altruistic" persons. We began this study by challenging the proposition that volunteers behave altruistically. The vast majority of researchers and scientists are cynical of any definition of altruism in its absolute form, i.e., acting without any reward, internal or external, real or psychological (Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1978). Researchers speak of what Kennett (1980) calls "quasi-altruistic" behavior, which appears to be altruistic but has hidden motives (peer recognition, status, etc.).

Scheier (1980:115) speaks of "motivational paychecks." Since volunteers are not paid in money, the mostly intrinsic rewards they receive are in fact their only pay. Volunteers will not ordinarily become involved in helping others unless they are in some sense helping themselves at the same time. Truly altruistic behavior is in the strict sense non-existent (Walster, Walster & Berscheid, 1978; Rydberg, 1980; Middlebrook, 1974; Darley & Latané, 1970). "There are, to be sure, some individuals who selflessly work for others without any thought of reward and even without expecting gratitude, but these are virtually saints, and saints are rare" (Blau, 1964:16). Gidron researched four health and mental health facilities to ascertain what rewards volunteers received and concluded that "volunteers should not be perceived as altruistic" (1976:202).

Since we can conclude that there is no absolute altruism, then we may proceed to look for other motivational "paychecks." In the next section we examine the concept of needs as motivation.

THE CONCEPT OF NEEDS AS MOTIVATION

The concept of needs seems to have become important with Maslow's (1943) theory. He began by identifying the motivation from within the individual in terms of human drives. These he saw as being in a hierarchical order. As the basic needs were met, individuals could turn their attention to higher order

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needs. Maslow would call a need motivating, but only until it was satisfied. He intended his theory of needs to be the foundation for understanding motivation.

Argyris (1957) relates the concept of needs to the work setting. He shows that an organization and its management both violate the basic givens of the healthy personality. They inhibit self-actualization and instead provide expression for only a few shallow, skin-surface abilities that do not satisfy the "endless challenge" desired by the healthy personality. Employees are paid for their dissatisfaction so they can find satisfaction outside the work environment. Volunteers, without wages, simply quit.

There has been criticism of the need-motivation theory. Some of it has been directed at the hierarchical nature of Maslow's list of needs, although Maslow himself never claimed that all people would wish to ascend his need hierarchy. Personality and cultural factors help determine whether people desire self-actualization (Strauss, 1974). Strauss and McClelland (1961) suggested three other basic needs (besides physical needs): need for achievement; need for affiliation; and need for power.

However, repeated failures have convinced most researchers that there are no universal human needs that are manifested the same for all people (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1977). Research on job satisfaction and job design proceeds generally from the position that each individual is different (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), that people are simultaneously seeking satisfaction of a number of needs (Hackman, 1977), and that their needs change. Briggs (1982) made a comparison between the results of a national Psychology Today survey of employee work satisfactions and areas of greatest importance to her own survey of volunteers using a similar measure, modified as necessary in regards to pay. In both surveys, for paid employment and volunteer work, growth and esteem needs were highest in importance. However, social needs were also among the highest for volunteers, but not for paid workers. In both studies social aspects of the work were named as the source of greatest satisfaction. She concludes:

> *Volunteers then, are distinctively different from paid workers, in that they value different aspects of a job assignment. People who are prospective volunteers arrive at a program's door, for the most part, not with overflowing altruistic motives, but with real needs for self-growth, for work experience, for building self-esteem, for enjoyment, for building relationships with others, for contributing to valued goals, for affiliating with an organization or its staff, and so on. Many times (consciously or unconsciously) they are looking to the volunteer program to satisfy one or a healthy combination of those needs not currently being met by their paid work or by their home situation. (Briggs, 1982:6)*

This evidence indicates that people do have needs that motivate them to seek satisfaction of these needs in the work setting. We examined the evidence to support the existence of seven specific needs that seem to be related to volunteer work in a social or human service agency. We took our cues directly from volunteers themselves who report the benefits they receive from volunteering. From the literature we were able to tie these benefits to specific needs.

NEEDS SPECIFIC TO VOLUNTEERING IN A SOCIAL SERVICE SETTING

At Brown County Department of Social Services (BCDSS), volunteers work in the field and often are not seen by the agency for long periods of time. To maintain contact and accountability, they report to the agency on a monthly report form.

One question on the form is: "What benefits have you received from your volunteer work this month?" Even though the question is sometimes not answered, over several years with 60 to 80 volunteers reporting on this form, a large number of responses have been received. My co-worker Constance Usiak and I grouped the answers into seven blocks that seemed to capture all but the most unusual responses. Space will not permit us to discuss each need at length, but some references are included to guide those who wish to examine the empirical evidence for each need.

1. The Need for Experience (EX). This has been defined as the need to break into the job market, try out different skills, have a new learning experience, do something not possible with daily work, get in touch with a different part of ourselves (example: "young people keep me feeling young"), or promote personal growth (Allen, 1982; Adams, 1980; Rydberg & Peterson, 1980; Stone & Velmans, 1980; Gidron, 1978).

2. The Need to Express Feelings of Social Responsibility (SR). This is concern for others, the need to do something about social problems, caring, wanting to get involved, to relieve feelings of concern about one's good life as compared to others (Schwartz, 1970; Zuckerman & Reis, 1978; Gidron, 1976; Conrad, 1980; Briggs, 1982).

3. The Need for Social Contact (SC). This includes the need to make new friends, "get out of the house," justify one's existence and feel needed ("I am important to someone"), alleviate loneliness, find a sense of belonging or of being included, be a part of something, and test out values and norms (Mulford & Klonglon, 1972; Hackman, 1977; Briggs, 1982; Benson, et al., 1980).

4. The Need to Respond to the Expectations of Others (EO). Sometimes volunteer work is required by a high school class, a club or one's employer. People may be pressured by a spouse, friend, or peers, or perhaps respond to the church or pastor. Volunteer work may be sought because "all my friends are doing it" (Allen, 1982; Stockman, 1977; Adams, 1980; Krebs, 1970; Darley & Latane, 1970).

5. The Need for Social Approval (SA). One wants to be appreciated, thanked, praised, respected, looked up to. It may be important to get recognition (especially if not received at work or home) or to make someone proud (Wispe & Kiecolt, 1980; Krebs, 1978; Staub, 1974; Briggs, 1982; Satow, 1975).

6. The Need for Future Rewards (SE). This need is derived from "social exchange" (hence the code SE). It is the feeling that "some day I may need help." It is the faith in social justice, the belief that in helping others we avert being in need ourselves, or if we are, we will receive help. It is the belief that our behavior returns to us. It may include the concept of judgement in the future (Kennett, 1980; Bar-Tal, et al., 1980; Staub, 1974; Batson, 1976; Batson & Gray, 1981).

7. The Need to Achieve (AC). This is often the sense of power in making things happen, or to experience completion, an end, closure (assembly line workers often do not get this feeling) and to get feedback. It is goal orientation. It is the ability to feel proud of a job, good workmanship, satisfy a creative urge, see and experience change, prove or demonstrate abilities in a task (McClelland, 1966; Reddy & Smith, 1972; Arnold & House, 1980; Weiner, 1979).

Each of these needs have been shown to be associated with the motive to become a volunteer. It therefore seems logical that if these needs are met in volunteer work, the individual will feel rewarded and satisfied. Let us take a look at that assumption.

THE NEED-SATISFACTION RELATIONSHIP

Our main support for the relation-

ship between need and satisfaction is a series of studies in vocational rehabilitation at the University of Minnesota called the Work Adjustment Model (Lofquist & Dawis, 1969). The basic premise of this theory is that individuals will seek to achieve and maintain a "fit" or correspondence between themselves and their environment. In the work setting, this consists of personal abilities that must correspond to the ability requirements of the job, and personal needs that must correspond to the reward potential of the job to meet those needs, i.e., the reinforcer system. This may take effort on the part of both the individual and the work environment to adjust to the other, hence the concept of work adjustment.

> *This theory uses the correspondence (or lack of it) between the work personality and the work environment as the principle reason or explanation for observed work adjustment outcomes (satisfactoriness, satisfaction and tenure). The theory states further that vocational abilities and vocational needs are the significant aspects of the work personality, while ability requirements and reinforcer systems are the significant aspects of the work environment. Work adjustment is predicted by matching an individual's work personality with work environments. In other words, work adjustment depends on how well an individual's abilities correspond to the ability requirements in work, and how well his needs correspond to the reinforcers available in the work environment. (Weiss, Dawis, England & Lofquist, 1976:v)*

This model may be diagramed as in Figure 1. These researchers have based their model on five propositions: (a) satisfactoriness is a function of the correspondence between a worker's abilities and the ability requirements of the job; (b) the probability that a worker will be forced out of the job is inversely related to his or her satisfactoriness; (c) satisfaction is a function of the correspondence between a worker's needs and the reinforcer system; (d) the probability that a worker will quit is inversely related to his or her satisfaction; (e) tenure is a joint function of satisfaction and satisfactoriness. Since volunteers are rarely fired, our concern is with propositions (c) and (d).

It is important to note that these researchers have sought to match profiles, that of the worker's needs to that of the job's characteristics. The model is based on the premise that there are no universal needs and that tasks do differ in their ability to address those needs. Therefore it is important to discover a particular person's need profile before attempting to place that individual in a task, or before redesigning the task to meet one's needs. Although the Work Adjustment Model is intended for paid employment, it provides a theoretical foundation and rationale for constructing an instrument to measure needs of volunteers, for matching volunteer needs to a task, and for using the construct of satisfaction as a measure of how rewarded a person feels from his or her volunteer work.

The model also indicates that satisfaction will lead to tenure. If a volunteer's job meets the needs he or she brings to the task and the volunteer feels satisfied, then that person should remain on the job longer than dissatisfied workers. Thus keeping volunteers satisfied is not an end in itself. The purpose of striving for satisfied volunteers is to prevent early termination of their commitment to their volunteer assignment. It is upon these concepts that the Volunteer Needs Profile was constructed. Its purpose is to measure the relative strength of a person's needs in the seven areas that have been discussed.

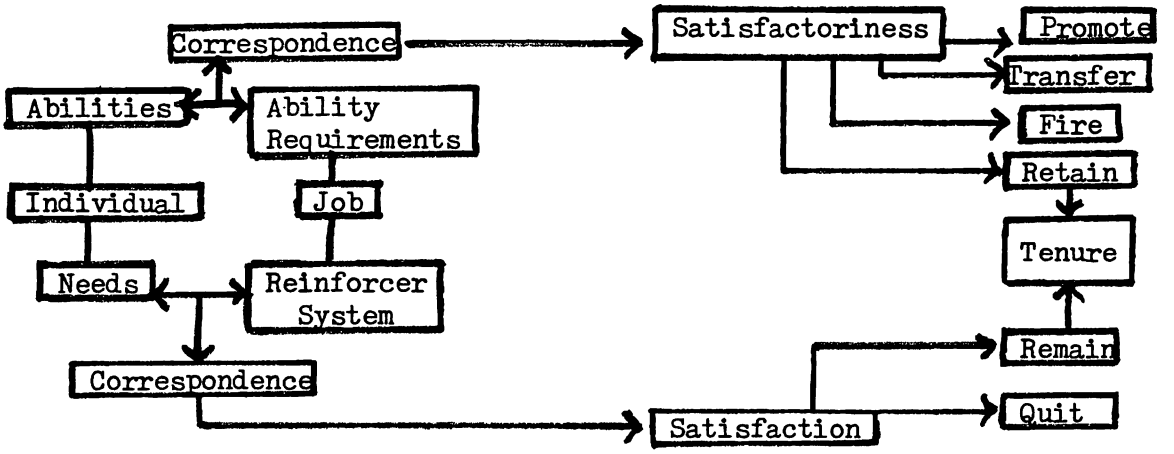

Figure 1

THE WORK ADJUSTMENT MODEL

(from Lofquist & Davis, 1969)

VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY STUDIES

A complete discussion of the evolution of the Volunteer Needs Profile is given in Francies (1982). From a simple check list limited to one volunteer program, it was expanded to all volunteers involved in human services, and it was further refined into the seven subscales based on the seven needs discussed above. (See note at end of article for information about obtaining the complete Profile.)

