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AVA 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 committees include: Public Information; Professional Development; Resource Development; and Public Policy. Members also plan the annual "International Conference on Volunteer Administration," 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 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.

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The Volunteer Advisory Council In a Healthcare Setting

Peggy Crosson

INTRODUCTION

In the summer of 1987, the Director of Volunteers and Patient Services at Roanoke Memorial Hospitals, Roanoke, Virginia, was asked by hospital administration to prepare a long range plan for the volunteer services component of the department. The request and subsequent plan were part of an ongoing institutional-wide evaluation which resulted from an organizational restructuring begun in June of that year.

The goal of the operational plan was "to restructure the organization of the Volunteer Services Program so that overall program operations can be managed more effectively and efficiently to meet the current and future supplementary staff needs of the hospitals." To achieve that goal, the first objective listed was "to institute an Adult Volunteer Advisory Council."

The Advisory Council became a reality in January 1988, after having been successfully piloted as an Adult Volunteer Task Force during the preceding three months. After two-and-a-half years of existence, including its tenure as a "task force," the Advisory Council has significantly contributed to the viability of the hospitals' volunteer services program. The following will address the reasons and process for, and outcome of the Advisory Council's implementation.

THE SETTING

Roanoke Memorial Hospitals is a 677 bed acute care facility and tertiary care center for Southwest Virginia. The Volunteer Program and the Patient Representative Program comprise the responsibilities of the Department of Volunteers and Patient Services. The Director has department head status and reports to a hospitals' adminis-

trator. She, along with designated department staff, assumes total responsibility for all program operations. The volunteer services component of the department is comprised of two categories of volunteers: 1) Inservice volunteers who are recruited, oriented, and trained by hospital volunteer program staff and 2) support group volunteers from community based volunteer programs, i.e., Mended Hearts, Cancer Society, Foster Grandparents Program. The inservice volunteer program provides services in both the clinical and nonclinical areas of the hospitals. Fund raising activities by these volunteers are minimal.

In July 1986, the hospitals experienced an organizational restructuring during which time the name of the existing holding company, Roanoke Hospital Association, was changed to Carilion Health System. This change more adequately reflects the mission of the system as a regional provider of healthcare services. While Carilion oversees the operation of other diversified health related subsidiaries, Roanoke Memorial "Hospitals," is the flagship hospital of the system and includes: Roanoke Memorial Hospital, the 527 bed acute care facility; Roanoke Memorial Rehabilitation Center (150 beds); and the Cancer Center of Southwest Virginia, an outpatient radiation therapy treatment center. Volunteer services are predominantly concentrated in these three facilities.

Concurrent with the restructuring of the healthcare system were changes in the hospitals' leadership team. With new leadership came new management philosophies. Like other hospitals which have undergone the process of reorganization, Roanoke Memorial quickly faced many internal challenges.

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Some had a significant impact on the volunteer services program.

First, there was a switch in marketing focus from "hospitals" to "system." As such, the previously experienced high public visibility of the hospitals and its volunteer program tended to be somewhat obscured within the system. Recruitment of new volunteers, therefore, became a more difficult task. The program could no longer just rely on the excellent reputation of the hospitals and volunteer program for attracting new adult volunteer workers. Second, rising costs in general required the hospitals be cost effective and highly efficient in the use of resources, especially personnel. Fiscal restraints greatly reduced the possibility of obtaining any additional volunteer management staff for the next two years. The program would continue to be managed by the equivalent of two (2) full-time employees.* Yet, it was almost a guarantee that increasing personnel needs in the hospital setting would place additional pressure on the volunteer program to produce more volunteers.

The external systems changes and the hospitals' internal new challenges were not the only pressures on the volunteer program. Prior to the restructuring, the volunteer program staff had been concerned about a downward trend in the previous year's retention rate of volunteers as well as the increasing number of volunteers who chose to go on inactive status. At the time of the reorganization, the adult volunteer program consisted of one-hundred and twenty-seven (127) active inservice volunteers who, for fiscal year 1986-87, contributed 20,000 hours of service in fifteen (15) different clinical areas and hospital departments. However, the volunteer retention rate for the same fiscal year had demonstrated a remarkable decline.** The number of volunteer resignations was considerably greater than the number of new adult volunteers recruited. A net gain of only two (2) volunteers was realized for the entire year. In addition, there was another concern regarding volunteer commitment

and dependability. Monthly report statistics exhibited a wider and wider margin between the total number of volunteers enrolled and the total number of volunteers active at the end of the month. In other words, the rate of volunteer absenteeism per month was increasing.

