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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.

AVA also has a special membership category that enables organizations with mutually-compatible goals to AVA to become Affiliate Members. Affiliates range from local associations of directors of volunteers, to statewide volunteerism groups, to national organizations. Affiliates, each with its own membership base, broaden the networking possibilities open to all AVA members.

AVA is an association run by its members. Active national committees include: Public Information; Professional Development; Resource Development; and Public Policy. Members also plan the annual "National Conference on Volunteerism," a major event held each year in a different city in the United States or Canada. This Conference provides participants the opportunity to share common concerns and to focus on national issues of importance to volunteerism.

AVA is divided into twelve geographic regions, each of which develops a variety of programs to serve its members. These can include annual regional conferences, periodic local workshops, newsletters, and informal "cluster group" meetings.

Two major services that AVA performs, both for its members and for the field at large, are Certification and Educational Endorsement. Through the Certification process, which recognizes leaders of volunteer programs who demonstrate professional performance standards, AVA furthers respect for and appreciation of the profession of volunteer administration. Similarly, AVA Educational Endorsement is given to those workshops, courses, conferences and training events that provide opportunities for professional growth in volunteerism.

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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Higher Education for Volunteer Management: Final Report of the Research Findings

Merry Kay Shernock

PREFACE

In February of 1986, the Professional Development Committee of AVA undertook the latest of its important incremental steps toward improving the professionalism of the field of volunteer administration. Following the earlier development of AVA's Performance-Based Certification Program, which identifies the competencies of a fully capable practitioner, we determined to address the process by which excellence is attained.

Recognizing that there is no simple path to success as a volunteer manager, we nonetheless acknowledge the validity of academic education and university-sponsored training as options in helping meet the needs of career professionals in our increasingly sophisticated work and service world. Not only for the veteran seeking to refine skills or broaden horizons, but for novices looking to their future, such opportunities are well worth encouraging. Far from trying to limit formal learning in favor of "hands-on on-the-job training," AVA wants to advance maximum personal development for maximum benefit to the people and programs that volunteer managers seek to enable.

Critical to these goals is the identification of colleges and universities already committed to serving career professionals. Our AVA Educational Endorsement files provided a starting place to find these institutions, but were inadequate to the task of providing a valid survey base. So were our dollar resources, but thanks to a generous grant from a visionary foundation, the willingness of Norwich University to assign a researcher to the task, and the efficient volunteer efforts of an AVA task force, we now have a sound and valid data base upon which to build for the future. We commend the following report by Merry Kay Shernock to your serious attention.

Joanne H. Patton, Chair
Task Force on Higher Education
for Volunteer Managers

INTRODUCTION

The management of volunteers and programs of volunteer services is diverse work. Volunteer managers are drawn from all socio-economic and demographic groups in the United States, Canada and abroad and they serve all arenas of social life. Volunteer management is also a dynamic profession undergoing changes that, in some ways, parallel changes in other service professions. Paramount to these changes is that volunteer management is seeking to identify itself as a profession.

Several characteristics of "professions" have been brought to volunteer and volunteer program management in recent years by the Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA). First, AVA has enhanced the profession's cultural identity by moving to independent national conferencing and structuring a national network of regional, state and local affiliates. Second, it has developed a code of ethics. Third, it has developed a credential, "Certified in Volunteer Administration" (CVA),[1] which identifies the competencies of the profession and presents the standards of performance for practitioners in the field. The CVA is earned through a rigorous process of self-assessment of individual professional development; college-level instruction is not a *sine qua non*.[2] This type of self-directed credentialing process is functional in a profession of such great diversity.

Nevertheless, AVA has not ignored the potential role for institutions of higher education in the professional develop-

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ment of volunteer managers. AVA is aware that formalized instruction in institutions of higher education complements on-the-job experiential learning to prepare the individual for a career in most professions. AVA is also aware that formal education offerings for professional development in volunteer management are emerging at colleges and universities throughout the United States and Canada. At present, AVA has little formal communication with the academic community generally, and little involvement in these education efforts in particular.

In the belief that better communication and closer coordination between AVA and the academic community would be constructive, AVA created a Task Force on Higher Education for Volunteer Managers in February, 1986. With funds from foundation benefactors who prefer to remain anonymous, AVA commissioned a survey by Norwich University Studies and Analysis Institute.[3] The purpose of the survey was to identify and examine active programs of instruction or training for managers of volunteers and volunteer programs sponsored by colleges and universities in the United States and Canada. The methodology, findings, conclusions and implications of the research are presented below.

METHODOLOGY

A list of 182 institutions believed to have some type of educational offerings for volunteer management was compiled from materials and lists kept on file by Task Force members and from a search through the most recent editions of college and university catalogs. The list included community colleges, liberal arts colleges and universities throughout the United States and Canada.

A survey instrument was then developed from prototypes submitted by the Task Force and by the AVA President. The instrument, which is appended below, covers four categories of information: 1) institutional identification; 2) program structure; 3) students' characteristics; and 4) program content. In early May 1987, the instrument was mailed to the offices of the presidents of the 182 institutions of higher education on the list, together with a cover letter drafted by the AVA president and with a postage-paid preaddressed return envelope. The survey instrument was mailed again in July to nonresponding institutions, together with a cover letter and with another postage-paid, preaddressed envelope. Shortly after the second mailing, volunteers from AVA followed-up by telephone, a two-step process which ultimately yielded 118 responses for a total response rate of 64.8%.

Of the 118 institutions responding to the survey, exactly half (59) report offering some type of educational programming for volunteer management. About 20% (11) of the remaining respondents report no offerings at present but indicated interest by requesting additional information on volunteer administration from AVA. The data obtained on the 59 institutions reporting programs are summarized in detail below.

The author reminds the reader, however, that these programs are self-identified. The degree to which any individual program meets the requirements of the profession varies considerably and will be discussed.

SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS BY CATEGORY

Institutional Identification

Institutional identification is the first category of information obtained and by itself is a very important product of the project. With the completion of the survey, a single list of institutions providing educational services to volunteer administration has been established. It includes the names and telephone numbers of the individuals best informed about each institution's offerings. Though this first list is surely not comprehensive, its existence should draw additional institutions forward to identify themselves for inclusion in future compilations.

Of special interest in this section is the information about the type of institutions and the auspices within the institutions offering educational programming for volunteer management. Slightly more than half the institutions responding (30) report educational offerings under the auspices of either the institution's department of continuing education or the de-

partment responsible for extending university services to the community.

Conclusion 1:
Educational programs serving the educational needs of managers are most likely to be found outside traditional disciplines. There are several possible reasons, but the author notes that "service" is of greater importance in such divisions as continuing education and community services than in other divisions of four-year colleges and universities. Furthermore, the mission statements of many community college name "service" as a primary objective. Therefore, the values, definitions and assumptions of volunteer management are more likely to be familiar to members of these newer academic divisions.

TABLE I
Identification Information on Institutions Reporting Educational Offerings for Volunteer Management (N = 59).

Institution Type	Number	Percent†
Community Colleges	23*	39
4-year degree granting institutions	36	61
Total	59	100 %
Institution Funding Status		
Public	33	55.9
Independent	11	18.6
No Answer	15	25.4
Total	59	99.9%
Institutional Auspices Housing the Program		
Dept. of services to the community	16	27.1
Dept. of Continuing Ed.	14	23.7
Dept. of traditional academic discipline	7	11.9
"American Humanics, Inc."[4] co-curricular program	7	11.9
Center for Study of Volunteerism	4	6.8
Other (Adult Education, Open Campus, Alternative Education, etc.)	7	11.9
Locus of programs sponsored by other institution/agency	4	6.8
Total	59	100.1%

†Totals may not equal 100 due to rounding.
*The total number of community colleges identified in the survey was 40; 58% of them responded to the survey; nearly 40% of all institutions reporting offerings are community colleges.

Structure of the Educational Programming
The second category of information requested on the survey instrument focuses on the structure of the educational programming offered for volunteer management (items #1-9 and #14).

The scheduling of instruction and the location of instruction vary. Fewer than 10% of the institutions offering educational programming restrict instruction to the traditional daytime school hours. Most offer instruction in the evening as well and many offer weekend scheduling. And although nearly one-third of the institutions offering relevant educational programming for volunteer managers do so only on the main campus, well over half utilize off-campus sites as well. Over 60% of the institutions reporting instruction for volunteer managers permit part-time enrollment.

Conclusion 2
Although not a conclusion of this study, one might observe that variety to this extent is often associated with community colleges and/or "alternative education" and is not always appreciated or respected by traditionally organized departments and divisions in four-year colleges and universities.

Such variety is required, however, to serve the diverse student population within the ranks of volunteer managers. Varied formats accommodate a variety of instructional content. Variation in scheduling, enrollment and multiple sites in addition to financial aid, improve access to educational services generally.

Finally, the survey data reveal a willingness on the part of institutions of higher learning to use part time and community-based faculty in addition to regular full time faculty. This could indicate an institutional recognition of two major characteristics of volunteer management: 1) the relative youth of the profession, and 2) the continued importance of experiential learning for the preparation of professional volunteer managers.

Conclusion 3
While the educational structure is excellent for accessibility, further examina-

TABLE II
Structural Characteristics of Educational Programming for Volunteer Management (N-59).