Twenty-three volunteers acted as "judges" to match each statement in the profile with the subscale definition to which they thought it related. Ambiguous items were discarded and replaced with statements that received at least 55% agreement of the judges (75% if the alternative choice was consistent). This test was used to arrive at the statements that would be included in the final version of the Profile.

A second test for further refinement was aimed at testing the discrimination power of each statement. This was done by comparing the low quartile of scores with the high quartile using Students' t test. Statements with $p > .01$ were eliminated. The final version of the needs profile was constructed based on these preliminary studies.

Self-rank scores were compared to the Profile scores for a new sample of 78 subjects. Using Spearman's Rank Order Correlation (r_s), the results indicated $r_s = .54$, $p < .001$. This revised Profile was retested for discrimination power as before by comparing the high and low quartiles of scores for 92 subjects. Each statement discriminated at $p < .01$.

The statistical test used for internal consistency was Cronbach's Alpha (r^n) (Cronbach, 1951; Winer, 1971). The results for each subscale are displayed below for 128 subjects. Each subscale was well above our decision level of .50 (Cronbach, 1970:135).

A test for concurrent validity was made using the active volunteers at BCDSS as subjects. First the degree of match between the volunteers' needs and their job was determined. This was done by rating the tasks and then comparing the results to each volunteer's needs profile score. Second, each volunteer was rated by his or her supervisor on four characteristics: (1) time spent in relation to assignment requirement; (2) cooperativeness and identification with task goals; (3) enthusiasm, attitude, effort made; and (4) reliability, responsibility, consistency. The degree of match was then compared to the supervisor's rating for each volunteer.

Since the strength of initial motivation may also explain good performance, this was controlled for in the statistical analysis by using the volunteers' raw profile scores as an indication of motivation. The degree of match had been determined independently by three judges. The result obtained from this test was $F = 4.55$ $(2/54)$, $p < .025$. Thus the degree of match seems to have made a difference in the volunteer's performance as judged by the coordinator's rating of that volunteer.

Construct validity was tested by comparing the performance of our Profile to theoretical expectations based on other empirical studies. A new sample of 128 subjects was used.

Subscale	r^5
EX	.69
SR	.75
SC	.75
EO	.66
SA	.70
SE	.64
AC	.69

Thirty-one were classified as "non-volunteers" using as the criteria a negative answer to the question: "Would you now or perhaps someday care to be a volunteer for a social service agency?" These profiles came from workers in a local paper mill. Our sample also contained 34 volunteers of similar age range (29 to 60 years old) chosen to control for the age variable. Volunteers over 60 and staff of human service agencies contained in our sample were not utilized in this test. The test was to compare the mean scores of volunteers to non-volunteers.

Based on previous research reported in the literature, specific predictions were possible for four of the seven subscales. We predicted that volunteers would score higher in: EX--The Need for Experience; SR--The Need to Express Feelings of Social Responsibility; and SC--The Need for Social Contact. We also predicted SR to be the greatest difference between the two groups. We predicted that non-volunteers would score higher in EO--The Need to Respond to the Expectations of Others. The results are shown in Table 1.

Our expectations for all four of the predicted subscales were supported. Also as predicted, the greatest difference was the SR subscale, and the EO subscale was higher for non-volunteers as Schwartz (1968) suggested it would be.

A second test of construct validity consisted of comparing the Profile scores with age-related differences as identified in the literature (see, for example, Gidron, 1976). It was predicted that older volunteers would score higher in SR, SC, and SA, while younger volunteers would score higher in EX and AC. Our sample was all volunteers recruited from BCDSS and the Green Bay Voluntary Action Center. There were 95 students with an age range of 18 to 83 years. The sample was predominately female (n=84) so no tests for sex differences were made. However, we were able to make the following predictions based on Gidron's studies:

EX - Younger volunteers would score higher than older.
SR - Older volunteers would score higher than younger.
SC - Older volunteers would score higher than younger.
EO - No age differences predicted.
SA - Older volunteers would score higher than younger.
SE - No age differences predicted.
AC - Younger volunteers would score higher than older.

We divided the volunteers into three groups as shown in Table 2. In each case the test was Student's t using the "under 30" X "over 60" groups. The results show that:

Table 1 COMPARISON OF VOLUNTEERS WITH NON-VOLUNTEERS

Subscale	Volunteers n = 34		Non-volunteers n = 31		t	level of significance
	$\bar{x}$	s^2	$\bar{x}$	s^2		(two tailed)
EX	15.18	10.39	11.42	12.25	4.51	.001
SR	15.50	4.32	9.68	9.96	8.85	.001
SC	15.59	6.13	10.87	9.52	6.83	.001
EO	9.85	3.40	13.68	15.63	5.08	.001
SA	10.85	7.04	15.19	9.96	6.02	.001
SE	13.15	6.61	12.52	14.26	.79	NS
AC	11.61	4.37	14.61	10.98	4.39	.01
All	91.91	60.15	87.97	147.30	1.57	NS

Table 2. TEST FOR AGE DIFFERENCE IN SUBSCALE SCORES

Subscale	Under 30 (n = 27) $\bar{x}$	s^2	30 to 60 (n = 27) $\bar{x}$	s^2	Over 60 (n = 41) $\bar{x}$	s^2	t	Sign*
EX	15.74	6.56	14.30	8.36	13.56	9.42	3.01	.001
SR	16.11	4.69	14.67	4.44	14.66	6.27	2.43	.01
SC	16.22	6.32	14.78	5.51	16.37	4.04	.26	NS
EO	9.96	4.41	10.44	5.51	10.83	4.53	1.62	NS
SA	10.11	9.88	10.96	8.04	10.15	8.61	.05	NS
SE	13.93	6.59	13.48	9.88	14.59	6.88	1.01	NS
AC	11.63	7.27	11.33	6.67	10.39	6.19	1.92	.05

*One-tailed test used where prediction of direction was made.

EX - Prediction supported.
SR - Significant difference in opposite direction!
SC - Trend in predicted direction, not significant. However, adult x older is significant ($t = 2.94$, $p < .005$).
EO - (Not predicted.)
SA - Not supported.
SE - (Not predicted.)
AC - Prediction supported.

The results of the two tests of construct validity by comparing results of the Volunteer Needs Profile to previous research are moderate to strong. In the comparison with non-volunteers, four of the four predictions were supported at the .01 level or better. This in itself is strong support for the Profile. The test for age differences needed to rely entirely upon the work of Gidron with his survey of four health and mental health institution volunteers. His population may not be comparable to ours. Gidron's data comes from survey results rather than empirical evidence. This may introduce error in the need for Social Approval (SA) prediction due to "social desirability bias" as Gidron (1978:21) himself suggests. Two of the five predictions were supported and a third (SC) found qualified support. Two were not supported. The SR scale, which was significant in the wrong direction is not explained. Gidron found his older volunteers had a higher "feeling of duty to the community" than younger volunteers. This was interpreted as a sense of social responsibility. However, our population seems to indicate younger volunteers have a stronger sense of social responsibility.

Of the nine predictions made, seven found support. One was not in the predicted direction. The ninth prediction was not supported. At this point it was concluded that the instrument did perform according to theoretical expectations to a modest extent. It is difficult to make comparisons when adequate theoretical bases are lacking. Nevertheless, these tests as a whole are strong evidence in favor of the validity and reliability of the Volunteer Needs Profile.

TESTING THE VOLUNTEER NEEDS PROFILE

From the literature we were able to formulate three hypotheses which relate directly to the problem which we have stated: how to reduce volunteer turnover.

Hypothesis One: Using the Volunteer Needs Profile to assign volunteers to a task will result in more high degrees of match than using the interview method alone.

Hypothesis Two: A high degree of match will lead to greater work satisfaction than a low degree of match of the volunteer's needs to the work assignment.

Hypothesis Three: The mortality rate (those dropping out) will be higher for the low degree of match than for those with a high degree of match.

As has been discussed previously, job satisfaction is related in a positive way to the correspondence of

Table 3.
DISTRIBUTION OF DEGREE OF MATCH OF VOLUNTEER X CONDITION

	Low	Medium	High	Totals
Control Group	n = 14	n = 26	n = 20	60
Experimental Group	n = 7	n = 18	n = 35	60
				120

individual needs and the potential of a task to satisfy those needs. Since the purpose of using the Profile is to be able to assign volunteers to a task that will satisfy their needs, this experiment is a direct assessment of how well that is possible using the Profile as opposed to the previous method of relying on the coordinator's interview skills alone.

Methods

A 2 x 3 design was used, with volunteers assigned to one of two groups (control or experimental), each with three levels of match (low, medium, or high). Subjects for this experiment were all volunteers newly recruited since January 1, 1982. They were recruited by ordinary means by both BCDSS and the Voluntary Action Center.

Every other volunteer was assigned to the experimental group, with the rest in the control group. All volunteers took the Profile, but it was not scored for the control group until after they were assigned to a task. The experimental volunteers' Profiles were scored, and the results used in their interviews and in making each task assignment. (See Francies, 1982, for complete details of this experiment.)

Instrumentation

The instruments used, in addition to the Profile, were the Job Questionnaire (JQ) (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951) and the Satisfaction With Volunteer Assignment Evaluation (SWVAE) (Francies, 1982) which were both used to make an assessment of satisfaction. The SWVAE was developed to assess satisfaction specific to the seven subscales of the Profile. The JQ is more general. The reliability of the SWVAE, using Cronbach's Alpha, was r = .92. Satisfaction instruments were mailed to both groups between 10 and 12 weeks after tasks were assigned.

Results

Hypothesis One stated that there would be more high degree of matches when the Profile was used to make assignments than when using the interview method alone. This hypothesis was supported. As can be seen in Table 3, the distribution of

Table 4. RESPONSE TO EVALUATION QUESTIONNAIRES

	n	Control	Experimental	Low	Medium	High
Returned	71	32	39	9	23	39
No basis for evaluation	44	26	18	12	19	13
Unable to contact subject	2	--	2	--	--	2
Refused	3	2	1	--	2	1
Totals	120	60	60	21	44	55

the control group is nearly normal, while the experimental group is skewed toward the high degree of match. Using the profile significantly improved the likelihood of obtaining a suitable assignment as compared to the interview method alone.

Hypothesis Two stated that those in the high degree of match condition will be more satisfied than those in the low degree of match. Of the 120 volunteers in the experiment, two had moved and left no forwarding address and three refused to complete the evaluations. Of the remaining 115, 44 did not follow through on their assignment and so could not evaluate the task. The distribution of these 44 are shown in Table 4. Note that 57% of the Low group did not follow through as compared to 43% of the Medium group and 24% of the High group, suggesting that the Low group may not have felt the assignment was what they wanted. Of the 71 volunteers who did complete the questionnaires, 70 SWVAE's were usable and 64 of the JQ's. The remaining were incomplete, or in the case of the JQ, five had been completed in terms of the volunteer's paid employment and so could not be used.

Student's t was used to test the mean satisfaction scores of the Low and High groups. Since the groups were so unequal in size, the Low and Medium groups were collapsed in a second test. This was done for the SWVAE and the JQ separately and then the two measures were combined. The SWVAE was weighted equal to the JQ (see Francies, 1982, for details).