In summary, the negative trends in the program's recruitment and retention statistics, along with the reorganization of the hospital and its current and anticipated impact on program operations, set the stage for evaluating and changing management philosophy within the volunteer program itself. The Director of Volunteers and Patient Services was prompted to seek a mechanism which would assist and enhance both the effectiveness and efficiency of program operations. The primary purpose of such a tool was to promote and facilitate communication to, from, and concerning volunteers in what rapidly had become a large complex organization. Costs to the hospitals needed to be minimal. The target date of implementation was October 1, 1987, the beginning of the hospitals' new fiscal year.

SOLICITING STAFF SUPPORT

The need to provide a channel of communication for volunteers was a novel idea for the volunteer program at Roanoke Memorial Hospitals. It differed considerably from the former, more traditional methods: volunteers provided little to no input into program operations. As stated previously, this function was left to volunteer program staff. Therefore, in spite of the fact that volunteer-employee relationships were very positive throughout the hospitals, some staff were reluctant to encourage volunteer involvement in operational matters. They were concerned that the type and amount of input could be inappropriate and cause unnecessary problems for volunteer management staff as well as for managers where volunteers were assigned.

To help alleviate this concern and potential risk, the Director of Volunteers and Patient Services set up meetings with

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*Some Volunteer Program Management Staff are responsible for the Patient Representative Program including the provision of both supervisory and direct patient services functions.
**Retention rate = ratio of # volunteers recruited/# volunteers resigned.

department managers/supervisors in those departments and clinical areas where volunteers provided services. The purpose was to introduce the concept of an Adult Volunteer "Advisory" Council, a structure successfully used in many government sponsored and other community-based volunteer programs. Having been a former director of the Retired Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP) in Florida, the Director of Volunteers and Patient Services had experienced a positive working relationship with committee members who served in an advisory capacity only. It was believed that a similar type of forum could be successful in a hospital.

After meetings with the Director, department supervisors and managers received the concept favorably. First, the Director outlined the problems the programs had experienced, especially those relating to volunteer retention rates. Since several departments had lost volunteers during the year, their staff could personally identify with the problem. Second, the committee's role was discussed with emphasis placed on "advisory" versus "policy-making" functions. Along this line, staff were assured that the volunteer committee members would not become involved with or "meddle" in the very positive work relationships between volunteers and staff. Rather, should problems arise, intervention and resolution would remain the function of volunteer program staff. Finally, it was explained that the Advisory Council would be initiated on a three month trial basis.

TASK FORCE IMPLEMENTED

The committee was called a "Task Force" during the trial period. This proved to be very beneficial as it provided an opportunity for volunteer management staff to assess the "workability" of the advisory council concept before committing to the idea and implementing it on a permanent basis. It was also decided to experiment with the adult sector of the program before including or expanding to the youth volunteer component.

The Adult Volunteer Task Force was comprised of six adult volunteers who were appointed by the Director of Volunteers and Patient Services after discussion with volunteer management staff. Five members represented the large acute care facility, and one represented the Rehabilitation Center/Cancer Center complex. Criteria used in the selection process included: length of volunteer service, dependability, demonstrated commitment to the department and hospitals, relationships with other volunteers and staff, personal integrity, and professionalism.

The Task Force members ranged in age from 55 to 80; two were men; five were retired and one was employed as a real estate agent. Previous occupations among the retirees included businessman, human resources specialist, teacher, homemaker, and executive secretary. In addition to these diverse backgrounds, the members represented a variety of volunteer placement areas within the hospitals. They included the admitting office, medical education department, volunteer office, and surgery department at Roanoke Memorial Hospitals, and the Information Desk and Admitting Office at the Rehabilitation Center.

FIRST MEETING

The first Task Force meeting, held on October 9, 1987, was attended by the six volunteer representatives, the Director and Coordinator of Volunteers and Patient Services, and the Departmental Secretary. The Director began the meeting by discussing her concerns regarding the current volunteer program. Task Force members were asked to review a comparative statistical report of program operations for fiscal years 1985-86 and 1986-87. Special attention was given to the retention rate of volunteers and to the increase in volunteers placed on inactive status. A more recent concern about the lack of dependability among active status volunteers was also discussed. In essence, the Task Force members heard that the overall operation of the current volunteer program needed improvement, which the statistical reports confirmed.

The purpose of the Task Force as outlined by the Director was to:

1. Test the feasibility of an Adult Volunteer Advisory Council over a three month period.

2. Assist the Director and volunteer management staff with a comprehensive program assessment.

In addition, the Task Force would work

together in a collaborative effort. Members would have equal rank and there would be no officers. Since the Task Force was to operate in an advisory capacity and policy-making was not a function, a formal structure comprised of officers, defined job descriptions, etc. was not necessary. The Director would function as the Chair, and a volunteer Task Force member would record minutes of meetings. It was believed that an informal committee structure of this type would facilitate an effort of optimal team-work. Communication would be unrestrained and opportunities to express honest opinions would be encouraged.