Instructional Format	Number	Percent
Conferences	32	54.2
Workshops	50	84.7
Only Conferences/ Workshops Offered	18	30.5
Courses	35	59.3
Only Courses	7	11.9
Conferences, Workshops and Courses	33	55.9
Schedule of Instruction		
Evening	40	67.8
Weekend	27	45.8
Daytime	36	61
Only Daytime	5	8.5
Other	4	6.8
No answer	7	11.9
Location of Instruction		
Main Campus	50	84.7
Only on Main Campus	19	32.2
Adjunct Campus	12	20.3
Off-Campus Sites	34	57.6
Independent Study	11	18.6
Electronic Media	2	<1%
Enrollment Options Available		
Full-time	30	50.8
Part-time	37	62.7
Workshop Enrollment Only	8	13.6
No answer	17	28.8
Financial Aid Available	37	62.7
Printed Information Available	47	79.7
Matriculation Level		
Non-Matriculation Program	25	42.4
Certification Awarded	21	35.6
Only Certification Awarded (Cetification *not* related to CVA)	3	5
Two-Year Degree Awarded	4	6.8

Matriculation Level	Number	Percent
Four-Year Degree Awarded	10	16.9
Graduate Degree Awarded	8	13.6
Types of Credit Available for Instruction		
Non-Credit Instruction	42	71.2
Continuing Education Units	16	27.1
Only Non-Credit Instruction or CEU's Available	21	35.6
Undergraduate Credit	33	55.9
Graduate Credit	16	27.1
Credit for Prior Learning	8	13.6
Credit by Exam	7	11.9
Program Size		
Courses (not necessarily designed exclusively for volunteer managers)		
2 or fewer		5
3 to 5		13
6 or more		18
No answer		23
Faculty Involved in Instruction		
Fulltime	39	66.1
Parttime	25	42.4
Adjunct	25	42.4
State University Extension	5	8.5
Community-Based	34	57.6
No answer	3	<1

Variability characterizes the structure of the educational programming currently offered to volunteer managers. This variability allows programs to conform to the needs of individual students. Examination of the instructional format reveals a predominance of workshops, but over half of the responding institutions reporting relevant programming use conferences and courses in addition to workshops.

tion reveals much room for improving the scope of educational programming for volunteer managers. First, over 40% of the institutions reporting relevant instruction have not developed their offerings sufficiently to permit matriculation for a certificate, diploma or degree. Furthermore, the certificate programs available in over one-third of the institutions reporting relevant educational programming are not linked in any formal way with the CVA.

This situation poses potential for confusion for the student. Current or prospective volunteer managers may assume un-

wittingly that course work they have taken or are contemplating will relate directly or (worse!) automatically to their CVA self-assessment process. Agencies seeking qualified professionals to administer volunteer services may assume that certificates are of equal value or are interchangeable.

Second, a preponderance of the educational programming offered by college and universities is in the form of non-credit instruction. Although academic credit *per se* is of no relevance to the CVA, the institution's own internal evaluation of instruction for academic credit might be considered one type of quality control. Also, few institutions at present utilize self-assessment procedures (credit for prior learning, portfolio development or assessment of prior learning) through which professional volunteer managers could obtain academic credit for having earned the CVA.

Third, institutions reporting educational programming relevant to volunteer management often do not distinguish between offerings developed exclusively for volunteer management and other offerings having some content the respondents identify as relevant.

In summary, improving the scope of college and university education programming relevant to volunteer managers might best be accomplished by improving the relationship between AVA and the academic community. A strong relationship between the two would advance the profession by fostering even better accessibility, coordinating certification and other professional credentialing, and creating standards for professional development programs within academe as well as outside it.

Student's Characteristics

Student's characteristics (items#10-12) is the third category of information requested on the survey instrument. The data are summarized in Table III.

Conclusion 4

The profile of the typical student according to these data is not unexpected: a woman in her 30s or early 40s, older than the traditional college student, who might already be engaged in the administration of volunteers.

TABLE III
Characteristics of Current Students Reported by Colleges and Universities Offering Educational Programming for Volunteer Managers (N-59).

	Number	Percent
Most Students Volunteer Managers	24	40.7
Most Students Prospective Volunteer Managers	9	15.3
Neither	26	44.0
Most Students Male	1	1.7
Most Students Female	40	67.8
No Answer or Evenly Divided	18	30.5
Age of Most Students:		
18-25 Years	7	11.9
26-35 Years	23	39
36-50 Years	16	27.1
50+ Years	0	0
No Answer	13	22.0

Educational Content

The fourth category of information sought on the survey instrument concerns the types of educational content offered by existing programs of instruction relevant to volunteer managers. Table IV below summarizes the responses.

Conclusion 5

Examination of these figures both confirms positive expectations and reveals some serious weaknesses. Communications skills are most frequently included in educational programming for volunteer managers, suggesting that the academic community recognizes the importance of communication to the success of professionals. Similarly, the behavior of individuals in organizations as well as the structures of formal organizations themselves must be understood if either are to be administered effectively. Hence, it is also not surprising that the principles and techniques of administering organizations and of managing personnel are commonly included in educational programming for volunteer management.

TABLE IV
Types of Instructional Content Offered for Volunteer Managers by Colleges And Universities (N-59).

	Number	Percent
Communication Skills	52	88.1
Management/ Administration	45	76.3
Social Organization/ Behavior	39	66.1
Social Psychology/ Human Relations	41	69.5
Personnel Management	39	66.1
Volunteerism	35	59.3
Accounting/Financial Management	35	59.3
Community Organizing	32	54.2
Grantsmanship	26	44.1
Cross-Cultural Studies	15	25.4
OTHER (Fundraising, practicum or internship, training, trainers, etc.)	10	16.9
No Answer	2	3.4

Note: Planning and marketing were included in responses to the survey by 46 of the 59 institutions. Of these, 32 (69.6%) offered planning and 28 (61.5%) offered marketing.

Conclusion 6

The comparative scarcity of content focusing on volunteerism (cited only as frequently as accounting/financial management is cited) is one of the serious weaknesses revealed by the data obtained in the survey. There are at least two possible explanations. One is that there is probably a failure in most institutions of higher education to recognize volunteer management as something separate and distinct either from other types of management, such as public or business administration, or from disciplines dependent on volunteer services, such as social work, nursing or human services.

A second explanation for the comparative scarcity of content focusing on volunteerism may be that there is so little literature available upon which to build an education in volunteerism. Authors of books on volunteerism find it difficult to locate recently developed pertinent theoretical material. George Florol (1985) observes that building an "intellectual center" (corpus of theory) for the study of volunteerism requires reaching back to the writings of de Tocqueville, Booker T. Washington, and Cotton Mather. This situation is almost a vicious cycle; academic study of volunteerism is hampered by a paucity of written theory which, in turn, is less likely to be produced without academic stimulation. For Brian O'Connell (1985) the mission is clear,

> It will not do us much good to exhort, cajole and plead about the need to create interest, establish a field of study, or promote scholarship, if *we* cannot help create that solid body of all literature necessary to all of the above. (Emphasis added.)

Conclusion 7

The absence of cross-cultural studies is another serious weakness revealed by the survey of instructional content in educational offerings for volunteer management. Volunteer managers serve in a very heterogeneous environment in the United States, in Canada and abroad. Without awareness of and sensitivity to the differences among and between the various ethnic and class groups in various countries, programs of service will enjoy only limited success.

Conclusion 8

Finally, a comparison of the instructional content most frequently offered in educational programs for volunteer managers with the competencies required for the CVA shows little correlation between them. Competency areas required for the CVA, but infrequently or never mentioned by the institutions reporting educational programs for volunteer managers include assessing needs, assessing resources, developing a philosophy of volunteerism, group dynamics and processes, cross-cultural studies, conflict management and resolution and the quantitative and qualitative methods of program evaluation. Some of these topics, however, might be included in management or other courses.

Prospective students, then, are burdened with the responsibility of evaluating for themselves the relevance of every educational offering to their professional development. There will be instances, though it is unknown how few or how many, in which prospective students will

not be qualified to make such judgements.

QUESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH AND FOR POLICY ANALYSIS

Question 1: How adequate are these self-identified college and university programs for the professional preparation of volunteer managers?

Conclusions 6, 7 and 8 suggest that there is a great deal of room for improvement. Without professional endorsement procedures, however, the exact answer remains uncertain.

Question 2: Should the burden of evaluating each educational offering remain with the individual volunteer manager seeking professional development?

AVA has an endorsement program, but it is not very active at present. Fifteen institutions responding to the survey were asked if AVA Endorsement had been sought. All answered negatively.

Question 3: Why hasn't the AVA Endorsement Program been more successful?

Structural reasons on the part of AVA such as lack of staffing and money to develop and market the Endorsement Program are assuredly a good part of the explanation. Another reason may be an implicit conflict between AVA professional endorsement of formal education and the self-directed, competency-based self-assessment procedure for earning the CVA. Strengthening professional development through formal education by endorsing such programs appears, at first glance, to render professional development through experiential learning less important. It need not be that way.

Another possible obstacle to more energetic promotion of AVA Endorsement of formal education programs for volunteer managers is the perceived link between formal education and exclusivity. Among volunteer managers thinking about the future development of their profession there is a definite, if not always conscious, awareness that for others professional status was acquired at a cost they themselves are reluctant to pay. Social workers, for example, lost their identification with a heritage of social action when they developed their work into a profession. Nurses, another example, are less involved in the "laying on of hands" as their field professionalizes. Perhaps these volunteer managers can invent a way to professionalize without losing much of what is important to their identity. Optimally, they would like to acquire the professional caché of specialization without losing respect for general practice; to build a concensus on a definition of professionalism without losing the current diversity within the ranks of practitioners.