Hypothesis Two was supported (see Table 5). The results of every test indicated that the high degree of match subjects were significantly more satisfied with their volunteer work than the Low condition or the Low and Medium combined conditions. It is concluded that the degree of match does affect the volunteer's satisfaction in a positive direction.

Hypothesis Three predicted volunteers in the high degree of match condition would stay longer than those in the low degree of match condition. Volunteers were contacted as indicated between ten and twelve weeks after being assigned to a task. Telephone follow-up was made for those not responding. The agencies were contacted for the two volunteers that had moved. We were able to ascertain one of two conditions for each volunteer: "active" (still involved at time of contact) or "inactive" (had terminated prior to our contact). The results are shown in Table 6.

The reader will notice that the proportion of active to inactive volunteers reverses as one goes from the low to the high degree of match. The result of the Chi-square test is $X^2 = 13.21$, $p < .005$. 69% of the High match group remained active as compared to 29% of the Low match group. It is concluded that the degree of match does influence the likelihood of a volunteer remaining at the task for at least ten weeks.

CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

The Volunteer Needs Profile was constructed and tested as was planned. Validity studies included correlations of test results with the subjects' self-rank of their motivation needs. The correlations were significant at the .01 level. Content validity consisted of judges matching each statement to one of the seven definitions of the seven subscales. The discrimination power of each statement was tested using Student's t test. This consisted of comparing the low quartile of scores to the high quartile. Each statement discriminated at the .01 level or better.

The reliability test used was Cronbach's Alpha, a measure of internal consistency. In the final version of the Profile, all Alpha scores were better than our decision level of .50, ranging from .64 to .75.

A test of construct validity was made, using analysis of co-variance

Table 5. DEGREE OF MATCH X SATISFACTION SCORES

	SWVAE (n = 70)				JQ (n = 64)				Combined (n = 63)			
	Low	Med.	(L&M)	High	Low	Med.	(L&M)	High	Low	Med.	(L&M)	High
n	9	23	32	38	10	21	31	33	9	21	30	33
$\bar{x}$	56.4	59.0	58.3	65.5	59.1	64.1	62.5	70.0	57.1	61.2	60.0	67.4
Σ	508	1358	1865	2490	591	1347	1938	2311	514	1285	1799	2223
$\Sigma(\Sigma x2)$	30704	87270	117974	169240	36453	88307	124760	163423	30666	82140	112806	152273
Low X High	$t = 1.82$, $p < .05$				$t = 3.47$, $p < .005$				$t = 2.78$, $p < .005$			
(L&M) X High	$t = 2.00$, $p < .025$ (One-tailed test)				$t = 3.28$, $p < .005$ (One-tailed test)				$t = 2.65$, $p < .01$ (One-tailed test)			

Table 6. DEGREE OF MATCH X ACTIVE OR INACTIVE AT 10 WEEKS

	Low	Medium	High	Totals
Active	6	18	38	62
Inactive	15	26	17	58

controlling for initial motivation and comparing the estimated degree of match between the volunteers' high profile scores and the estimated potential of their assignments to meet that need with their supervisors' estimation of the volunteers' work performance. The results, $F = 4.55$ $(2/54)$, $p < .025$, should be accepted with caution however, since these were supervisors' ratings which involved the experimenter in making some of the ratings.

Another test of construct validity of the instrument was made by comparing the performance of our Profile with expectations derived from previous research. Two tests were made, one comparing volunteers with non-volunteers, and the other comparing younger with older volunteers. In the first test, all four of our predictions were significant in the predicted direction.

The second test, predicting differences based on age, relied almost entirely on the work of one research for empirical evidence upon which to base the predictions. We did not find any difference between older and younger volunteers in the Need for Social Approval. This may be explained in part by the fact that Gidron's data came from survey results, and a social desirability bias may have affected his findings. Social Approval is a need that is not readily admitted by some individuals as we have seen. This is an area that should be further researched before any conclusions are drawn that there is an age difference. Tests that control for the social desirability bias, using age as a variable, would be especially helpful if volunteers were used as subjects.

A more serious difference is in the Social Responsibility subscale. We predicted that older volunteers would score higher than younger volunteers based on Gidron's (1976) survey. We found a significant difference in the opposite direction. However, this may be explained by the fact that many of our younger sample were high school and college youth. They may well have a heightened sense of social responsibility due to an emphasis of the schools in that direction. Future research may continue to find young people with a greater sense of social responsibility than previous generations. I have no facts to support the contention regarding the emphasis of the schools in this regard, but my own seven children all received more concentration in social studies than my generation did. For us the emphasis was on the "three R's." I certainly have no information about the schools in Maryland where Gidron's study was conducted.

A more potent explanation may have to do with the instrumentation. Gidron based his conclusions on one statement: "Opportunity to fulfill an obligation to the community" (1976:222). This was expected by 50% of volunteers under 24 years old, but by 79% of those over 55 years old. However another statement in Gidron's questionnaire is: "Opportunity to be of service to people less fortunate than me." It appears he did not consider this statement to be part of an obligation to the community. Here the age difference disappears, as nearly all of the volunteers in these health institutions expected this reward; 93% of those under 24 and 98% of those over 55 years old. Both of these concepts are included in our Profile as a sense of social responsibility. Therefore not only may there be a real difference in our two populations, but there very likely is an instrumentation effect that makes it difficult to draw conclusions.

Of the nine predictions of these two tests, seven were supported. The lack of firm empirical research probably explains the other two. This is interpreted as support for the construct validity of the Volunteer Needs Profile. In fact, our measure may provide more valid results than the survey method used by Gidron due in part to the social desirability bias inherent in such surveys.

Additional support for the validity of the Profile comes from the experiment. All three of our hypotheses were strongly supported. As predicted, using the Profile increased the likelihood of obtaining a high degree of match between the needs of the volunteer and the task as compared to the interview method alone. Volunteers in the control group displayed a normal distribution, while those in the experimental group were strongly skewed toward the high degree of match. Using the Chi Square test, we found $X^2 = 7.88$, $p < .025$.

Further, volunteers who were matched to a high degree to their task were significantly more satisfied. The results show that for the SWVA measure, $t = 1.82$, $p < .05$ when compared to the low match group, and $t = 2.00$, $p < .025$ when the low and medium groups were collapsed. Using the same procedure for the JQ, the results were $t = 3.47$, $p < .005$ and $t = 3.28$, $p < .005$ respectively. And combining the two measures gave $t = 2.78$, $p < .005$ and $t = 2.65$, $p < .01$. These results indicate that volunteers who are well matched to the task are more satisfied than volunteers whose needs are not addressed by the work. These findings, as predicted by the Work Adjustment Model, indicate that the Profile has predictive validity.

And finally, 69% of those matched to a high degree were active after ten weeks as compared to 29% for those matched to a low degree. This is strong support for the validity of the Volunteer Needs Profile, but it is also strong support for its utility. Using the Profile did conserve volunteers and reduced turnover to a greater extent than using the interview method alone to place volunteers in a job. The high matched volunteers as a group become involved to a greater extent and stayed longer than those not well matched to the job.

Field experiments are especially difficult to control. There may well have been experimenter effects since the staff all knew the nature of the experiment. Whether consciously or unconsciously, they may have tried to "help." That effect, if present, would have been partly overcome by a new staff person who was employed about half way through the experiment. She did not know the nature of the test, but may have at least partly guessed. However, the staff at the Voluntary Action Center always try to make the very best placements possible with the tools they have. Their enthusiasm over the results seems to indicate that they had confidence in the procedures they used. Although the effect cannot be ruled out, it would seem to be minor.

One challenge that might be raised is that the initial motivation of the control and experimental groups was different. This was tested and it was found that the mean scores (measured by points over 14) of the two groups were statistically the same: 7.167 for the control group and 6.533 for the experimental. If anything, the bias would favor the control group. The author has considerable confidence in the outcome, and these results should easily be replicated in similar settings. The conditions under which this experiment took place would be similar to that in which the Profile might be used in actual practice. Unlike laboratory experiments, this one will readily generalize to the field.

IMPLICATIONS AND APPLICATIONS

The implications and applications of this research are obvious in the area of assigning volunteers to a task. Placement coaches in VAC and RSVP programs should find their percentages of persons staying on the job increased when the Profile is used in conjunction with the interview. It should also be easily adaptable to other agencies where there is a variety of assignments from which to choose to place volunteers.

Further, the reliability and valid-

ity is great enough to suggest that the Profile may be useful in further research, such as determining if there are indeed differences between other populations of non-volunteers and volunteers, or between different types of volunteer workers, such as volunteers in direct service and volunteers in policy-making positions. The instrument may also be useful in monitoring trends. For example, are more volunteers today looking for experience, and will this trend continue; or is the heightened sense of social responsibility a temporary experience of students, or will this continue into their later adult years? It could also be used to determine if a volunteer's needs change over time, perhaps after one year on the job.

The limitation of this study is in part in the area of its generalizability to other types of volunteer work. It was designed specifically for volunteers in a social service setting. I feel it would need modification for other types of volunteer work, such as volunteers in forestry service. Such modification is not recommended unless the user is willing to follow the procedures we have to establish its reliability and validity again.

We have not tested the usefulness of this tool in matching to individuals rather than jobs, such as is necessary in a Big Brother program. An objective and practical way must be developed to assess the potential of a task to meet specific needs of volunteers. The Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (Weiss, et al., 1967) does this by asking workers directly about the level of satisfaction received from specific jobs. Such an instrument could be developed to assess volunteer jobs in relation to the seven needs that have been identified.

One weakness in this study is that we needed to use staff to judge the tasks. Having workers involved with a particular task assess its potential to satisfy needs would be a superior method since the assessment would come from those who have experienced the task.

A further limitation of the Profile is in its psychometric abilities. The Profile does not give an absolute score that can be compared to national norms. Instead it yields a score that only estimates relative strength of one need as compared to other needs within the same individual. We did not find the total score of all seven subscales to have any significance in predicting turnover. Only the degree of match with the task was predictive in this regard, and the degree of match was based on the high scores for that individual. The absolute score may be lower than for other individuals, but if these others were mismatched, we could predict failure to stay with the task for them. In short, users of this instrument should not attempt to derive valid information from the scores in any absolute sense, but only in relation to the other subscales for that person. For that reason it is not recommended that norms be established.

The Volunteer Needs Profile is a tool that depends upon the user's ability to follow the leads it provides. The Need for Experience, for example, may mean simply to get out of the house and do something different, or it may mean the volunteer is in need of an experience that can help prepare for future employment. It is the user's task to discover the meaning of each high score for that individual.

This study has been concerned with volunteer turnover due for the most part to volunteers quitting their jobs, usually within the first three months. The Volunteer Needs Profile, when used with the interview in placing volunteers in their jobs, does help to solve the problem. Using the instrument, it is possible to get a higher degree of match between the volunteer's needs and the task's potential to meet those needs. This leads to more satisfaction on the part of volunteers. Because they are

more satisfied with their work, they stay on the job longer. Thus the instrument helps solve the problem of volunteer turnover.

A specimen set of the Profile with instructions, scoring guide, and suggestions for use will be sent upon request to:

Brown County Department of Social Services
300 South Adams Street
Green Bay, WI 54301

Please send your request to the attention of the Volunteer Service Unit.

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Who Is Mother Earth's Mother?

Theresa Heiland

If you were to begin today to acquaint yourself with the current newsletters and periodicals published by environmentalist task forces and organizations engaged in protecting the environment, you might be alarmed at their titles. "Wilderness Watch," "Earth Watch," "Watt Watch" and "Toxics Waterwatch" are indicative titles. If you are on a mailing list for environmental concerns, the letters you receive could be written in red for the message they send: "Project action alert...." They reflect an urgency not only in relation to the earth's resources, but to the survival of the groups that have organized to protect these resources. These groups are laying the issues on the line and asking for support.