The Director stressed that members would be required to give volunteer time over and above their regularly scheduled volunteer activities at the hospital. In addition to scheduled monthly meetings, extra impromptu meetings might also be called. Attendance at all meetings was crucial. Volunteer hours from Task Force activities could be added to each member's cumulative record of hours earned.

The proposed two year operational plan for the volunteer program was then distributed. Included within the package was the first draft of the recommended guidelines for the Adult Volunteer Advisory Council which had been drafted by the Director. Task Force members were asked to review all materials before the next meeting. In summary, the Task Force had defined the most pressing issues during its first meeting: maintaining the existing volunteer force, thereby reducing the risk of losing additional volunteers to inactive status or resignations; and, enhancing the motivation of volunteers to be committed to performing their prescheduled tasks in a dependable fashion. Furthermore, it recommended concrete strategies for addressing those issues it had defined: a "Statement of Philosophy on Volunteer Dependability" would be drafted; also the formation of "attendance policies" which would set standards of volunteer attendance expectations was recommended. The attendance policies would specifically include the definition of "inactive" status as well as reasons for justified and non-justified causes of an absence.

TASK FORCE ACCOMPLISHMENTS

The Adult Volunteer Task Force met four more times between October, 1987 and January, 1988. During this period of time, all Task Force recommendations for addressing operational problems were achieved (see Appendices A and B). The harmonious "partnerships" which had developed between the volunteer management staff and Task Force members were responsible for such accomplishments. Work responsibilities became a shared experience. For example, one Task Force member assumed responsibility for drafting the Statement of Dependability while volunteer management staff formulated the first draft of attendance policies. All drafts were reviewed and revisions recommended at Task Force meetings. Final drafts were prepared by volunteer program staff and submitted to hospital administration for approval.

Another contribution of the Task Force during the trial period was the revision of all volunteer job descriptions and procedures. This was a major undertaking, but necessary, because it had been three years since the program's policy and procedures manual had been updated. As stated earlier, the Task Force members represented a wide variety of volunteer placements in the hospitals. Most of these involved assignments in departments or areas where volunteers were essential for enhancing the "smoothness" of daily operations. Because individuals who volunteered in these departments were required to be flexible and able to perform many different tasks, these job descriptions and accompanying procedures could be complex and subject to changes during the year. Thus, making any revisions could be a time-consuming endeavor.

Through the involvement of Task Force members, however, the revisions were expedited. Task Force members individually coordinated meetings with the volunteer program director, the managers or supervisors in volunteer placement areas, and other individuals assigned to the same department but who volunteered on different days. The results of the meetings were very positive. Not only were new job descriptions and procedures developed in a timely fashion, the meetings increased communications between volunteers and other department staff, as well as between volunteers and volunteers. One major finding was that in each department there were

several volunteers who did not fully understand their total job description; others felt unsure of the procedure for carrying out a particular job task. The meetings, therefore, served as a refresher training course for many volunteers and their respective staff members as well. Most importantly, through active participation in a quasi-volunteer management role, Task Force members gleaned and assimilated information from a different viewpoint. The experience enabled them to provide advice from a broader perspective of program operations.

ADVISORY COUNCIL IMPLEMENTATION

The many achievements of the Task Force during the three month period facilitated the implementation of the Adult Volunteer Advisory Council. Prior to its first meeting on January 6, 1988, volunteer program staff had concurred that existing Task Force members should be invited to continue their participation in volunteer program operations as Advisory Council members. Having been involved in the development of the council's Guidelines for Operation, each member was already aware of his/her role and responsibilities. All Task Force members consented to becoming members of the Advisory Council. The commitment required active participation for another two years.

During the first Advisory Council meeting, the "Guidelines for Operation" were revised for the last time. One change recommended was to increase the representation in the Rehabilitation Center/Cancer Center complex from one to two members. The Council believed that the addition of one member would more fairly represent the interests of the volunteers in those areas. Two other important items of business were also discussed: 1) a review of program operation statistics for the last quarter; and, 2) plans for the first group meeting of all adult volunteers.

The next Advisory Council gathering was an unscheduled meeting called at the last minute by the program director. It was held the day before the all-inclusive volunteer meeting, and the purpose was to review and refine the agenda for the next day. Both volunteer program staff and Advisory Council members realized that planning a successful meeting was of utmost impor-

tance to successfully communicating the variety of changes in operations of the volunteer program; also, the meeting served as a recruitment tactic—hospital volunteers were encouraged to bring friends who were prospective volunteers.