Some of the findings of the research reviewed above suggest that it is possible to utilize formal education as a means of professionalizing without incurring some of the usual losses. Conclusion 1 indicates that the service-oriented components of academe are both well-adapted and receptive to the kind of nontraditional education program needed to professionalize a field as diverse as volunteer management.

Obviously, the competencies required for the CVA suggest objectives for formal educational programs. Conclusion 2 indicates that variety can characterize the ways these objectives are met. Thus, developing program guidelines need not be an exclusive process so long as the academic components maintain the openness and flexibility indicated by the findings of this research.

No matter what differences exist, however, it is reasonable to assume that the institutions, by responding to this survey, have shown at least an interest in volunteer administration as a profession. That interest is a foundation upon which practitioners, acting in concert, may build.

Advocates of new programs in the academic community for volunteer management should approach the continuing education divisions and the community service divisions of the four-year colleges and comprehensive universities in their localities. Also, they should build relationships with their local community colleges. In some cases, the community colleges will be more receptive to overtures from volunteer management than four-year colleges and universities. While the traditional academic divisions of colleges and universities are inclined to study volunteerism and perhaps add to its theoretical base, the service-oriented

components of academe are able and willing to prepare practitioners for a professional career in volunteer management.

FOOTNOTES

[1]The CVA self-assessment package is available for purchase upon request to the Association for Volunteer Administration, P.O. Box 4584, Boulder, CO 80306.

[2]Volunteer administrators, however, have high levels of education. In the mid-1980s well over half the respondents to an extensive survey conducted by Harold W. Stubblefield and Leroy Miles (1986) had at least a bachelors degree. This figure is much higher than that for the police, another service occupation in the process of professionalization.

[3]The author wants to express her thanks to Ms. Joanne H. Patton, chairman of the AVA Task Force on Higher Education for Volunteer Managers, and to Dr. Ivan Scheier, a member of the Task Force, for their support and instrumental assistance in the research.

[4]American Humanics, Inc. runs co-curricular programs at colleges and universities to prepare administrators of youth services programs throughout the United States.

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APPENDIX A
SURVEY ON HIGHER EDUCATION FOR MANAGERS OF VOLUNTEERS

INSTRUCTIONS: Please **TYPE** or **PRINT** your response to each item as directed. Do **not** use abbreviations as this information will be used in a directory of programs, workshops and courses.

INSTITUTION: _____
NAME OF COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY

_____
ADDRESS (INCL. P.O. NUMBER) CITY STATE ZIP

This institution is: □ independent □ publicly funded □ community college

NAME OF DIVISION/DEPARTMENT _____

Administrator/Director: _____
NAME TITLE

Contact person, if different from above: _____
NAME TITLE

Telephone ( ) ___ - _____

---

1. Check **ALL** that apply to current educational opportunities for volunteer management/administration:

   1a. □ Conferences
   1b. □ Workshops
   1c. □ Courses
   1d. □ Certificate level program
   1e. □ 2 year degree program
   1f. □ 4 year degree program
   1g. □ Graduate degree program
   1h. □ Other
   1i. □ No offerings available. (IF "no," please skip to #15.)

2. Check **ALL** that apply to the current scheduling of instruction: 2a. □ Classes 2b. □ Workshops

   2c. □ Full-time enrollment
   2d. □ Part-time enrollment
   2e. □ Evening
   2f. □ Weekend
   2g. □ Daytime
   2h. □ Other (_____ _____)

3. Check **ALL** that apply to the location of instruction:

   3a. □ Main campus
   3b. □ Adjunct campus
   3c. □ Off-campus sites
   3d. □ Radio, TV, Telephone network
   3e. □ Off-campus independent study

4. Check **ALL** that apply to type(s) of credit awarded:

   4a. □ Non-credit instruction
   4b. □ Undergraduate credit
   4c. □ Graduate credit
   4d. □ CEU's
   4e. □ Credit by exam
   4f. □ Credit for prior learning

5. Is Financial Aid available? 5.a □ Yes 5b. No.

6. Is catalog, brochure, and/or pamphlet available upon request?

   6a. □ No pre-printed materials available.
   6b. □ Yes (if "yes," is there a fee? 6i. □ Yes 6ii. □ No)

7. Check **ALL** that apply to the number of offerings currently available.

   7a. □ 1-2 courses 7b. □ 3-5 courses 7c. □ 6 or more courses 7d. □ Workshops

8. Date of first offering(s): _____
   MONTH YEAR

9. Estimated number of students served to-date: _____

10. Are **MOST** students *currently* volunteer administrators?

10a. □ Yes 10b. □ No
(If "no," are MOST students *prospective* volunteer administrators? 10i. □ Yes
10ii. □ No)

11. Are **MOST** students: 11a. □ Female? 11b. □ Male?

12. The age of **MOST** students is (Check **ONE** only)

12a. □ 18-25 years
12b. □ 26-35 years
12c. □ 36-50 years
12d. □ over 50 years

13. Check **ALL** the types of *course content* currently available:

13a. □ Communications Skills
13b. □ Social Organization/Behavior
13c. □ Personnel Management
13d. □ Social Psychology/Human Relations
13e. □ Volunteerism
13f. □ Community Organizing
13g. □ Management/Administration
13h. □ Accounting/Financial Management
13i. □ Grantsmanship
13j. □ Cross-Cultural Studies
13k. □ Planning
13l. □ Marketing
13m. □ Other _____

14. Check **ALL** that apply to the *faculty* involved in your volunteer management program:

14a. □ Full-time Faculty
14b. □ Part-time Faculty
14c. □ Adjunct Faculty
14d. □ Community-based Faculty
14e. □ State University Extension Faculty
14f. □ Other _____
14f. _____

15. Information on the topics listed below can be sent to you. Check **ALL** that are of interset.

15a. □ AVA Program Endorsement
15b. □ AVA Performance—Based Certification Overview
15c. □ AVA Training Workshop and Conferences

APPENDIX B

AVA TASK FORCE ON HIGHER EDUCATION

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ABSTRACT

Sustained participation in organizations is viewed as a function of member identification and sense of proprietorship growing out of the attainment of intangible rewards such as a personal feeling of affiliation, opportunities to develop one's professional capacities, opportunities to achieve status and others, as opposed to attaining tangible rewards such as newsletters and low-cost insurance.

A participation model based on the concept of organizational proprietorship has been developed and tested in one organization. This model separates out rewards that lead to sustained membership (tangible rewards) and those leading to sustained participation (intangible rewards).

The model has applicability in a number of organizational contexts utilizing volunteers, including local and regional organizations, organizational sub-groups such as Boards of Directors or committees, and staff complements within organizations.

Nine guidelines for enhancing participation in organizations are provided, together with illustrative comments on the implementation of the guidelines.

The concept of identification and proprietorship provides one explanation of the process that occurs when individuals who are affiliated with an organization elect to be actively involved in the life of the organization.

Organizational Proprietorship: A Participation Model

Jack A.N. Ellis, ACSW and JoAnn Ray, Ph.D.

The task of encouraging and enhancing participation on the part of many and diverse actors presents an organizational challenge of considerable proportions for organizations utilizing volunteers. Achieving loyalty, participation, and involvement on the part of staff, volunteers, or other organizational members is essentially a function of each person's sense of ownership or proprietorship of the organization. The idea that individual actors in an organization contribute most effectively to the life of the organization if they have a sense of possessiveness about the organization has long been understood by successful managers in business and the public sector. Indeed, the central theme of the Japanese Theory Z approach to management is one of individual commitment to the organization's goals, and the development of a sense of personal pride in the creation of an end product of excellent quality.

Building this sense of proprietorship among various actors in any given social welfare organization has been a matter of concern for administrators, staff position managers, and researchers for many years.[1] The work of Rothman and associates is of particular interest to practitioners because of its empirically-based models for fostering participation, and for promoting innovation.

This paper presents findings from a study conducted under the auspices of the Washington State Chapter of the National Association of Social Workers to address the issue of fostering participation of chapter membership. The study, which was grounded in Rothman's concepts was expanded to include the proprietorship component and on the basis of that addition to create a theoretical model which was then field tested in one local unit of the Chapter.[2] The authors contend that the findings from this NASW study have relevance enhancing participation of volunteers at large, and might be used by program and administrative personnel in building a base of participatory support for agencies, or agency programs. This article therefore, describes the NASW study, presents the participation model, discusses some of the findings of the study, and offers some possible applications of the model and the findings. Im-

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plementation guidelines are included in order to assist practitioners to apply the findings most effectively.

THE NASW STUDY

The Washington State NASW study came about as a result of state chapter leaders recognizing that the organization's image among professional social workers and the larger community was one of ineffectiveness because of a lack of active participation by volunteer members in the work of the organization. This image seemed to discourage prospective members from joining and current members from taking pride in their organization. Despite the image problem, the organizational response to this dilemma has typically been one of launching a membership drive in order to increase chapter income thereby making it possible to develop programs that would excite and challenge the members. The defect in this process of logical analysis is apparent. Without involvement of current members, recruitment of new members is not likely to be highly successful, and the increased resources from a half-hearted response to a membership drive would not serve to enhance the existing program to any great degree. Thus the organizational participation project was proposed as one possible response to the Chapter's problems.

The first task of the project was one of developing a model that might identify relevant factors in the process of becoming a member and of participating in any organization.