The Reagan Administration's increasing support of military and arms production spending has threatened legislative and monetary support for those programs developed in the interest of the human environment. Early this year, a "Fate of the Earth" conference was held in New York to analyze the implications of possible nuclear war and explore the tensions--over-population, competition for resources, and other factors--that make nuclear powers go to war in the first place. Such social tensions and unjust distribution of resources are global environmental problems.[1]

Many issues confront the environmental movement in the United States. There is controversy as to whether the standards set in the Clean Air Act should be lowered. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) is being investigated for mismanagement of its Superfund. Secretary of Interior James Watt is threatening millions of acres of wilderness with proposals for mining and industry, at the same time reducing funds for established environmental programs at all levels.

With the seeming lack of support by Congress it is clear that a "watch" is just the beginning of engaging in natural resources issues by environmentalists. Slogans have changed from "Pitch in America" to "Better Active Today than Radioactive Tomorrow." The Earth Day movement of the 70's is now an Earth Watch for the future. These concerns have social, political, environmental and health implications on a global scale. We all need to ask ourselves: who is Mother Earth's mother?

A HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

This is not an in-depth study of the earth's environmental problems. At best it is an overview of a concern that is attracting increasing numbers of individuals wanting to volunteer time and energy for a better environment. There is tremendous citizen participation potential just waiting to

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be chanelled and used. In the Minnesota chapter of the Sierra Club, membership almost doubled from April 1981 to April 1982. It is clear that citizens are more willing to become "proactive" rather than just "reactive." Louis Harris addressed this increased activity at the Sierra Club's annual dinner:

> *Mark it well, what is happening all over this country stems from a sudden realization that in Washington the foxes have been summoned to guard the chicken coop. And people of all ages, all segments of the population, are rising up to say that they want to take back in their own hands control of their own destinies--their own lots in life, their own land, their own water, their own air, their own environment--before others in the name of mindless greed destroy the very quality of human existence. But the battle is a race against time. Seize the nettle now . . . before it's too late.*[2]

I am going to briefly address the development of voluntary action in regard to meeting the challenge of finding a balance with ourselves in relation to the environment. A historical perspective is a powerful influence in that we learn from past successes and mistakes.

The establishment of groups working for environmental concerns dates back to the late 1800's. John Muir founded the Sierra Club in 1892, and it became the primary force that saved the Yosemite and Grand Canyon areas. The citizen efforts to preserve wilderness areas eventually led directly to the formation of the National Park Service and Forest Service. The early 1900's marked the beginning of conservation as a political issue, as a result of waste of natural resources by heavy industry. Local and state volunteer groups fought for controls on the threats to resources as well as establishing public parks and forests. In 1903 the Public Lands Commission and in 1908 the National Conservation Commission were established, reviewing recommendations of conservationists and working to influence congressional legislation toward protecting the environment.[3]

In 1918, the "Save-the-Redwoods League" was founded in California, raising funds for the protection of redwoods in public parks. This league helped create a system of 27 state redwood parks, utilizing over 55,000 volunteers. The volunteers of American Forestry Association began fire prevention campaigns in 1928, presenting films and lectures for schools. The Federation of Western Outdoor Clubs, established in 1932, was formed to maintain wilderness areas for public use. The North American Wildlife Conference inspired the founding of the National Wildlife Foundation in response to the decline of wilderness animal and bird populations. In the 1950's, public schools began to develop volunteer programs utilizing youth for conservation projects such as roadside improvement, etc.[4]

The 1960's brought on a growing recognition that the earth's resources are limited and that the effects of chemical and biological warfare would have grave consequences. "Public health began to mingle in the public's mind with wildlife protection and wilderness preservation, overpopulation with nature protection, and the welfare of man with the welfare of his ecosystem."[5]

There seemed to be a popular campaign to revitalize the earth as was evident in the nationwide celebration of Earth Day in April of 1970. Congress adopted new environmental legislation including the National Policy Act, the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1970 and the Water Pollution Control Act of 1972.[6] Major national educational and political organizations included Friends of the Earth, Sierra Club, Environmental Action, World Wildlife Federation, Wilderness Society, Izaak Walton League of America and the Audubon Society.

There are those who believe that the environmental movement of the 1970's has died. On the contrary, I believe it has just changed. The issues in the 1980's have become more complex and volunteers involved are finding they need to become more educated and skilled in order to ask the right questions and plan effectively for impact.

The Three Mile Island incident in Harrisburg, Pennsylvania in March of 1979 was a turning point in environmental volunteer activity. Nuclear power has perhaps been the most influential issue, forcing groups of all interests to combine efforts for a safe environment free from nuclear waste. Local groups of citizens, professional and disarmament groups, Native Americans, farm and labor organizations, women's groups, the Gray Panthers and American Taxpayers Union formed coalitions to strengthen their lobbying power on behalf of environment issues.[8] The stage is set for active citizen participation.

TODAY'S ENVIRONMENTAL VOLUNTEERS: WHO ARE THEY?

Environmental volunteers come from varied backgrounds and include people of all ages. They come from youth groups such as Scout troops and 4-H to older people in the Gray Panthers. Environmental volunteers are highly motivated and emotionally dedicated to their work. For most volunteers, exposure to an environmental problem stimulated their initial involvement.[9] The general public has a greater awareness of our finite supply of resources. When people visit a favorite recreational area and realize its very existence is threatened, there is a natural tendency to wonder what can be done to preserve it for future generations. A more critical example of personal motivation involves those who are dealing with the consequences of radiation leaks in their immediate living environment.

Certainly the media coverage has been a catalyst in rallying volunteers by feeding on controversial issues. Information is at our fingertips and in front of our eyes. This media exposure can play on people's emotions and sense of powerlessness in certain situations. It is also an invaluable tool for networking: a national and international, visual and written directory of what's going on environmentally, thereby linking people concerned with similar issues.

For many volunteers, an important motivation is the desire to get involved in a larger picture of life; to go beyond routine jobs and responsibilities. They want to supplement their lives with something that is meaningful and where an impact can be made. The increasing difficulty in flexibility for career growth in an economically depressed time coupled with the recurring process of budget cuts for programs affecting the quality of life is taking its toll. Studs Terkel sums it up by saying "jobs are not big enough for people's spirits."

The added impetus for volunteer involvement creates new problems for environmental groups. In addition to dealing with an increased population of volunteers, the importance and sometimes immediacy of effective action necessitates skilled managers. Lack of strong leadership is cited as one of the main causes of unsuccessful development and maintenance of an organization. A list of the key problems characteristic in environmental groups include lack of intergroup coordination, IRS tax laws, funding, physical needs (clerical help, equipment, office space), unresponsiveness of government and business, lack of legal and technical assistance, training volunteers, utilizing and recruiting volunteers and leadership development.[10]

In an interview with an Executive Committee member of the Minnesota chapter of the Sierra Club, Dave Adams, we talked of the high burnout rate that can happen among the club's activists. The workload is not balanced in relation to its member-

ship. A national survey of the Sierra Club revealed that 80% of its members were content with contributing by paying the membership fee, 10-20% of its members attend outings and are active in events, and 3-5% of those are leaders. This clearly indicates a need for leaders to strengthen recruitment tactics and delegate responsibilities in order to minimize burn-out.

Mr. Adams also explained that leaders do not have time to do long-range planning because they are tied down to ground level work. They seem to be continually "putting out fires," addressing issues that need immediate attention (e.g., when legislation is being passed). In short, they don't have time to be good managers.

Other factors that influence volunteer involvement include job intimidation (pressure from employers to stay out of environmental issues) and decline in availability of women for daytime volunteer activity as they have greater opportunities for employment.[11] Then there are those organizations who hesitate to invest in volunteers because they are not seen as cost effective. Additional paid staff is necessary to accommodate supervision and training of volunteers. Some groups feel they can do the work more economically and quicker with their paid staff, without the extra burden of training volunteers.[12] These are all important factors to consider in the development of programs utilizing volunteers.

Before going on, I would like to mention another genre of volunteers who are not as visible as the activist influencing legislation or maintaining park systems. It is the individual who voluntarily evaluates his/her lifestyle, looking at ways to change patterns of consumption and developing a sense of responsibility as an individual in relation to the environment. These volunteers are just as vital to the environmental movement for the future. They will make an impact by example, creating another ripple effect.

ENVIRONMENTAL ISSUES AFFECTING THE QUALITY OF OUR LIVES: THE PEOPLE RESPOND

I remember sitting in a grade school science class learning the four elements necessary to sustain life: air, water, fire and soil. These are the very elements in danger today. The Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) estimates that 48.5% of our water is extensively polluted while only 0.2% of all water is free of pollution. Sixty percent of our air pollution comes from cars (85% in some areas) and we discard 4,340 million tons of solid waste a year.[13] These concerns prompted Congress to adopt new environmental legislation during the late 1960's and early '70's. The National Environmental Policy Act, the Clean Air Act Amendments of 1970 and the Water Pollution Control Act of 1972 came into being as well as laws regulating noise, pesticides, toxic substances, ocean dumping and solid waste disposal.[14]

Priorities established by environmental groups include land use control and planning, natural and wild area preservation, water quality, wildlife preservation, air quality, solid waste/recycling, and water management. The single issue receiving most attention nationally is wild area preservation.[15] More specifically, the 1982 Conservation Priorities established by the Sierra Club included the Clean Air Act Reauthorization, National Forest Wilderness, water resource planning and management, urban transportation, nuclear legislation, public lands leasing permits, National Forest planning, Bureau of Wilderness Land Management, community energy and environmental budgets and appropriations.[16]

The current activities in the Reagan adminstration have a tremendous impact on the environmental quality of our lives. Policies adopted by Congress can take away

years of volunteer accomplishments. Secretary of the Interior James Watt has announced he is dropping as many as three million acres of Bureau of Land Management land from wilderness status. He is preparing to close large blocks of public lands to be used by the mining industry. Forest Service lands (140 million acres) are in review for sale and disposal. He is looking into possibilities for strip mining in the National Park System (as many as 26 units). He continues to push oil and gas development in Alaska as well as loosening control by the Fish and Wildlife Service. He has proposed reducing Land and Water Conservation Fund monies.[17]

The dynamics in confronting these environmental concerns are two-fold. On the one hand we are facing the physical existence of the problem: the air, the toxic wastes, the polluted water. On the other hand, there are administration and legislation: the brains and brawn of those who control the strings. Since there are fewer people being paid to address these problems, citizen participation has a big job ahead of it. Successful goal setting and long-range planning will be essential.

The goals of volunteer groups are generally described in two categories: environmental/conservation activism and education. The actual work of the group depends upon the source of funding. Groups with funds obtained by their members tend to be involved in lobbying, put pressure on leaders, participate in hearings, etc. Those with funds from the government are less likely to get involved in lobbying. These groups tend to have educational functions, take on recycling projects and develop beautification projects.[18] Ideally the government would support all levels of volunteer activity to faciliate a sense of responsibility on the part of citizen involvement in the legislative process.

The power behind the volunteer movement is evident in its accomplishments. Volunteers have been successfully utilized in areas such as conservation, zoo support services, energy issues, anti-pollution efforts, recycling, population control, horticulture and garden clubs, weather observation and city planning.[19]

An example of volunteers in park and recreation systems is the Sempevirens Fund, an organization committed to preserving land in California's Santa Cruz mountains. This group has been instrumental in organizing numerous volunteer projects to improve and maintain parkland in that region.

Every April, groups such as the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, YMCA groups, youth organizations, garden clubs, ecology groups, high school and college students, the Sierra Club and countless individuals meet for "Trail Days." In 1969, 2,500 volunteers cleared 25 miles of trail connecting Big Basin and Castle Rock State Parks. By 1974, 65 miles of trail had been built and numerous campsites developed. Sempevirens maintains close contact with the California Department of Parks and Recreation whose rangers plan and provide work assignments.[20] Trail Days is an excellent example of a group planning for ongoing environmental action, as well as facilitating intergroup communication.