The literature on participation, though not extensive, provides a theoretical base for the Organizational Proprietorship Model that was developed and tested in the NASW study. This model, as portrayed in Figure 1, incorporates membership in the organization as either an employee or a voluntary actor; a sub-process of benefit attainment; and a sub-process of sustained participation growing out of a sense of proprietorship of the organization. Various aspects of the model require elaboration if the full time impact of the model is to be realized.

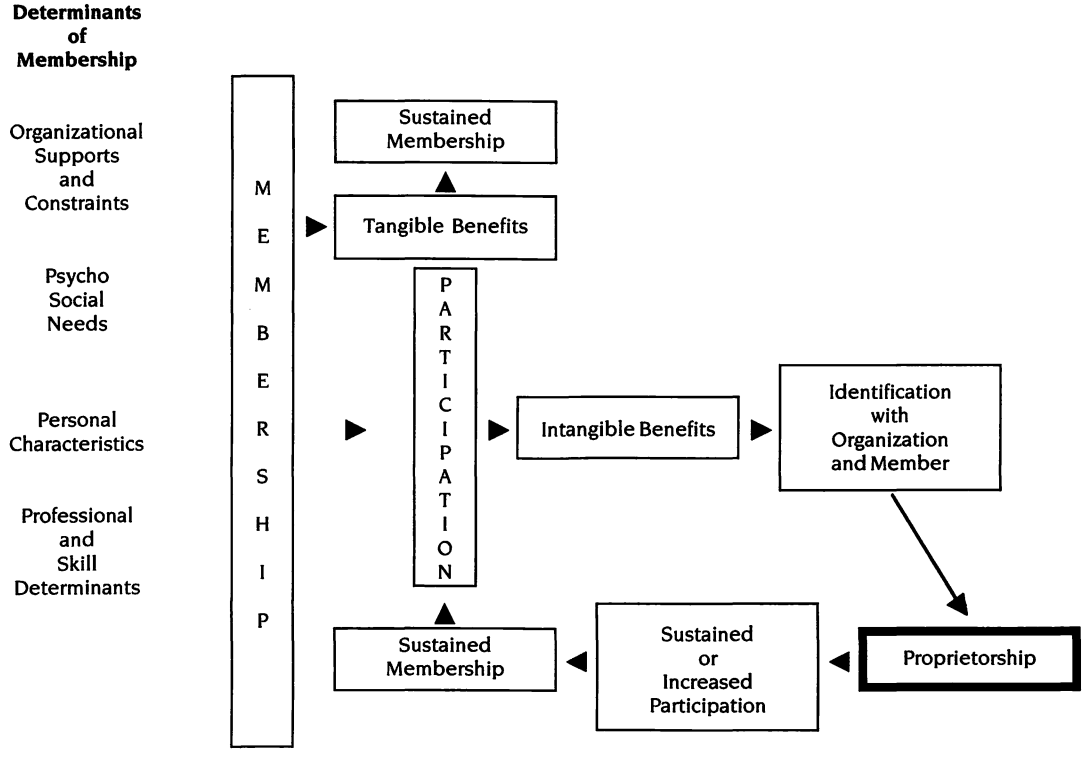

Figure 1
A PARTICIPATION MODEL

MOTIVATORS

Motivators that move people into affiliation with an organization must be considered separately from the benefits that derive after affiliation has occurred. Variables identified in the literature as having a relationship to both membership and participation include:

1) Psycho Social Needs - Wood suggests that the amount of satisfaction derived from participation may well be a function of differing levels of need for such things as power and/or affiliation.[3]

2) Personal Characteristics - Research suggests that participation is highest among people aged 35 to 55. Participation in organizations seems to correlate with higher socio-economic status, white ethnic origin, and being male; married persons seem to have higher participation levels than singles, particularly if both partners are members of the organization.[4]

3) Professional and Skill Determinants - Participation in organizations is enhanced when it is encouraged by employers, when a person's orientation is cosmopolitan, and when a person has a high commitment to one's profession. Previous organizational experience also correlates with high participation levels.[5]

4) Organizational Supports and Constraints - The structure, process, programs, and policies of an organization appear to help determine levels of participation. Higher levels of participation are related to decentralized decision making, open communication between members and leaders, and programs and policies that enhance a member's inclination and ability to participate. Organizational size seems also to be a factor in participation, with smaller organizations being more facilitative of participation than are larger ones.[6]

Affiliation motivators include the individual's need for power, recognition, intimacy, etc., and are probably tempered by individual characteristics and professional determinants. The structure and processes of the organization serve to determine whether or not participation will be enhanced or suppressed. While these motivators influence the choice to affiliate with the organization (membership), they will nevertheless influence the nature of participation once the affiliation option has been made.

In addition to the foregoing variables, a cross-cutting set of variables having to do with real or perceived benefits derived from participation must be taken into account.

The NASW study further differentiated benefits by the nature of the perceived rewards. Rewards may be *Tangible* or *Intangible*. Tangible rewards include such concrete benefits as salary, fringe benefits, development of new skills or knowledge, and participating in social change activities.[7]

Intangible rewards comprise three subgroups of benefits.

1) Anticipatory Rewards - for example, interim benefits that derive from setting up a committee or working on legislative change.

2) Symbolic Rewards - intrinsic benefits such as recognition, personal achievement, prestige, status, public approval and prominence.

3) Interpersonal Rewards - making new friends, enjoying social opportunities, developing interpersonal skills and helping others.[8]

As Figure 1 reveals, benefits accrue as a result of both membership and participation. Tangible rewards or benefits are, as we have noted, available to all members and do little to foster participation. They do, on the other hand, provide continuous motivation to maintain membership or affiliation with the organization.

Participation appears to be influenced mostly by the perceived presence of intangible rewards or benefits, rewards that appear to be available only to those who participate. These are usually of a symbolic or interpersonal nature, providing a source of primary group satisfaction for those who participate actively. Sustained participation over time is dependent

upon the individual actors' perception that these intangible rewards will continue only if participation continues.

IDENTIFICATION AND PROPRIETORSHIP

The concept of organizational proprietorship grows out of the idea that participation and intangible rewards are somehow interrelated. People who hold a proprietory view of an organization think of the organization as "my" organization rather than "that" organization, and they define members as "we" rather than "they." This feeling of proprietorship also gains expression in behaviors on the part of members that suggest that they are somehow responsible for the organization and its activities.

Proprietorship appears to be similar in many ways to Brown's concept of identification. Brown seeks it as a self-defining process that occurs "when an individual accepts influence because he wants to establish or maintain a satisfying self-defining relationship with another person or group."[9] This identification is dependent upon receiving satisfactions affecting one's own self-definition, and these satisfactions must be ego-involving and intrinsically motivating. It is the symbolic (intangible) motivations that are of primary importance to this process of identification, rather than pragmatic (tangible) motivations.

The feeling of proprietorship or ownership of an organization is the chief determinant of continued participation, and occurs after the identification process has taken place. Ownership carries with it a commitment to the purposes, policies, and programs of the organization, a commitment that only occurs when there is active participation over time.

TESTING THE THEORY

In order to test the idea of a co-relative relationship between participation and tangible or intangible benefits associated with membership in an organization, a stratified systematic sample of members of the Washington State Chapter of the National Association of Social Workers was studied. While the purpose of the study was primarily one of analyzing how members perceived their own involvement in the Chapter, and which benefits were preceived to influence their participation in the Chapter, the findings of the study have relevance for leaders in other organizations.

A total of 511 questionnaires was mailed to the same with 381 or 74.6% responding. The profile of the respondents is that of a white female in her 30s, holding a Master of Social Work degree, and employed in the direct delivery of social services.

In the analysis of the data generated through the questionnaire, various parts of the model are examined in relation to the level of participation reported by the respondents. For example, if participation is a function of receipt of intangible rewards, then active members should receive more of these rewards than would inactive members. In order to test this hypothesis, the study used highly correlated multiple measures of participation, the levels of which were obtained through self-assessment questions. These levels were then used in analyzing the relationship of participation to perceived benefits.

Respondents in the NASW study saw themselves as moderately or very active, 6%; slightly active, 18%; and members only (inactive), 76%.

In this study, a list of 14 benefits that derived from membership in the organization was developed. Respondents were asked to indicate which, if any, of the benefits accrued to them through membership. Inactive members reported an average of 4.1 benefits, slightly active members, 5.6, and moderately or very active, 6.4. This direct linear relationship reveals that moderately or very active members received benefits at a higher rate than did the other two groups. Further, an examination of Table I reveals that the intangible benefits of meeting friends, association with other social workers, and leadership opportunities were correlated with participation, while the tangible benefits of receiving the journal or financial gain were unrelated to participation.

Table II shows the respondents' views of identification with the organization as related to their participation level. Active members more frequently referred to the

TABLE I

Comparison of Rewards Received by Participation Level

Intangible Rewards (rewards directly related to participation level)

	Percent Checking Yes		
	Moderately or Very Active	Slightly Active	Member Only
Opportunity to associate with other social workers	87.8%	68.3%	21.6%
Professional development	87.9%	68.3%	44.4%
Working to solve problems	75.8%	48.1%	30.3%
Opportunity to meet friends	45.5%	37.5%	8.0%
Leadership oppoortunities	36.4%	10.6%	5.7%

Tangible Rewards (rewards not directly related to participation levels)

	Percent Checking Yes
	Total Sample
Receiving the journal	63.9%
Agency expectations	11.5%
Financial gain	3.8%

TABLE II

Comparison of Identification with the Organization by Participation Level

	Percent Checking Yes		
	Moderately or Very Active	Slightly Active	Member Only
We	92.3%	48.9%	25.5%
They	7.7%	51.1%	75.5%

organization as "we" while inactive members more often viewed the organization as "they," suggesting a stronger sense of belonging on the part of active members, and a greater identification with the organization's goals, policies, and purposes.