Because of the nature and complexity of the problems environmental groups face, they have realized the importance and effectiveness of coalitions. Quite simply, two groups speak louder than one. For example, the OSHA (Occupational Safety and Health Act) Environmental Network was formed in 1981. It is a coalition of labor unions and environmental groups working to keep the Clean Air Act and OSHA effective while Congress is trying to lower standards of these acts.[21] It should be noted that it was the United Steelworkers who sponsored the first major national conference on air pollution as a result of an air pollution disaster in Donora, Pennsylvania in 1948. Half the town fell ill

when weather conditions trapped poisonous gases from Donora's factories in the atmosphere. This was also the beginning of industry's affiliation with the American Lung Association.[22]

It is clear that no segment of society, whether it be government, business, industry or environmental groups alone can solve these resource problems.

MINNESOTA: ISSUES, ACTIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR VOLUNTEER INVOLVEMENT.

The Minnesota Chapter of the Sierra Club has identified a substantial number of issues for 1983: supporting the Superfund (money for hazardous waste clean-up), Clean Air Act, clean water, state land management, mining in the Boundary Waters Canoe Area (BWCA), recycling (pushing for the Bottle Bill) and renewable energy.[23] Presently, the BWCA is in danger of losing some of its Mining Protection Area to copper and nickel mining. Acid rain is a growing concern and there is controversy over motorboat and snowmobile use.

The Minnesota Pollution Control Agency has listed 32 of the state's 87 counties as having land and/or lake areas which are sensitive to acidic deposition, caused in large part by emissions from fossil fuel burning power plants. The Sierra Club Clean Air Task Force will be working with the Pollution Control Agency to develop an acid deposition standard and control plan (the first in the country). The goal is to have all Minnesota air polluters in compliance with deposition standards by 1990.[24]

Citizens for a Better Environment (CBE), a professional organization (opened its office in Minneapolis in May, 1982) working on human health and urban environmental issues, has declared hazardous wastes and water pollution by toxic substances to be Minnesota's most critical issues. Minnesota has no off-site repository where all industries and municipal plants may dump their hazardous wastes. The EPA has designated the metropolitan stretch of the Mississippi as one of the 34 toxic "hot spots" in the country.[25]

Paul Smith of the U.S. Forest Service said in an interview that the work needed to maintain park systems and wilderness areas in Minnesota would be virtually impossible without the help of volunteers. Currently, volunteers of all ages are active in trail maintenance, working in the visitor centers, writing publications and programs, etc. Ideally, Mr. Smith sees the recruitment of people using the recreation area as good candidates for meeting the needs of the parks and wilderness areas. For example, this fall groups planning to use the BWCA for cross-country skiing spent weekends assisting Forest Service staff in clearing and maintaining the ski trails.

There have not been a significant number of volunteers used with the Department of Natural Resources (DNR). Between 1974-79 only 40-80 volunteers were trained to work in interpretive centers. That averages less than one volunteer per state park. School groups and scouting troups have helped on a one day or weekend basis.[26] While these are good activities to help citizens gain a better understanding and greater appreciation for their environment, it needs to happen on a much wider scale to make a dent in the system.

There are groups putting their energy into educating the public so that citizens can participate in ways that facilitate gaining control of environmental policies. To encourage citizen participation in water pollution issues, CBE published a booklet entitled "How to Protect Minnesota's Environment Through Surface Water Discharge Permits." Requests for copies came from citizens, environmental groups, news media, government agencies, public libraries and special collection libraries. CBE also conducted Toxics Waterwatch workshops in which citizens were taught how to participate effectively in the

permit process and to speak up at public hearings regarding industrial and municipal polluters making applications to discharge toxic substances into lakes and streams.

Minnesota has a real lobbying power in the North Star Sierra Club chapter. Its exceptionally strong voice in legislature stems from its volunteer legislation committee of 50 lawyers. The Club also provides its members with training workshops in the lobbying process. The North Star chapter is also nationally known for its newsletter, updating its members with current issues, action alerts, volunteer activities and club outings. This communication is essential for effective action by its members.

THE ROLE OF VOLUNTEER MANAGEMENT

Given the fact that citizen participation will be vitally important in managing our threatened resources in the years to come, leaders in government, business, industry and special interest groups will need to have effective management skills. There is an especially strong need for the professional volunteer manager. This manager's role is described by Marlene Wilson, author of The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs, as someone to:

> ...*encourage and enable others we work with, both staff and volunteers, to become doers and movers as well. The future of our communities and country lies with those who are no longer content to be placid observers, but who are determined to become origins instead of pawns of the future. It is a challenging task we set for ourselves.*[27]

Volunteer managers will need to provide training for increased numbers of volunteers, plan strategies for action beyond crisis situations and propagate communication among diverse groups both nationally and internationally to pool resources.

With the increase in members and need for more effective communications, the Sierra Club hopes to implement a "phone tree" in the future. Membership would be available on a locally computerized mailing list categorized by legislative districts. Each district would have its own phone tree. Members could be easily rallied to provide support on issues demanding immediate attention. This tool could cut down on time needed to organize the writing of letters, phone banking, mailing information letters, etc.

It is one thing to communicate issues and activities between the various groups in the environmental community, yet the communication that goes on internally within a group is equally important. It is a law of nature: life cannot be sustained in the absence of a healthy core. It will be important for managers to help the volunteer find his/her "cog in the wheel" to enable satisfaction for the individual and the organization. Expectations must be clarified. Involvement needs to be evaluated and re-evaluated. Goals need to be developed and redeveloped.

It is particularly important for managers to encourage ongoing communication because of the very nature and content of environmental issues. There is substantial evidence to validate reasons for getting upset. It could be all too easy to let despair, powerlessness, frustration or anger immobilize a group or cause a genuinely concerned and talented individual to drop out for lack of human resources to work through these emotions. These feelings are to be expected. Leaders would benefit by meeting them head on, then going on. Leaders also need to be sensitive to those who are struggling with the time and energy consumed participating in these issues. They need to help volunteers understand and accept their limitations both as individuals and as a group. These problems have no one solution, nor can they be solved from one source. It may also come to a point where it is quite appropriate to support an in-

dividual's decision to refrain from involvement.

On the other side of the coin, there need to be built-in opportunities for recognition of accomplishments. People need to celebrate what their work is about and the impact they do have. In the same token, opportunities for enjoyable social interaction are essential for keeping the spirit and lifeline of the group.

In relation to future action for a better environment, I would propose that current structures stretch their existing resources and lend themselves open to new ones. Educators need to be activists and activists need to be educators. Perhaps the greatest investment in the future of our environment will be educating ourselves and our youth in promoting a society of concerned, thinking, environmentally responsible people. We cannot assume that someone else will be "mother earth's mother."

For example, camping education programs can go beyond teaching how to build that fire, prepare that food and set up that camping space in the outdoors. A more comprehensive, interdisciplinary approach on the effects of our actions on the entire ecosystem is needed. "Camping 101" needs to develop into "Low Impact Camping--User Education."

Groups sponsoring outings for their members can add another type of outing: organizing a special project combining the efforts of other groups or individuals. This is not to replace recreational outings, for they have a very important purpose in themselves. For example, the Sierra Club, in conjunction with the Forest Service, could organize a project in the BWCA, inviting non-members. This could create a ripple effect. A Sierra Club liaison could be developed with the Forest Service, possibly assisting in the process of training volunteers. The outing could be educational as well as developing skills for future involvement.

By inviting non-members, the scope of resources is broadened. Sometimes special interest groups can get caught up in their own jargon and ways of doing things. Hopefully the exposure to the work that needs to be done would foster a sense of relationship in the future for those involved.

Ideally, the DNR, U.S. Forest Service, EPA, Bureau of Land Management and other major management organizations would have their own paid volunteer managers or grant existing staff time to develop programs to support citizen participation. Imagine the impact of such a movement! Although this is unlikely on a large scale in the immediate future, it can begin on a smaller scale as groups engage in developing these networks.

CONCLUSION: A GLOBAL PERSPECTIVE

A river does not stop at the border. It flows without regard to its name or the area it runs through. Minnesota cannot look at its environmental problems solely within its own boundaries. The fact that these issues are of a global nature increases the possibilities of a diverse and resourceful environmental network actively involved in the future of a human ecology.

> *Movements, networks and publications are gathering people around the world in common cause, trafficking in transformative ideas, spreading messages of hope without the sanction of any government. Transformation has no country.*[28]

In addition to tapping individuals and groups with skills in leadership and effective management of people and motivations, environmentalists need to go beyond specifics. We need to tend the fire before it goes out. We need to adopt an attitude that will carry the energy beyond a movement to a way of life. Adrenalin is plentiful in a crisis situation; what will sustain those "in-between-times"? Environmentalists need to

accept that our work will take on many forms.

We need to learn a concept of time: that we move in a direction, not to an end. We cannot fool ourselves into thinking we will save our environment in a lifetime, nor is it safe to assume at any one point the environment will be safe. The effects of an ongoing developing technology will continually be a threat or an aid to the environment, demanding our "watchfulness."

This campaign will not end, it will change with change. Evolution and solution will interplay on a continuum. Hopefully we can learn to live with it and enjoy the ride.

FOOTNOTES

[1]*"The Fate of the Earth Conference," Sierra, January/February 1983, pp. 33-34.*

[2]*"Public Likes Conservation," Sierra, July/August 1982, p. 16.*

[3]*Susan J. Ellis and Katherine H. Noyes, By The People (Philadelphia: ENERGIZE, 1978), p. 166.*

[4]*Ibid., pp. 196-7.*

[5]*Clem L. Zinger, Richard Dalsemer, and Helen Magargle, Environmental Volunteers in America (National Center For Voluntary Action, 1973), p. 2.*

[6]*American Revolution Bicentennial Administration and Department of Housing and Urban Development, Environment--Challenge/Response (Washington, D.C. 1976), p. 1.*

[7]*Charles Beitz and Michael Washburn, Creating The Future (New York: Bantam Books, 1974), p. 104.*

[8]*"The Antinuclear Movement Approaches Critical Mass," New Age, June 1979, p. 24.*

[9]*Zinger, op.cit., p. 18.*

[10]*Ibid., p. 16.*

[11]*Ibid., pp. 29-34.*

[12]*Environmental Planning and Research, Volunteer Activities in Public Outdoor Recreation and Resource Management Areas, Minnesota State Planning Agency, 1978, p. 3.*

[13]*Zinger, op. cit., pp. 3-4.*

[14]*Ibid., p. 1.*

[15]*Zinger, op. cit., p. 6.*

[16]*"Sierra Club Conservation Priorities for 1982," Sierra, March/April 1982, p. 19.*

[17]*Priority Dispatch mailed out by National Sierra Club chapter Re: "Dangers We Face in 1983."*

[18]*Zinger, op. cit., p. 18.*

[19]*Ellis, op. cit., pp. 241-2.*

[20]*United States Department of the Interior Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, A Resource Guide on Volunteerism for Park and Recreation and Heritage Conservation Organizations. Washington D.C. 1978, pp. 22-23.*

[21]*"The OSHA/Environmental Network," Sierra, January/February 1982, p. 146.*

[22]*Ibid., p. 146.*

[23]*Interview with David Adams, Executive Committee member of the North Star Sierra Club chapter.*

[24]*Project Environment Action Alert, Sierra North Star, February 1983, p. 7.*

[25]*Citizens For A Better Environment, CBE Environmental Review,*

January/February 1983, Chicago, 1983, pp. 16-17.