Questions that probed the members' sense of responsibility for the organization and its activities revealed that moderately and very active members ranked these variables much higher than did the slightly active or inactive members. These findings add further weight to the argument that "proprietorship" is central to the choice of active participation. See Table III.

Given these findings about rewards, participation, and the interdependence of both in creating a condition of identification and proprietorship on the part of actors within the organization, it is helpful then to consider the implications of the participation model for other organizations.

TABLE III

Comparison of Feeling of Proprietorship by Participation Level

	Percent of members checking 4 or 5 indicating a moderate to high level of proprietorship feeling		
	Moderately or Very Active	Slightly Active	Member Only
Impact of organization due to you	14.3%	2.9%	.2%
Organization achieves goals due to you	21.9%	3.9%	.7%
Feel responsible for organization's activities	59.4%	5.8%	1.2%

IMPLEMENTATION GUIDELINES

While the work done in the NASW study was specific for that organization only, it did produce a model and some guidelines that might be generalized for other organizations and for other types of "organizational relationship." For instance, it seems reasonable to presume that identification and proprietorship would be desirable traits to foster among organizations relying on volunteers, among employees of social welfare agencies, among voluntary network group members, and among members of Boards of Directors and sub-committees of such policy making groups. To facilitate the adaptation of the model to other situations, several implementation guidelines are proposed.

Guideline 1: The goals of the organization's leaders need to be clear at the outset. Is the primary goal that of increasing membership or is it that of enhancing participation? If it is membership only, then one set of benefits should be stressed; if it is to be participation then a different set of benefits is indicated.

Guideline 2: The nature of benefits that have value to a given constituency must be determined in advance. In an organization that has a stable membership, a survey of active and inactive members can easily be conducted to determine which benefits lead to intensified identification and the ultimate sense of proprietorship espoused in the model. In a newly formed organization, or one that has a transient membership, it may be necessary to conduct time series probes about rewards to be sure that most members' values are taken into account as the organization grows or changes.

Guideline 3: If the goal of the organization's leadership is to increase membership, then tangible rewards should be considered over intangible rewards. The limitation to this is that participation as a result of membership may not occur or may be scattered and unpredictable.

Guideline 4: If the organization leadership's goal is that of enhancing participation, then intangible rewards will be more effective. This is not to say that tangible rewards should be ignored, but rather that the intangible ones need to be deliberately identified and openly made available to members.

Guideline 5: Personal contact is the method of choice in initiating the participation process. This is a logical application of the intangible reward concept. The organizational benefit of social interaction is modeled by this process, and the intangible benefits of professional affiliation or camaraderie are thus made apparent.

Guideline 6: Specificity in describing the nature of tasks to be performed is essential in enlisting individual participation, as is specificity in identifying individuals to be invited to participate. That is, identify the task clearly and personally solicit members to participate in the task.

Guideline 7: The importance of informal socializing before, during, and after meetings or task group activities cannot be stressed too strongly if participation is the goal. The findings of the NASW study and other work referenced in this paper all point to the fact that participation is most enhanced if people have a sense of closeness and personal affiliation with the other members of the organization or group.

Guideline 8: The achievements of members should be recognized both publicly and within the organization. Such recognition provides both tangible and intangible rewards, through the use of such devices as media announcements about members' contributions, award ceremonies, letters of recognition, and in-house commendations at meetings or conferences. All of these serve to accord status within the organization, and to some extent outside the organization as well.

Guideline 9: The structures, process, programs, and policies of an organization each serve to enhance or inhibit participation. Participation is enhanced when decision making is broadly based in the organization, when communication flows easily from top to bottom and vice versa, and when the organization provides interpersonal supports. Further, participation is enhanced when the organization's policies and programs appear to participants to be relevant to the organization's and the members' goals and aspirations.

These guidelines provide a framework for thinking about how to encourage and enhance participation, but they do not provide a clear-cut model that can be applied to every organization or to every organizational situation. Fostering participation through encouraging identification and proprietorship is an individualized process that must take into account the nature of the organization, its goals and purposes, its environment, the nature of the potential and actual affiliates to be enlisted in the participation energy and time to the process. The process requires conscious planning and continous activity on the part of the leaders, and unless the process becomes institutionalized in the organization, it will quickly lose its impact.

SUMMARY

Sustained participation in organization is viewed as a function of member identification and sense of proprietorship growing out of the attainment of intangible rewards such as a personal feeling of affiliation, opportunities to develop one's professional capacities, opportunities to achieve status, etc., as opposed to attaining such tangible rewards as newsletters and low-cost insurance.

A participation model based on the concept of organizational proprietorship has been developed and tested in one organization. This model separates out rewards that lead to sustained membership (tangible rewards) and those leading to sustained participation (intangible rewards).

The model appears to have applicability in a number of organizational contexts including local and regional organizations, organizational sub-groups such as Boards of Directors or committees, and staff complements within organizations.

Nine guidelines for enhancing participation in organizations are provided, together with illustrative comments on the implementation of the guidelines.

The concept of identification and proprietorship provides one explanation of the process that occurs when individuals who are affiliated with an organization elect to be actively involved in the life of the organization. They identify with the organization and with other members, they exhibit a sense of responsibility for the organization, they derive intangible rewards which lead them to developing a feeling of shared ownership (proprietorship) of the organization, thus further participation ensues.

NOTES

[1]See for example, Eugene C. Hagburg, Correlates of Organizational Participation: A Critical Evaluation, *Pacific Sociological Review*, 9 (Spring 1966), pp. 15-21; Robert W. Miller and Frederick A. Zeller, *An Analysis of Participation in Contemporary Society* (Morgantown, WV: Center for Appalachian Studies and Development, 1967); and Jack Rothman, John L. Erlich, and Joseph G. Teresa, *Promoting Innovation and Change in Organizations and Communities*: A *Planning Manual* (New York, NY: Wiley, 1978).

[2]JoAnn Ray and Jack A.N. Ellis, *Fostering Participation in* NASW *State Chapters and Program Units* (Silver Spring, MD: NASW, Program Advancement Fund, 1984).

[3]Michael T. Wood, "Some Determinant and Consequences of Power Distribution in Decision Making Groups," Paper presented at the American Psychological Association Convention, September 1971.

[4]Stephen J. Cutler, Aging and Voluntary Association Participation, *Journal of Gerontology*, 32(4) (1978), pp. 470-479; Joseph Emanual Harry, Primary Behavior in Voluntary Organizations, *Dissertation Abstracts*, 30(2-A) (1969), pp. 843-844; David Knoke and Randall Thompson, Voluntary Association Membership Trends and Family Life Cycle, *Social Forces*, 56 (September 1977), pp. 48-65; William H. Sewell, Social Mobility and Social Participation, *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, 435 (January 1978), pp. 226-247; and Martin M. Perline and V.R. Lorenz, The Formally Participative Organization, *Industrial Relations*, 18(4) (October 1979), pp. 310-321.

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[6]Bernard P. Indick, Organization Size and Member Participation, *Human Relations*, 18(4) (November 1965), pp. 339-350; Robert W. Miller and Frederick A. Zeller, *An Analysis of Participation in Contemporary Society*; Martin M. Perline and V.R. Lorenz, The Formally Participative Organization.

[7]Stephen J. Cutler, Aging and Voluntary Association Participation; Eugene C. Hagburg, Correlates of Organizational Participation: A Critical Evaluation; Martin M. Perline and V.R. Lorenz, The Formally Participative Organization; and Jack Rothman *et al.*, *Promoting Innovation and Change in Organizations and Communities*.

[8]Michael E. Brown, Identification and Some Conditions of Organizational Involvement, *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 14(3) (1969), pp. 346-353; Stephen J. Cutler, Aging and Voluntary Association Participation; Eugene C. Hagburg, Correlates of Organizational Participation: A Critical Evaluation; Michael Hanks and Bruce E. Eckland, Adult Voluntary Association and Adolescent Socialization; Jack Ross, Work and Formal Voluntary Organizations: A Neglected Research Area; Jack Rothman *et al.*, *Promoting Innovation and Change in Organizations and Communities*; and Michael T. Wood, Some Determinant and Consequences of Power Distribution in Decision Making Groups.

[9]Michael E. Brown, Identification and Some Conditions of Organizational Involvement, p. 347.

Situational Facilities and Volunteer Work

Paul Colomy, Huey-tsyh Chen and Gregg L. Andrews

INTRODUCTION

Many investigations of volunteer motivation focus primarily on the intrinsic and extrinsic rewards individuals secure through volunteering. Historically, intrinsic rewards, including the altruistic desire to help others, the need to feel useful, and the willingness to contribute to the community's welfare, have received the most attention. More recently, however, several economists and other behavioral scientists have argued that more material, utility maximizing, extrinsic rewards—*e.g.*, acquiring skills, creating personal networks that can subsequently be used to advance one's employment prospects, or "shadow wages" in the form of tax savings—constitute an important impetus for volunteering. (For useful reviews of the pertinent literature see Schram (1985), Van Til (1985) and Smith (1981)).