[26]*Environmental Planning and Research, op. cit., p. 15.*

[27]*Marlene Wilson, The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs (Boulder: Volunteer Management Associates, 1976), p. 26.*

[28]*Marilyn Ferguson, The Aquarian Conspiracy: Personal and Social Transformation in the 1980's (Los Angeles: J.P. Tarcher, Inc., 1980), p. 409.*

Continuing Education for Today's Volunteer Leader

Elmer H. Miller, PhD and Terri L. Rittenburg, MA

The political and economic situation today offers a great challenge to communities. Just when needs for human service agencies are expanding, government budgets for them are down; private nonprofit organizations will lose billions in government aid in the next few years; and new tax laws have weakened tax incentives for private sector contributions (Nebraska Organization of Volunteer Leaders, 1983). In this era of shrinking resources, the role of the volunteer becomes more critical than ever before.

> *Some 35 million Americans still do it. They donate billions of hours a year to hospitals, schools, churches, social welfare agencies, professional organizations, neighborhood groups, clubs and political campaigns. Many of these organizations could not survive without these volunteers (Nebraska Organization of Volunteer Leaders, 1983).*

In these difficult economic times, with some people working longer hours to combat inflation and homemakers joining the workforce, what motivates people to volunteer? Christiansen and Garrett's article, "Why People Volunteer," reports two findings which most theorists and practitioners accept (Dik and Warnock, 1982): (1) Social responsibility is a value inculcated into the American way of life. Social scientists have found that Americans engage in helping behavior because they have been taught to do so and not because of basic instinct. (2) Reciprocity is another reason; people give factors for help previously received or in anticipation of future personal benefit.

Regardless of their motivations, volunteers are a necessity in today's society. There is a new emphasis in volunteerism developing in our communities today. Volunteers are an important segment playing crucial roles during hard times.

Because of our economic times, administration of volunteer programs and the role of the administrator have increased in importance in the last few years. As volunteer programs grow and become a more important part of ongoing services to people, the job of the administrator as well as the scope of the programs will continue to change (Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt, 1975).

Because of this continuous change, the Division of Continuing Studies at the University of Nebraska-Lincoln (UNL) has been concerned with offering up-to-date educational programs for volunteer lead-

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ers. Before the introduction of a Certificate Program in Volunteer Leader Development, UNL conducted a needs assessment to identify specific concerns of volunteer leaders in Nebraska. A second needs assessment recently re-identified these needs so that programs would reflect the changing roles of volunteer leaders.

The professional training of volunteer administrators makes them more able to be visible, effective, initiative-taking and heard in their organizations. Volunteer departments are rising in status and becoming more pervasive in their activities throughout most organizations (Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt, 1975).

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

A continuous learning plan for the training and development of all volunteer leaders means simply that there is a realistic, well-integrated plan that has a beginning, a middle, and an end. The "end" of such a plan indicates only that the individual participating in it is now ready for further exploration and enrichment individually (Stenzel and Feeney, 1968). The UNL Division of Continuing Studies is in the middle of this process in re-evaluating the needs of Nebraska's volunteer leaders.

Building content for the training and development of individuals must be focused on effecting changes in the knowledge, attitudes, and skills of volunteer leaders. The end result should be improved services to the organization itself, the community at large, and self-learning and development of the individual (Stenzel and Feeney, 1968).

NEEDS ASSESSMENT METHODOLOGY

After conducting the volunteer leader training program for five years, the UNL Division of continuing Studies and the Nebraska Organization of Volunteer Leaders became concerned about the future of the program. Because the roles and needs of volunteer leaders change, a new needs assessment was performed to identify necessary changes for the training program. The major issues addressed in the new needs assessment were:

1. Whether continuing education was still important to volunteer leaders.
2. What types of topics were most relevant to their needs.
3. Whether the documentation of completion of training--whether in CEU's and a certificate or in college credit--was important to volunteer leaders.
4. How the program could best be packaged and marketed in terms of time, place, program length, price, and instructional delivery method.

The survey instrument was sent to 1,800 persons in Nebraska who are involved in the supervision of volunteers, including both past participants in the Volunteer Leader Development Series and non-participants. The return was 152 surveys, for a response rate of 8.4 percent. The low response may be due to the fact that the survey was sent to many people not familiar with the concept of the Volunteer Leader Development Series, coupled with the fact that follow-up techniques were not used.

RESULTS

The first issue addressed, the importance of continuing education, was supported by a vast majority of respondents (97 percent). Eighty-one percent felt there is a need for the Volunteer Leader Development Series.

The survey included a list of 14 topics, including such skills as man-

agement, marketing, interviewing techniques, program development, communication, and conflict management, which respondents rated on a 1 to 5 scale (1 = "would definitely participate," 5 = "would definitely not participate"). Space to write in additional topics also was included. Interest in topics was analyzed by examining both the mean rating for each topic and also the percentage of people rating a topic 1 ("would definitely participate") or 2 ("would probably participate"). The topics found to be of most interest to volunteer leaders are listed in Table 1.

Over half of the respondents (64 percent) were interested in the Volunteer Leader certificate, which would document completion of a certain number of CEU's. Half of the respondents were interested in college credit, and half were not.

In looking at the marketing information gained from the survey, one of the first issues of importance is to identify the target audience. In the case of this training program, two primary audiences were found to be relevant: the volunteer leader and the organization which that leader represents. The organization is vital in its support for continuing education activities, both financial and otherwise. One question addressed this issue in asking how tuition fees are paid. About 67 percent of respondents indicated their organization paid at least part of the fees for attending. Almost half the respondents said their organization paid the total fee. This finding supported the importance of the organization as an audience. Eighty percent of the respondents indicated they would attend programs such as these for a fee in the range of $20 to $40 per day.

Timing of workshops was addressed through questions on workshop length, the number of workshops to hold per year, and the months and days of the week to hold them. The most likely amounts of time to attend one workshop were considered to be one, two, three, or four days. Eighty-eight percent of the respondents would take one or two days, with few willing to take longer. Of that 88 percent, half would take one day and half two days.

The most popular months for holding workshops were February, January, March and November, in that order. Least favored were June, August, September and December. Days of the week for holding workshops were rated on a scale of 1 to 5, where 1 = "strongly support" and 5 = "strongly oppose." Rankings for days of the week were determined using the same method as was used for topics--both the mean rating and the percentage of respondents rating an item 1 or 2 were considered. Weekdays were strongly preferred over weekends, with Wednesday the most popular day for a workshop, followed by Thursday, Tuesday, Friday and Monday.

Respondents also were asked how many workshops they would attend in a one-year period to earn a certificate. Choices given the respondents were two, three, four, or five or more workshops; attendance at one workshop was not considered a viable choice for earning adequate CEU's for a certificate. About half of the respondents would attend two workshops in a one-year period, and another quarter would attend three, with fewer willing to attend four and even fewer five or more.

The delivery method of instruction is another important aspect in offering a training program. The DCS can offer instruction through various modes, using traditional seminar or workshop format, or less traditional devices such as correspondence or technological means such as teleconferencing. Respondents were given four types of learning methodologies which could be used for training and were asked to rate these on a 1 to 5 scale, where 1 = "very interested" and 5 = "not interested." By far, the most preferred learning method was the seminar-workshop-conference mode. This is

TABLE 1

TOPICS OF MOST INTEREST TO RESPONDENTS

Playing the Board Game

Working with boards and advisory committees; purposes and objectives of boards and advisory committees, responsibilities of board and staff members; parliamentary procedure.

The Volunteer Leader and the Community

Identifying needs and concerns of community; functioning as a change agent; expectations and leadership styles of the volunteer leader.

Volunteer Program Development

Needs assessment; setting goals, program development; setting priorities, planning and evaluation of activities.

Relating to the Public

Marketing; relating through media, communication techniques; understanding the volunteer; recruitment.

People Management

Delegation, time management; supervision; evaluation of personnel.

Communication

Principles, interpersonal communication skills, techniques for group leadership and participation, listening, and other communication skills.

Conflict Management .

Causes of conflict, professional and personal needs of others, enhancing brainstorming skills, resolving conflict situations, recognizing roadblocks, and sending clear messages.

Designing a Creative Volunteer Training Program

Planning, designing, and executing a training program; orientation and on-job training of volunteers.

not surprising; in general, participants in continuing education have not flocked to nontraditional methods. A national survey on adult learning interests and experiences (Carp, Peterson, and Roelfs, 1974) revealed that most Learners and Would-be Learners prefer lectures, classes, and on-the-job training as learning methods.

We might infer that some reasons for the strong preference for the workshop setting might be: (1) this is the method most familiar to most people; and (2) a workshop setting encourages more interaction among participants, and therefore more sharing of ideas in addition to the formal training taking place. While the workshop format was most preferred, receiving a 1 or 2 rating by 78 percent of respondents, the other three methodologies included in the survey received moderate interest. Teleconference, credit class, and independent study course all were rated as a 1 or 2 by about a third of the respondents.

Possible locations for workshops were rated so the most popular sites in Nebraska for holding workshops could be determined. Nine population centers in Nebraska were listed, but respondents could write in other choices. The two most popular sites for workshops were Lincoln and Omaha, the major cities in the state. Cities in central Nebraska were favored next, with the least popular site being the sparsely populated Panhandle. These findings are not surprising, as they follow the pattern of population density in the state.

In addition to collecting information about programming, some demographic data were tabulated regarding the respondents and their organizations. The number of volunteer leaders in the organization ranged from one to 2,000, one being the most common number and seven the median. The number of volunteers in the organization ranged from two to 2,000, with 100 being the most common response and 70 the median. Over 70 percent of the respondents were not members of the Nebraska Organization of Volunteer Leaders (NOVL).

The respondents represented many types of agencies. The categories of youth, health, elderly, social services, and government were the most highly represented. Respondents could check all appropriate categories, so total response was greater than the number of respondents. The types of agencies represented are given in Table 2.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings of this needs assessment indicate substantial support among respondents for continuing education activities for volunteer leaders. It appears that further study would be useful in learning more about specific needs for credit program and other creative learning activities.

Cull and Hardy (1974) state:
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. In order for progress and goodness to be realized in our society, we must develop greater respect for each volunteer leader and strive to understand in a personal way their needs, their fears, and their longings and then relate to them.

The situation today challenges volunteer leaders to commit more time, more energy and more effort to managing volunteers. To meet this challenge, volunteer leaders must engage in professional growth activities.

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TABLE 2

TYPES OF AGENCIES

Category	Number	Percentage
1. Health	43	20.5
2. Youth	42	20.0
3. Social Services	30	14.3
4. Elderly	20	9.6
5. Government	20	9.6
6. Churches	12	5.7
7. Education	9	4.3
8. Recreation	7	3.3
9. YMCA/YWCA	7	3.3
10. Child Care	7	3.3
11. Library	4	1.9
12. Arts & Humanities	3	1.4
13. Corrections/Courts	3	1.4
14. Miscellaneous	3	1.4
	210	100.0

Performance-Based Certification in Volunteer Administration

Sarah Jane Rehnborg, CAVS and
Mark Eaton Cheren, EdD

INTRODUCTION: A NEW STAGE FOR CERTIFICATION IN VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

Certification in the profession of volunteer administration is on the threshold of a new stage in its development. When the Association for Volunteer Administration last year announced firm initiatives toward establishing a mechanism for credentialing based on an assessment of demonstrated performance against a set of prescribed competencies and standards, it was acknowledging that the testing time for this new mode of certification was over. The Association was saying that it was willing and ready to refine and then implement the new Performance-Based Certification Program as a full scale professional certification system.

Certainly, this process did not emerge full blown of an instant, even as a concept in the minds of those who first conceived it. But neither, as an evolving vocation, has the stature of volunteer administration yet fully been accepted by employers, clients, educators, and colleagues from related disciplines. That fact has brought doubt and a lack of self-confidence to many in the field. Undoubtedly, our collective publics will continue to need to be convinced of the validity and worth of the profession even as we endeavor to establish the validity of this new credential, "CVA."

It is significant that we, ourselves, as volunteer administrators, have for some time now been willing as a generic body to submit to evaluation. We have asked to be tested. We have acknowledged the necessity for standards of professional excellence. We have accepted the reality that not all of our number will measure up, particularly as we move to this new set of high standards. Of course there is a duality of motive: there is an obligation to the clients, the agencies and the causes we serve; and there is the desire to be recognized as serious, skilled practitioners of an important profession.

In volunteer administration as in other professional fields, when implementing a new process for certification there must be pioneers to risk creativity at every level of the organization. There will be misunderstandings, resistance to change, and stumbles along the way. There will be raw edges to the process that need to be smoothed out. Nevertheless, the base from which this effort springs is sound and solid and the commitment of its activists is sincere and prepared to endure. The fledgling is hatching and gathering itself to break forth from the protective shell of self-congratulation and peer group, in-house insulation. But the hallmark of this process of certification shall be its aim of growing excellence and growing numbers of excellent administrators of volunteer programs. The new certification system must enable, operating so as to encourage and support success in the pursuit of excellence.

Over the past several months and continuing until the fall of this year, AVA has been field-testing its new

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Performance-Based Certification Program in preparation for a full implementation open to the entire field, after November 1, 1983. With the cooperation of The Journal of Volunteer Administration, the Certification Committee will present information on the Program. In this issue and at key points in the future, we will undertake to describe the meaning and the method of CVA for those vital to its success, The Journal readership.

Joanne H. Patton, CAVS
Coordinator,
Certification Committee

BEYOND COMPETENCE: PERFORMANCE-BASED CERTIFICATION

Historically, the way in which judgments have been made about the ability of professionals to practice their professions has come full circle. Before professional associations and states became enmeshed in mutually reinforcing relationships concerned with certifying and licensing professionals, those preparing to become part of an established profession apprenticed themselves to individual practitioners. Helping established practitioners and working alongside them in the field, it was easy for these apprentices to have their performance, that is, how well they actually worked in that field, evaluated.

But as professions became more technical and the knowledge needed for satisfactory performance increased, more time and effort with apprentices was required in order to provide them with the knowledge necessary for sound practice. As the number of people seeking such training also began to increase dramatically, the use of schools (learning factories) in addition to or instead of extended apprenticeships became the norm. Increasingly, certification was linked to degrees and tests that measure knowledge and skills abstracted from the "real world" of professional practice.

As a result, an honors graduate from a business school would often be automatically deemed competent as a manager by a prospective employer solely on the basis of academic accomplishment. Knowledge is an essential part of an individual's ability to perform; however, it is far from the whole picture. Knowing or knowledge can help in performance or doing, but it cannot be substituted for the action (the doing), itself.

The demand for relevance and client empowerment in the late sixties and early seventies, and an emphasis on accountability and productivity in the late seventies and early eighties, have combined to motivate a push toward competence. Many educational programs sponsored by schools, corporations, and professional groups are now competency-based programs. What this means is that programs created to facilitate new learning and the development of competence are designed and described in terms of outcomes for the learner (new abilities, knowledge, and understanding), rather than in terms of teaching activities or of curriculum to be transmitted.

The movement toward competence has certainly been a step in the right direction. With this trend has come increased emphasis on using skill and knowledge in concert, and an acknowledgment that smaller proportions of theory to practice than traditionally have been required do not diminish and may well enhance professional practice.

The dictionary defines "competence" as being capable, sufficient and able; having the requisite skills, abilities, or qualities. The competence of a professional is judged by his or her ability to perform the functions and tasks of the job. If the person can meet or surpass the performance standards of a particular position, the person generally is considered to be competent (Klemp, 1979).

The problem is that while the nature and phrasing of learning ob-

jectives and methods used in the classroom have been changing, most formal educational programs are still abstracted from the real world of professional practice. At best, an individual's ability to perform the functions and tasks of the job is evaluated in the classroom in a simulation of some kind. Yet we all know that actually performing functions and tasks in a real work setting is quite another situation. It is while discharging professional responsibilities that an individual's ability to use an area of competence appropriately may display itself or break down.

What all of this points to is the need to continue the circular trend in certification methodology back to the place it all started, with people developing or at least demonstrating professional competencies in the role of an apprentice or of a practicing professional. In the field of volunteer administration, most people develop their competencies outside of the formal classroom. This is true because peer coaching and collaborative learning are more common in our field than in most working environments and because formal programs of preparation have been slow to develop. Also, open access to all is part of how the field defines itself. These very characteristics actually make volunteer administration an ideal profession in which to introduce the use of the demonstration of satisfactory performance as a working professional to prove one is qualified to be certified, rather than simulated demonstrations of competence or the completion of paper and pencil tests.

WHAT MAKES A COMPETENT PROFESSIONAL?

In an analysis of several occupational groups to determine what makes a competent professional, Klemp (1979) identified some interesting findings. Being willing and able to learn, Klemp found, was more important to competent professional performance than the actual amount of knowledge held by the professional:

> *It is not the acquisition of knowledge or even the use of knowledge that distinguishes the outstanding performer, but rather the cognitive skills that are exercised and developed in the process of knowledge acquisition and use that constitute occupational competence. In other words, the information processing skills related to learning, recall, and forgetting are not so important to success as the conceptual skills that enable one to bring order to the information chaos that characterizes one's everyday environment. (p. 2)*

Klemp went on to identify three main cognitive skills related to competent performance in a wide array of occupations:

1. The ability to see broad thematic consistencies in diverse information and the ability to organize and communicate both those consistencies and differences.

2. The ability to conceptualize the many sides of a controversial issue: the ability to understand the underlying issues and the many perspectives on it, and to resolve the conflict for him/herself and other people.

3. The ability to learn from experience.

Klemp's findings are critical to all professionals, not only to volunteer administrators. He has experimentally verified what has long seemed intuitively apparent to the astute observer: the competent professional is one who can make sense out of information, conceptualize, and learn from experience. But the progression from the identification of the "true" marks of a competent professional, to means and methods of assessing an individual's relative ability in these cognitive areas has only just begun.

Paper and pencil tests have long been criticized for inadequately measuring the richness of thinking and behaving. Assessment by direct observation is difficult to implement due to expense and control factors. The subjective qualities of "common sense," ability to "relate well to people," to "conceptualize," and to "learn from experience" are commonly outside of the range of currently available testing devices.

Yet, just because our technology of ability measurement is not yet refined enough to get at these larger, more consequential characteristics of people functioning well in their professional environment, it does not mean we must abandon all attempts to evaluate performance. Until more refined techniques are available, the compilation of a portfolio for documenting professional skills is one alternative currently available.

Assembling a portfolio requires that the applicant provide evidence of skill through self-critical descriptions (narratives) of projects he or she has administered. In such narratives, the applicant describes the aspects of the role of a volunteer administrator which he or she has played, what he or she did, why, and what results were generated by the effort. Actual products demonstrating these results that could be supplied, if requested, are identified, as are letters or statements of independent evaluation and verification which could be supplied, if requested.

As we have seen, analyzing one's skills and citing documentation to verify the application of these abilities is a key ingredient in learning from experience. The Performance-Based Certification Program offers the applicant a structured format for demonstrating these basic skills of professional competence. For it is the process of compiling a portfolio around key competencies in volunteer administration that is the crux of this new certification program.

COMPONENTS OF THE NEW CERTIFICATION PROGRAM

The Association for Volunteer Administration's performance-based model for professional credentialing allows the prospective candidate to engage in a number of exciting and professionally rewarding experiences. Here are a few.

Self-Assessment

Reviewing and assessing one's professional skills and abilities provides the cornerstone for the Certification program. Utilizing the competencies and performance criteria established by AVA as necessary for satisfactory volunteer administration, the administrator interested in certification rates him or herself according to an established scale. In order to progress with the Certification program, a specified score suggesting moderate breadth of experience must be achieved. This ensures the prospective candidate with a reasonable chance of success--an important "hedge" before one undertakes this process.

Not achieving the necessary score, however, does NOT constitute failure in any way. Rather, the AVA competency checklists can become the administrator's guide for continuing development. Sorting through workshop and course offerings, books, and conference experiences available in the field can be nothing short of confusing. With the checklist as a guide, it is easy to identify areas where additional development is needed, either to enhance existing strengths or to respond to felt deficiencies. The developing administrator can utilize this initial self-assessment experience to commence a series of more thoughtful continuing professional development planning efforts.

It is likely that an increasing number of offerings treating these topics will be available as colleges and universities begin using the AVA competencies and performance criteria as a significant input to the

curriculum development work for those preparing for this and related fields. It is likely, as well, that the AVA listing will be used in support of efforts to assess experientially-derived college level learning for new entrants.

Application and Workshop

Those interested in pursuing certification prepare an application which they submit to AVA for review. Potential applicants attend a workshop where they are introduced to the Program and where, if interested, they are helped to assess whether or not they are ready to apply to become a candidate for certification. Following the workshop, they complete the application, which includes a sample performance narrative along with a preliminary statement of philosophy. They submit it, enclosing the appropriate fee, to AVA.

Performance Narratives

To verify that the certification candidate has the skills and abilities claimed on the competency checklists, those accepted as candidates for certification are asked to put together a portfolio, the main component of which is a series of managerial and behavioral performance narratives. Each narrative requires that the candidate recount an actual work situation where various competencies were displayed. The narrative explains what the administrator did to handle the situation and why, and the outcomes or results of her or his work. To verify the authenticity of the narrative, the candidate identifies persons who could attest to the job done and/or products that were developed in the course of the experience, such as reports, training manuals, and brochures. Reviewing these narratives, experienced professionals are able to make a reasonable judgment concerning the quality of a candidate's performance.

Based on the combined experiences of pilot and field test candidates, this writing exercise has proved to be an enormously profitable learning experience in itself, and a guide for improved practice. Experiences of success as well as more limited results were shared with equal profit.

Advisement

The opportunity to work with more experienced administrators in a mentoring relationship is an additional benefit of the process. Each candidate has at least one advisor who helps to guide the work of the candidate and critically evaluate the narratives in mid-point and end-point reviews.

The conversation is expanded in one-to-one and small group meetings with other candidates, sometimes attended by one or more advisors. In fact, through this series of conversations between candidates and their advisors and among candidates, a dialogue centered around professional standards evolves. It is in just such conversations that some of the most serious, new-knowledge-creating debates concerning professional standards and ethics for our field can emerge.

Such local dialogues can and should become local platforms where we share and reflect on our individual professional experiences and through which we are all able to continually work to improve our field. Many new ideas should be born here. This will not be the only platform for such things, of course, but it will be a significant one, with a particular flavor of its own. And choosing to relate to these local certification conversations in this way should make the process of supporting candidates through certification much more rewarding for each of us and more productive for our profession.

External Assessment

To provide internal standardization and verification for the certification process itself, several review points are built into the Program.

The first assessment, of course, is the candidate's own. But this is added to in the feedback, which is to say the external assessment, that comes from advisors, mentioned above, informally all along the way and more formally, in writing, at the mid and end points (typically 4-6 months and then 9-12 months after application).

In the final stage of the process, the candidate is asked to do a case analysis and response. The candidate receives an account of a situation confronting an administrator and is asked to bring his or her skills to bear in analyzing the case and suggesting possible courses of action, including the recommendation of a preferred course of action and a rationale for that recommendation. This case analysis and response and the candidate's completed portfolio, together with any verifying evidence requested, are then evaluated by the AVA Board of Assessment. It is on this basis that a determination of whether or not to certify the candidate is made.