The scholarly examination of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards makes an important contribution to our understanding of what individuals expect or anticipate from their participation as volunteers. The findings of that research are particularly important to volunteer administrators interested in recruiting new volunteers, retaining existing volunteers, and increasing the level of satisfaction that accrues to individuals through volunteering. Knowledge about intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, then, provides a basis for creating or altering programs in order to increase volunteer recruitment, retention, and satisfaction.

At the same time, however, our collective experience as volunteers and as administrators of volunteer programs prompted us to ponder whether important factors that affect volunteers' morale and their continued participation were being inadvertently omitted from consideration by the heavy emphasis on intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. In our experience, volunteers' informal discussions and watercooler chitchat evince as much concern for the way volunteer agencies are administered and organized as for intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

A careful perusal of several studies indicated that our experientially based intuition about the significance of the structure of volunteer organizations and their constituent roles has received some scholarly attention, though often that attention has been sporadic and parenthetical. For example, Deegan and Nutt (1975) discovered that the lack of clearly defined responsibilities is a source of dissatisfaction for hospital volunteers. Similarly, Gidron's (1983) pioneering research on volunteer satisfaction found that "job context" factors such as adequate supervision, assistance from professional staff, and convenience in terms of hours and location represented important determinants of how satisfied individuals were with their volunteer work. In a more general way, Johnson (1973:45) has advised that the volunteer agency and the particular job fulfilled by an individual volunteer should be viewed as important determinants of motivation.

On the bases of our own experience and previous research we designed an exploratory study to determine the degree of perceived importance volunteers attach to the organizational and often mundane, pragmatic conditions that affect volunteer work. Borrowing from the work of an eminent sociologist, we have adopted the umbrella term *situational facilities* to refer to these organizational and pragmatic conditions (Smelser, 1962). Defined formally, situational facilities designate "the means and obstacles which facilitate or hinder the attainment of concrete goals in the role or organizational context" (*ibid.*:28).

Our research was guided by two orienting questions. First, we wanted to assess

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how important or significant volunteers regard situational facilities relative to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards. Second, we wanted to determine whether the perceived significance of specific dimensions of the situational facility concept varies by the role a volunteer occupies in a volunteer agency or by the type of program in which s/he participates.

Sample and Method

The two issues described above were assessed by means of data collected through a mail survey. A questionnaire was sent to five hundred persons who had been randomly selected from all the names listed as volunteers between 1980 and 1984 in the Voluntary Action Center of a medium-sized midwestern community. Three different types of volunteers received questionnaires: fifty administrative volunteers, 200 Volunteer Case Aides, and 250 Retired Senior Volunteers. A brief discussion of each type of volunteer follows.

Administrative volunteers are generally involved in agency policy and decision making through participation on committees, task forces, review committees, and/or Boards of Trustees/Directors. The administrative volunteers in this sample served as members of the Voluntary Action Center governing body, the VAC Council, between 1980 and 1984.

The Volunteer Case Aide Program and the Retired Senior Volunteer Program operate as initial points of contact for individuals seeking a volunteer experience. Following an orientation and general training program, the vast majority of these volunteers are referred to any one of the numerous health and human service agencies to provide direct service to clients or auxiliary support services to paid, professional staff members.

The Volunteer Case Aide Program recruits, screens, and trains volunteers under the age of 60 for community service. An eight week training session is conducted twice per year to provide prospective Case Aides with an introduction to volunteer service and appropriate training. Following completion of that training, the volunteer is placed with the agency that best complements her/his needs.

The Retired Senior Volunteer Program provides placement and referral to persons aged 60 and over in community volunteer service. A basic orientation and some general training are provided, though most of the necessary instruction is supplied by the organization in which the volunteer is placed. This program is the only volunteer program that provides direct reimbursement for out-of-pocket expenses—*i.e.*, food and transportation costs.

In an effort to secure a high response rate, a two-wave procedure was utilized. Mailed in November 1985, the initial packet included a letter from the research team explaining the project and requesting the volunteer's assistance, a personal letter of support for the project from the director of the program with which the volunteer was affiliated, the questionnaire itself, and a self-addressed, stamped return envelope. Three weeks later the second wave was sent to all individuals in the sample.

The survey included an item designed to elicit volunteers' perceptions of the relative importance of twenty different dimensions of volunteer work. That item asked respondents to rate how important each of the twenty features of volunteer work are in any volunteer job they might have. There were four response categories for each dimension: 1 - not at all important; 2 - not too important; 3 - fairly important; 4 - very important. The twenty dimensions of volunteer work, in turn, were designed to measure the three aspects of volunteer work we described earlier, *viz*, situational facilities, intrinsic rewards, and extrinsic rewards. The dimensions denoting situational facilities included: clearly defined responsibilities, competence of immediate supervisor, appropriate guidance provided by supervisor, reasonable work schedule, suitable workload, pleasant physical conditions, and convenient travel to and from work. The dimensions denoting intrinsic rewards included: helping others, interesting work, doing the things I do best, seeing the results of my work, developing special skills or abilities, freedom to decide how to get the work done, and challenging problems to solve. The dimensions denoting extrin-

sic rewards included: opportunity to move to paid employment, reimbursement for out-of-pocket expenses,

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Two hundred and sixty two completed questionnaires were returned, producing a response rate of 52%. The response rate of each sub-group in the sample was roughly similar: 50% for administrators, 51% for case aides, and 54% for retired seniors.

FINDINGS

The findings, reported in terms of mean scores for each of the three general dimensions of volunteering, indicate that intrinsic rewards (mean score of 3.4) are regarded as most significant, with situational facilities (3.32) a close second, and extrinsic rewards (2.65) following a bit more distantly. Relative to intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, then, these data indicate that situational facilities, in general, are regarded by volunteers as a very important aspect of their volunteer work.

Table I provides a more detailed picture of where the individual items that comprise the situational facility concept stand relative to one another and in comparison to the items comprising the intrinsic and extrinsic reward concepts. As that table indicates, the most highly ranked situational facility items are clearly defined responsibilities, competence of the immediate supervisor, and appropriate supervisor guidance. All three of these items are ranked in the highest quartile of the twenty items to which subjects responded. Though not ranked as highly, reasonable work schedule and a suitable

TABLE I
Rank and Mean Scores of Individual Items for All Volunteers

Rank	Mean*
1. Helping Others	3.83
2. Clearly Defined Responsibilities	3.58
3. Interesting Work	3.53
4. Competence of Immediate Supervisor	3.51
5. Supervisor Guidance	3.47
6. Seeing Results of My Work	3.46
7. Working with a Respected Community Organization	3.43
8. Reasonable Work Schedule	3.41
9. Doing the Things I Do Best	3.39
10. Suitable Workload	3.22
11. Freedom to Decide How to Get Work Done	3.21
12. Chance to Make Friends	3.20
13. Pleasant Physical Surroundings	3.17
14. Opportunity to Develop Special Skills/Abilities	3.09
15. Challenging Problems to Solve	3.05
16. Convenient Travel to and from Volunteer Work	2.94
17. Opportunity to Work with Professional Staff	2.88
18. Volunteer Recognition	2.49
19. Adequate Reimbursement of Out-of-Pocket Expenses	2.07
20. Chance to Move to Paid Employment	1.50
Overall Group Mean	3.12

*Volunteers were asked: "We would like to know how important to you each of these things are in any volunteer job you might have." Respondents then circled a number corresponding to one of the following responses: 1. Not at all important; 2. Not too important; 3. Fairly important; 4. Very important.

workload are also regarded as important. In the lower half of the ranking we find that less concern is attributed to pleasant physical surroundings and convenient travel to and from work, respectively. These more detailed data, then, reaffirm our earlier conclusion, that individuals regard situational facilities as an important feature of their volunteer activities.

Our second orienting question is whether there are any appreciable differences between the three types of volunteers—administrative volunteers, case aides, and retired seniors—in terms of the situational facility items they regard as being most significant. Table II presents the rank and mean scores of individual situational facility items by type of volunteer. These data reveal both commonalities and differences across groups. With regard to the similarities that obtain across all three groups of volunteers, clearly defined responsibilities are ranked high by each type of volunteer, while convenient travel and pleasant physical surroundings tend to be ranked toward the bottom.

TABLE II
Rank and Mean Scores of Situational Facility Items by Type of Volunteer

(A) Administrative Volunteers

Rank	Mean
4. Suitable Workload	3.52
5. Clearly Defined Responsibilities	3.52
6. Reasonable Work Schedule	3.43
11. Competence of Immediate Supervisor	3.37
12. Appropriate Supervisor Guidance	3.32
16. Convenient Travel	2.79
17. Pleasant Physical Surroundings	2.77

(B) Case Aides

Rank	Mean
2. Clearly Defined Responsibilities	3.69
4. Competence of Immediate Supervisor	3.57
7. Appropriate Supervisor Guidance	3.49
9. Reasonable Work Schedule	3.46
11. Suitable Work Load	3.32
16. Pleasant Physical Surroundings	3.12
17. Convenient Travel	3.04

(C) Seniors

Rank	Mean
2. Clearly Defined Responsibilities	3.51
3. Competence of Immediate Supervisor	3.50
4. Appropriate Supervisor Guidance	3.49
8. Reasonable Work Schedule	3.36
10. Pleasant Physical Surroundings	3.29
13. Suitable Work Load	3.09
14. Convenient Travel	2.89

The data also reveal two major differences between volunteer groups. For administrative volunteers, issues having to do with a suitable workload and work scheduling seem to be particularly important. On the other hand, authority related issues—competence of one's immediate supervisor and appropriate supervisor guidance—are slightly less important. For case aides and seniors, the order of these dimensions is reversed. Both of these groups impute slightly greater importance to authority relations and accord somewhat less significance to workload and scheduling issues.