All the portfolios are assessed against the same set of standards, those established by AVA and published in its literature. This should assure a uniformity of standards and that some meaningful, consistent status is attached to the award of CVA: Certified Volunteer Administrator.

QUESTIONS ABOUT CERTIFICATION

Under AVA's Professional Development Committee, presently chaired by Mary DeCarlo, there are a number of committees, including the Certification Committee, currently chaired by Joanne Patton. But at the local level, questions about certification should be directed to your local Certification Liaison, as published this spring in AVA Update. If you have difficulty contacting your Regional Certification Liaison, the AVA Office in Boulder should be able to help you out. Ultimately, the conduct of certification in each region is the responsibility of your Regional Chair, and that individual is another key area person who should be able to help you answer questions or respond to concerns about certification.

One of the important challenges for the Certification Program is to work in harmony with the AVA regional structure. By decentralizing the delivery system, the program gains strength and the regions are given appropriate responsibilities.

SPONSORSHIP AND COOPERATION

A local certification effort may be initiated by a local group of volunteer administrators, by an AVA affiliate, or by an AVA regional organization, if it is strong enough to shoulder the burden of supporting candidates throughout the year. While a local college or university can act as a cooperating partner, the initiative and the ultimate responsibility for local certification efforts must always rest with one or more of these professional groups.

There are two ways of pursuing certification: either as part of a sponsored group; or through a self-initiated version, where the candidate is to a significant extent on his or her own. The first and recommended way of pursuing certification is to be part of a sponsored group effort. The advantage here is that there is an organized structure to provide support. When operating properly, the local support structure should be able to set up candidate support groups which meet periodically to trade feedback and consultation and to mediate difficulties in advisor/advisee relationships. Candidates can generally expect to receive more help in finding advisors in this version.

The second version, the self-initiated option, is reserved for those who do not have a well-organized group of professional volunteer administrators in their locale. Observing the kind of support and dialogue that are helpful to highly motivated and competent candidates and advisors, we are in-

creasingly convinced that going it alone can be a risky business.

We strongly encourage you to consider organizing a local group of professionals in volunteer administration to sponsor a certification effort, if one does not already exist in your locale, before choosing to travel to the one or two workshops at some point far distant from your home, returning to find your own advisors, and putting your portfolio together without the benefit of peer support for either you or your advisors. At the very least, you are encouraged to find someone else in your community with whom you can team up, enroll in the distant workshop(s) together, and go on to help each other through the demanding process of assembling a portfolio.

THE VALUE OF PERFORMANCE-BASED CERTIFICATION

We have already begun to detect signs of the kind of impact this program can have on the field and for the individual practitioner. Several practitioners of volunteer administration in hospitals have indicated that this should bolster their requests for salaries more appropriate to their level of competence. Larger organizations, such as the Red Cross, have already begun to write "CVA preferred" into the job descriptions of Directors of Volunteers. Experienced professionals are already beginning to take less experienced members of the profession on in a mentoring role to help them prepare for application for certification under this new program. And from the process itself, if Pittsburgh's experience is any indication, we can expect a whole new quality of dialogue and a whole new level of participation in the local conversation about: (1) the nature of this profession; (2) what constitutes sound professional practice; and (3) what we want to establish as appropriate professional standards in our field.

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Klemp, G.O. "Identifying, Measuring, and Integrating Competence." New Directions for Experiential Learning, 1979, 3, 41-52.

Rehnborg, Sarah Jane. "Assessing Skills as a Volunteer Administrator: A New Approach to Certification." Volunteer Administration, Vol. XII, No. 3, Fall 1979, 10-17.

Abstracts

"Voluntarism, So Far, Fails to Compensate for U.S. Budget Cuts"

Timothy D. Schellhardt

Wall Street Journal, June 22, 1982

Mr. Schellhardt argues that President Reagan has raised too high the expectations that the private sector can fill the gap created by reductions in Federal funding of human service programs. He observes that "the gap between rhetoric and reality is gaping."

Federal policy is contradictory in that these same budget cuts have reduced the ability of voluntary agencies to increase or even maintain services. In addition, Federal tax policy, by reducing tax rates, has reduced an incentive for private giving.

Can corporate and foundation giving fill the gap? Officials respond that corporations, foundations, and other charitable organizations have been inundated with requests which "can't conceivably be met."

Finally, because of worsening economic conditions many organizations are finding it more and more difficult to recruit and retain volunteers.

"The Volunteer: Key to Successful Fund Raising"

Marvin J. Deckoff

Philanthropy Monthly, November 1982

The writer provides a humorous, anecdotal account of his experiences as a volunteer fund raiser for Hotchkiss and Yale.

Emphasis is placed on a personal approach via the handwritten letter, telephone call or personal visit, all of which are most effectively done by volunteers, in contrast to form letters or computer print out mail.

Volunteer courage in fund raising is described in four ascending levels: to write a letter; to make a phone call; to go and see the prospect; and to suggest a particular amount.

Why people volunteer to raise money: a genuine interest in what the school does; idealistic impulses of a charitable nature; supporting old school friendships through regular contact; and gaining prestige with the volunteer's own peer group by filling a leadership position.

"Getting as Much as You Give: New Volunteer Jobs That Get You Professional Experience as Well as Personal Satisfaction"

Nancy Love

Self, February 1982

For prospective volunteers, Ms. Love stresses the importance of thorough self and job analysis in order to find the right job match. Because many women now work at paid jobs they will be interested in volunteering only as it contributes to their career interests as well as affording personal satisfaction.

Ms. Love suggests the following questions: What are my motives for volunteering? What are my capabilities? How much time should I give? What about the organization and the job: training; supervision; evaluation; relations with paid staff?

Exciting new areas of volunteer opportunity are noted: advocacy; consumerism; health care; and computer control. As organizations increasingly feel the effects of Federal budget and tax cuts, they will seek volunteers with special skills and recruited from special target groups, such as family sets.

"Volunteer to Career: A Study of Student Volunteerism and Employability"

Jeremy Bentley-Kasman

Mayor's Voluntary Action Center, New York City, 1983

This research project examines the relationship between volunteer experience and employability. Recognizing that volunteer experience significantly affects career decisions among students, the survey sought to find out whether volunteer experience really helps in getting a job. A total of 380 private corporations and 210 voluntary organizations in the New York area were asked whether and how they took volunteer experience into account in hiring recent college graduates.

The findings showed that almost 82 percent of responding employers "recognize volunteer experience as an employment consideration." Seventy-six percent look at the applicant's resume for volunteer experience; 37 percent provide space on their application forms for volunteer experience; 72 percent bring the subject up during the employment interview.

An additional finding: approximately one-fifth of all employers gave indications of equating volunteer experience with previous paid employment.

To obtain a copy: Send check or money order for $4.50 to College Volunteer Program Dept. P, Mayor's Voluntary Action Center, 61 Chamber Street, New York, NY 10007.

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

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GUIDELINES FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION encourages the submission of manuscripts dealing with all aspects of volunteerism. We will gladly work with authors to assist in the development of themes or appropriate style. The following are key guidelines:

I. CONTENT

A. THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION provides a forum for the exchange of ideas and the sharing of knowledge about volunteer administration. Articles may address practical concerns in the management of volunteer programs, philosophical issues in volunteerism, and significant applicable research.

B. Articles may focus on volunteering in any type of setting. In fact, THE JOURNAL encourages articles dealing with areas less visible than the more traditional health, social services, and education settings (though, of course, these are welcome as well). Also, manuscripts may cover both formal volunteering and informal volunteering (self-help, community organizations, etc.). Models of volunteer programming may come from the voluntary sector, government-related agencies, or the business world.

C. Please note that THE JOURNAL deals with volunteerism, not voluntarism. This is an important distinction. For clarification, here are some working definitions:

1. volunteerism: anything related to volunteers or volunteer programs, regardless of setting, funding source, etc. (so, for example, this includes all government-related volunteers).

2. voluntarism: refers to anything voluntary in our society, including religion; basically refers to voluntary agencies (those with volunteer boards and private funding)—but voluntary agencies do not always utilize volunteers.

Our readership and focus is concerned with anything regarding volunteers. A general article about, for example, changes in Federal funding patterns may be of value to executives of voluntary agencies, but not to administrators of volunteer programs necessarily. If this distinction is still unclear, feel free to inquire further and we will attempt to categorize your manuscript subject for you.

D. THE JOURNAL is seeking articles with a "timeless" quality. Press releases or articles simply describing a new program are not sufficient. We want to go beyond "show and tell" to deal with substantive questions such as: why was the program initiated in the first place? what obstacles had to be overcome? what advice would the author give to others attempting a similar program? what variables might affect the success of such a project elsewhere? what might the author do differently if given a second chance? what conclusions can be drawn from the experiences given?

Articles must be conscious demonstrations of an issue or principle.

II. PROCEDURE

A. The author must send three (3) copies of the manuscript to THE JOURNAL office.

B. With the three copies, authors must also send the following:
1. a one-paragraph biography, highlighting the author(s)'s background in volunteerism;
2. a cover letter authorizing THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION to publish the submitted article, if found acceptable;
3. mailing address(es) and telephone numbers for each author credited.

C. Manuscripts may be submitted at any time during the year, but the following are the deadlines for consideration for each issue:

SEPTEMBER	issue:	manuscripts due by the 15th of JULY
DECEMBER	issue:	manuscripts due by the 15th of OCTOBER
MARCH	issue:	manuscripts due by the 15th of JANUARY
JUNE	issue:	manuscripts due by the 15th of APRIL

D. Articles will be reviewed by a panel of Reviewing Editors. The author's name will be removed to assure full impartiality. The review process takes six weeks to three months.

1. Authors will be notified in advance of publication of acceptance of their articles. THE JOURNAL retains the right to edit all manuscripts for basic writing and consistency control. Any need for extensive editing will be discussed with the author in advance. Published manuscripts will not be returned.

2. Unpublished manuscripts will be returned to the authors with comments and criticism.

3. If a manuscript is returned with suggestions for revisions and the author subsequently rewrites the article, the second submission will be re-entered into the regular review process as a new article.

E. Authors of published articles will receive two complimentary copies of the issue of THE JOURNAL carrying their article.

F. Copyright for all published articles is retained by the Association for Volunteer Administration.

III. STYLE

A. Manuscripts should be ten to thirty pages in length, with some exceptions.

B. Manuscripts should be typed, double-spaced on 8½" x 11" paper.

C. Manuscripts should be submitted with a title page containing title and author and which can be removed for the "blind" review process. No name should appear on any text page, though the article title may be repeated (or a key word used) at the top of each page.

D. Footnotes should appear at the end of the manuscript, followed by references listed alphabetically. If references are given, please use proper style and doublecheck for accuracy of citations.

E. Authors are advised to use non-sexist language. Pluralize or use he/she.

F. Contractions should not be used unless in a quotation.

G. First person articles are acceptable, especially if the content of the article draws heavily upon the experiences of the author. This is a matter of personal choice for each author, but the style should be consistent throughout the article regardless of form used.

H. Authors are asked to use interior headings to aid the reader in keeping up with a lengthy article. Refer to sample sub-titles in this issue to see how various texts have been broken up at intervals.

I. Illustrations (photographs, artwork) will only be used in rare instances in which the illustrations are integral to the content of the article.

J. Figures and charts should be submitted only when absolutely necessary to the text of the manuscript. Because of the difficulty we have in typesetting figures and charts, authors are requested to submit such items in camera-ready form. Figures and charts will generally be placed at the end of an article.

Please feel free to submit outlines or first drafts to receive initial response from us. If your work is not accepted on the first try, we are open to resubmissions.

Further questions may be directed either to our administrative offices in Boulder or to Susan Ellis, Editor-in-Chief at 215-438-8342.

ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

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