In sum, the data indicate that all the volunteers examined in this study attribute considerable importance to clearly defined responsibilities while imputing less significance to convenient travel and physical surroundings. Important differences do obtain, however, between administrative volunteers, on the one hand, and case aides and seniors, on the other, with the former group according workload and scheduling issues slightly greater significance and the latter group giving authority related issues slightly higher ranking.

DISCUSSION

Perhaps the single most important finding reported in this study is the relatively high importance volunteers accord situational facilities. The high ranking and high mean score of situational facilities are evident both for the sample as a whole and for each of the three sub-groups of volunteers. In addition to the intrinsic and extrinsic incentives associated with volunteer work, then, it appears that individuals strongly desire conditions and organizational settings that facilitate effective and efficient volunteer work.

This conclusion has both practical and theoretical implications. In a pragmatic vein, the findings reported here underscore the importance of situational facilities for constructing an appealing volunteer program. Previous literature emphasizes incentives—*e.g.*, the desire to act altruistically or an interest in securing paid employment—over which direc-

tors of volunteer programs cannot always exercise substantial control. By contrast, it may be more feasible for directors to alter the organizational and role conditions affecting job performance in a way that makes volunteer programs more appealing to current and prospective participants.

Theoretically, the relatively high importance volunteers attach to situational facilities may be pertinent to the distinction often made between reasons for initially joining a volunteer program and reasons for continued participation. It seems reasonable to hypothesize that situational facilities may not be an especially salient consideration when individuals contemplate volunteering for the first time. However, once such participation is initiated, situational facilities may figure more prominently in the subsequent decision about whether to continue volunteering. Indeed, the high ranking accorded situational facilities become more salient as volunteer experience increases is an issue worthy of further investigation.

The findings also indicate some variation in the relative importance that the three groups of volunteers impute to different dimensions of the situational facility concept. For example, administrative volunteers are more concerned with securing a suitable workload and a reasonable work schedule. The high ranking administrators accord these items appears to suggest that "discretionary time" is more likely to be regarded as a scarce commodity by this type of volunteer and, therefore, the allocation of that time constitutes a more critical issue. By contrast, administrative volunteers give less emphasis to authority relationships. Occupying authoritative positions in the volunteer organization, administrative volunteers apparently do not regard authority relationships as especially salient or problematic.

On the other hand, both case aides and retired seniors assign a relatively higher rank to authority relations. In a context where they have relatively little authority and where those in charge may be uncertain about both how to supervise those who are not being remunerated for their services and the exact types of services they would like volunteers to perform, the very nature of authority relationships becomes problematic.

In accord with some previous work (*e.g.*, Oldham, 1979; Pearce, 1982) our data suggest, then, that authority relationships are a particularly sensitive issue in volunteer work. Thoroughly aware that they are providing a "gift" of their time and resources for which they are not being remunerated, volunteers apparently expect to be treated in a manner significantly different from the typical employee. Accordingly, authoritative commands seemingly not informed by an awareness that volunteers are donating their services and are not employees may be regarded as illegitimate. At the same time, volunteers desire clearly defined responsibilities and in many cases recognize that in order to perform their work effectively, appropriate supervisor guidance is essential. However, the way in which that guidance is provided and the way in which it reflects an awareness of volunteers' distinctive non-employee status, remains problematic.

CONCLUSION

This paper indicates that in comparison to the more frequently studied intrinsic and extrinsic rewards, situational facilities are perceived as a very important dimension of volunteer work by administrative volunteers, case aides, and retired seniors. We recommend that this feature of volunteer work be given greater attention in the future and, more specifically, that the relation between situational facilities and the decision about whether to continue volunteering be subject to further empirical study. Finally, this report underscores the critical nature of authority relations in volunteer work, especially for those whose work is subject to supervision. More intensive examination of this issue may well prove worthwhile.

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Change is Perfection

Karla A. Henderson, Ph.D

An Old Chinese proverb states "May you be cursed to live in interesting times." By this saying, people who work with volunteers are cursed. These are interesting times and changes are occuring in numerous aspects of society, including volunteering. A way to think about change positively is to note the quote by Bach in *Illusions* where he states: "Change is perfection; the sea and sky are changing every second, but they are always a perfect sea and sky."

The purpose of this paper is to describe three trends which exemplify the changes occuring in volunteering. While some drawbacks to these changes may exist, it is the author's contention that each of these trends is leading volunteer coordinators closer to perfection in understanding volunteer motivations and how volunteers can be most effectively utilized. These three trends include the following:

1. New definitions of volunteering are emerging.
2. Concepts of marketing are being applied to volunteering.
3. More potential volunteers exist today than ever before.

This is a time of changing values, a time of moving from conformity to pluralism, from quantity to quality, rootedness to mobility, from long-term to short-term (Schindler-Rainman, 1982). Threats exist to volunteerism. On many fronts, human service agencies are being called upon to do more with less. Hard economic times place a burden on everyone, volunteers and agencies alike. Human service providers wonder where money will come from and if, in fact, money can solve the problems that confront society. The private sector is called upon to play a bigger role. It appears that there are fewer traditional volunteers; volunteer motivations seem to have changed.

Volunteers are neither the scourges nor the saviors of agencies. Volunteers can be the best allies and most effective workers and they can be terrible headaches and dreadful disappointments—they are often a mixture of these qualities. Scheier (1978) has proposed that volunteering integrates the best and most powerful values in our society—pride in the dignity of work, the opportunity to participate in what affects us, the freedom of choice and expression of it, the actualizing of an ethic of care, and the underlying belief in the worth and power of individuals with the notion that one person can make a difference. The underlying assumption of this paper is that the changes occuring in volunteering will enable volunteer coordinators and volunteers to move to greater perfection.

NEW DEFINITIONS OF VOLUNTEERING ARE EMERGING

Two common quotes about volunteering suggest that "when people volunteer, they call on themselves to see if anyone is home" and "volunteerism involves doing what you can with everyone welcome to try". These notions are as true today as they were ten years ago, but our perceptions of what it means to be a volunteer are expanding. Volunteers continue to believe that individual action can make a difference as they give of their resources, time, and energy.

Changes in the traditional volunteer definition include a new understanding of volunteering as more than the "Lady Bountiful" phenomenon. Volunteers are now seen in a variety of roles including direct helpers as well as decision makers, connectors or linkers, social action cause agents and monitors and supervisors of other volunteers. Volunteers are oriented toward service, issues (citizen advocacy), community/self-interest, occupational/self-interest, and philanthropic/fund raising.

Volunteers are seen in both formal and informal settings. Some have specific job descriptions while others might be classified as "lend-a-hand" volunteers. Organizations are moving toward both short-term (single event) as well as long-term

(commitment over a period of time) position descriptions. The days of volunteering in the same position year after year have been replaced by expecting opportunities for short-term volunteering. Volunteers participating in "self-help" groups are also a growing phenomena where people are taking responsibility for their own work and involvement on behalf of themselves and others.

Scheier (1980) has proposed 10 major participation styles of volunteers. These styles offer important insights to the changing nature of volunteers; the dichotomies suggest ways that volunteers may function within each participation style. For example, traditionally volunteers may have served *continously* as *individuals* in direct service. Today a volunteer may be a part of a *group* that volunteers *occasionally* from outside the system. Many possibilities exist as illustrated by the dimensions which Scheier identifies:

continuous	occasional
as individuals	as a group
direct	indirect
participation action	observation
organized, formal	informal, unstructured
via work	via gift-giving
for others	self-interest
accept system rules	address system rules
from inside the system	from outside the system
lose-money	break-even

One of the major changes exhibited by volunteers includes a more self-oriented versus service-oriented motivation for volunteering. The notion of "enlightened self-interest" offers a broadened approach to understanding volunteer motivation. Some people are looking for the self-actualizing possibilities as opposed to the "repayment of debt". This translates into self-actualizing outcomes being sought such as learning, excitement, and growth; volunteers do not have totally overflowing altruistic motives but are seeking self-growth, work experience, self-esteem, enjoyment, relationships and affiliations with others, and contributions to their goals (Briggs, 1982). Most volunteer activity is a result of multiple causations, with altruism as a very minor factor (Gidron, 1983).

Broadened definitions of what volunteers do and emerging motivations for involvement are changes that are evident in today's volunteer world. These changes will provide more opportunities for people to become involved in volunteering if they are "marketed" in an appropriate way.

CONCEPTS OF MARKETING ARE BEING APPLIED TO VOLUNTEERING

Local volunteers and volunteer groups are in a buyer's market (Ray, 1982). It is becoming more important to determine what volunteer organizations are trying to "sell" and what people are willing to buy.

The concept of "marketing" may have negative connotations to some people. In this case, the term is used in a generic way to include the process of planning, making contacts, and getting people to help. Using the marketing approach to get volunteers is superior to digging up volunteers anywhere or waiting for them to call.

The success of volunteer recruitment depends on 1) having something worthwhile for volunteers to do, 2) identifying sources of volunteers, and 3) getting the message across by asking (Ellis, 1985). The term marketing refers to what is offered volunteers in exchange for their gifts of energy, resources, and time (Vineyard, 1984). Drucker stated,

> The aim of marketing is to make selling superfluous . . . to know and understand the customer so well that the product or service fits the person and sells itself. Ideally marketing should result in a customer who is ready to buy.

The "marketing mix" refers to four aspects: product, pricing, distribution (place), and promotion. The product is what volunteer positions are available—the jobs or tasks. The pricing refers to the value of the service provided. Distribution or place addresses where the volunteer opportunity is offered. Promotion relates to the advertising or the actual communication of the product, price, and place. When applying the marketing mix it is necesary to know something about the potential "buyers," the volunteers—

how many will be needed; where they live; what they do; their attitudes, values, and feelings; the way they govern themselves; the importance placed on volunteering; the social and human problems the potential volunteers face; and the societal, organizational and technological forces impacting on them (Allen, McCurley, & Mosel, 1981).

The volunteer coordinator must be user-oriented with an understanding of the exchange relationship that will mutually benefit the volunteer as well as the organization. The coordinator must also be aware of the barriers which will impede the volunteer such as lack of transportation, child care, parking, training materials, physical disabilities and the like.

Emphasizing the marketing mix offers a way to access and increase volunteer resources. Most of the mix is common sense, but it provides a basis for further legitimizing the value of volunteering and the need for careful management. This leads to the recruitment of potential volunteers.

MORE POTENTIAL VOLUNTEERS EXIST TODAY THAN EVER BEFORE

Some volunteer coordinators think that not enough volunteers exist. Enough volunteers may not exist but there certainly are enough potential volunteers. Recruiting volunteers is a form of public relations and reflects the philosphy and character of the agency. No easy answers exist to seeking new volunteers. There are no easy alternatives to maintaining an active, ongoing, recruitment plan.

Despite all the techniques suggested for recruiting volunteers, the best way to get them is to ASK. No amount of new technology is going to make recruiting any easier. However, it is easy to get into habits of asking the same people time after time to be involved with volunteer activities. Volunteering becomes habit-forming to some people, but volunteer coordinators, as the askers, can become habit bound. The diversity of people who are potential volunteers must be continually addressed.

The apparent decline in the number of volunteers is often blamed on women, the traditional volunteers. As women have become employed outside the home, they have been less available. Rather than to decry this aspect, this change can open a new area of potential volunteers. Because there are fewer traditional volunteers and more agencies competing for the volunteers, volunteer coordinators may need to look at restructuring tasks to accomodate a variety of potential volunteers. Tasks may need to be made more relevant and job descriptions may need to be rewritten.

A number of groups might be considered in looking for the new volunteers.

- The elderly—twenty years ago we heard nothing about the elderly volunteering and today older persons commonly volunteer. Retirees may be anxious to help. Talking to people going through pre-retirement counseling/training might be a useful first step in recruiting good older volunteers.
- Former clients or participants—many studies show that the majority of 4-H volunteers are former members (Henderson, 1979).
- Non-joiners—How do we know someone is not just waiting to be asked to become involved? These are the volunteers who need to be specifically ASKED.
- Men—women may have traditionally had the "corner" on volunteering, but that is no longer true.
- Minorities—since many volunteer coordinators are of the majority race of an area, it is easy to focus on the majority race as a source of volunteers. Intercultural volunteering may offer many possibilities within an organization but it will require a targeted effort.
- Persons lacking formal education—organizations may rely on traditional ways of recruiting which appeal to those who are educated. For many volunteer tasks where a high level of education is probably not necessary, a non-traditional recruitment approach which is geared to the less educated may be effective.
- Low-income persons
- Unemployed—volunteering can be a way to gain new skills, not to mention fill time.
- The young—youth (individuals, students and in groups) have a lot to give

but they need to learn how they can contribute to society.

- The handicapped
- Institutionalized
- People on alternative work schedules such as those on shift work, evening schedules, split shifts—a volunteer coordinator may need to actually go to those work places to do the recruiting (Ellis, 1985).
- Working people—every study and poll of the last 20 years shows that volunteers are likely to be working for pay as well as volunteering (Ellis, 1985). Those who are working should not be discounted as potential volunteers. Many people who are dissatisfied with their employment would love to find a volunteer activity to give them additional satisfaction and meaning. On-the-job recruiting may be another technique that has not been completely tapped.
- Mothers—perhaps child care could be provided while a mother volunteers her time or perhaps the mother and child could volunteer together. A volunteer family might be an important new "group."
- Transitional persons—those who are recovering from illnesses or rehabilitation programs may have a lot to offer a volunteer program.
- Those in community service or alternative sentencing programs
- Religious service groups
- Self-help groups—groups can be a tremendous asset for volunteering and tend to be a phenomenon of the present. Getting a club or organization to take responsibility for specific volunteer duties may be very beneficial.
- Corporate volunteers—a major new trend is to encourage corporations to provide volunteers and to be responsible for various volunteer activities. These corporations are frequently interested in making many contributions to the community and employee volunteering is a way that is not necessarily a direct expense.

Attracting the new volunteers will not be easy. There is no "quick fix" and recruitment can not be isolated from the rest of volunteer management (Vineyard, 1984). The use of recruitment teams, appropriate training, and the marketing mix will all help identify potential volunteers.

CONCLUSIONS

Other examples of changes and challenges which will lead volunteerism into perfection could be cited. None of these changes will result in perfection overnight. However, it appears to this author that redefinitions of volunteering, marketing approaches, and potential volunteers will provide some expanding possibilities within the field of volunteerism.

If those of us who work with and through volunteers remain open to new ideas about the phenomenon of volunteering, use marketing and planning techniques, and see all people as possible volunteers, we may find that the changes will lead us to better programs and ultimately to perfection. "Change is perfection; the sea and sky are changing every second, but they are always a perfect sea and sky."

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Letters

Editor:

Having read a few articles in the very informative and interesting *Journal of Volunteer Administration*, I feel that it is time to write about volunteerism as experienced by a 69 almost 70 years old somewhat retired minister.

I am likening my experiences to a ride on the roller coaster, presenting ups and downs, thrills and chills, breath-taking experiences and then reflecting a bit on the past ride or rides and anticipating new rides.

Not everyone is called to the volunteer experience, not everyone will ride a roller coaster, either. Some will even speak of their desire to volunteer, but never take the ride! I have no animosity to those who do not jump aboard; they march to another drummer's beat. They, too, are satisfied and happy at what they are doing and just never get around to discovering an experience, an aspect, a venture that includes people of all walks of life and all levels of income. They somehow or other hear a call that is undeniably irresistible, a call which when answered fulfills an already busy and complete life with experiences that at least for this writer are likened unto a roller coaster ride.

My start on this ride began in Milwaukee, Wisconsin wherein two experiences of volunteerism have remained with me as real thrills and influential in coaxing me to ride some more. These two experiences, as others which will be related, are high points on the ride and they are prior to my first life changing volunteer act—that was joining the Army Air Force in October of 1940.

The two experiences referred to above were gathering magazines to bring to the Rescue Mission. I volunteered to head a youth drive for magazines at age 14; and the other was also with a youth group that volunteered to landscape the new church property (at age 15) as two churches in Milwaukee merged to move to a new location and begin a new church. To be part of these two volunteer programs; to set goals and reach them; to be appreciated and included in the planning was an indelible experience I shall never forget.

Once in the Army Air Force as a volunteer, I do not recall volunteering for anything else while in the service but once, which found me overseas and sharing New Guinea with a formidable enemy early in 1942.

The once was in an Eastern Arkansas town where some of us on maneuvers about four months before Pearl Harbor volunteered to attend a dance. On the way to the dance, I met a girl, a very special one who three years later became my wife. This volunteering for that dance becomes the highest point of the roller coaster ride. Other high points would follow: *i.e.*, volunteering for work in the State Office of Volunteerism in 1982; placing volunteer recruiting booths in all but three or four of the counties in Arkansas; in 1986 being selected as one of the outstanding volunteers of the state; and also as 1987 began, to be asked by the State Office of Volunteerism to travel with my wife as volunteers to encourage groups in all the counties of the state to form councils with representatives from all organizations that use volunteers. Meeting dedicated and committed people certainly is one of the high points of the ride, breath-taking and exciting.

But the roller coaster has its downs as well as the high points: volunteering for a program for five years and not one note of appreciation as it ended; coming in one day and finding another in your chair in another program that you had been occupying for five months and no explanation as the Volunteer Coordinator stared at me but said not a word and the one in the chair I had occupied acting unconcerned. On another occasion in another volunteer situation, an administrator asked the secretary to write a very short letter terminating the volunteer endeavor it took four months

to organize as I interviewed 40 people to enlist seven. Without a word of thanks.

So the ride has been up and down like a roller coaster; but five years before I retired, I volunteered to enter a Doctorate program and 15 days before I retired I received my degree. . . . This last year with [my wife] at my side in our duo-volunteer adventure has been thrilling and exciting and the ride has been worth the price paid: the investment of time and talent, experience and commitment to the calling of volunteerism. Not for everyone, but thanks be unto God, for me and also for my wife. What a ride.

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Volunteerism Citation Index

Katherine H. Noyes, Citation Editor

The Volunteerism Citation Index (VCI) is published twice a year by THE JOURNAL as a service to our readers. It is intended to be a tool for learning what is being written about volunteerism by those in other professions, and as an on-going guide to current trends affecting volunteerism. VCI also assists those who are conducting research, and adds another dimension to the definition and formalization of our field.

VCI includes citations from both popular and scholarly sources generally available in libraries. Articles are selected because they relate directly to volunteerism and volunteers, *as defined by the subject matter*, not the source. Pamphlets, newsletters, dissertations, unpublished papers and most newspaper articles are excluded because they are too "fleeting" in availablity and often difficult to track down in their entirety.

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