The Advisory Council recommended the following agenda for the occasion: 1) an administrative welcome by the Vice President over the department; 2) a historical overview of the volunteer program including an account of past, present, and future operations by the Director; 3) an explanation of the Advisory Council concept, its purpose and functions, and an introduction of Advisory Council members; 4) reports by other volunteers about activities in those departments/areas where volunteers provide services; and, 5) reports of Advisory Council activities by council members.

Relative to the last agenda item, Advisory Council members felt there was a need to distribute and review the new statement of Philosophy on Volunteer Dependability as well as the policies on volunteer absenteeism. At the conclusion of the meeting, council members recommended that a written survey on volunteer program operations be given to each volunteer for his/her input. The survey's results would be published in the Spring edition of the volunteer program's newsletter.

The assistance of the Advisory Council with planning and formulating written surveys as part of the volunteer program's evaluation process has been very helpful to program staff. Information gathered from the first survey enabled other surveys to be developed which targeted areas of concern about specific program components such as recognition, job satisfaction, and training. The results of these surveys not only revealed general attitudes about the components in question, but also provided new group recommendations. For example, the survey about recognition led to a suggestion involving a change in format of the annual volunteer recognition ceremony; another proposed that the Hospitals' Board of Directors' Christmas gift to employees during the Christmas season (a frozen turkey) be extended to volunteers who met certain criteria; specifically, volunteers would be eligible to receive the Board's gift if they had contributed a cumulative total of

1,000 hours and earned a minimum of two hundred and fifty (250) hours each year thereafter.

CONCLUSION

During the first year and a half of existence, the Adult Volunteer Advisory Council has made many contributions to the reorganization process of the volunteer program at Roanoke Memorial Hospitals. In addition to its role of formulating recommendations for improvements in operation, the Advisory Council members have also provided valuable advice to the Program Director and volunteer management staff when confronting new, sensitive issues. Such issues have included changing the name of the volunteer program newsletter and initiating a no-smoking policy in the volunteer program's headquarters, including the volunteers' lounge area. These and many other operational matters have been successfully addressed and resolved without jeopardizing volunteer morale or decreasing the size of the Adult Volunteer ranks. In fact, statistics of operation for fiscal year 1987-88 showed a 100% increase in number of new volunteers recruited, from 40 in 1986-87 to 80 in 1987-88. More importantly, some improvement in the Adult Volunteer retention rate for fiscal year 1987-88 was noted with a net gain of twelve (12) additional volunteers. Relative to the rate of volunteer absenteeism per week, a system requiring manual tabulation of each volunteer's presence made record keeping very difficult. The dependability factor, while appearing to have improved, could not be factually substantiated.

Given its existence of just two and a half years, it may be too premature to deem the Advisory Council concept successful. New representatives were recently selected as four original members rotated off the Council. While it is difficult to predict how well the new group will work together, the structure of the Council appears to have fostered a communication system in which potential conflict among members has been diminished. First, all volunteer Advisory Council members share equal authority; the only member who has been given a specific function is the recording secretary. This role is nonthreatening to the other members. The end result is a group in which

collaborative efforts are promoted and Council recommendations to the Director reflect collective advice in a concrete form. Second, only volunteer members have a vote on recommendations. This procedure allows only the volunteers' perspective to be represented. Third, the size of the Council, while small, has been effective. A group bonding and commitment to the single purpose of improving the volunteer program has occurred.

The achievements of the Advisory Council suggest the fulfillment of its purpose and responsibilities as set forth in the Council's Guidelines. The Council has served as a communications mechanism through which adult volunteers can give input and receive feedback concerning program operations. Whether it is through organized gatherings or informal meetings and phone conversations with Advisory Council members, volunteers feel more involved in and part of the program and hospitals. The result of this may be reflected in the upward trend in number of volunteers recruited and the retention rate the past fiscal year. Furthermore, the Council has served as a cathartic ear to volunteer management staff who confront the daily challenges of motivating and managing nonpaid people to the maximum and mutual benefit of both the organization and the volunteers. The Council has therefore functioned as a support system for other volunteers and volunteer program staff as well. Finally, the advent of the Advisory Council reintroduced a purpose, sense of direction, and enthusiasm for the volunteer program from all personnel including administration, hospital employees, and volunteers. Any previous skepticism about shared control from hospital personnel has been dissipated.

Hospitals, institutions, or other organizations which utilize volunteers and are seeking to revamp existing communications channels or construct new ones may wish to consider the Advisory Council concept. The following fundamental guidelines for successful implementation are suggested:

1. Obtain administrative and staff support of the concept.
2. Clearly define the purpose of the Council to all volunteers.
3. Ensure that Council members adequately represent quantity and quality

of the volunteer force.
4. Test concept during a trial period.
5. Provide a mechanism for monitoring and evaluating the Council's impact on program operations.
6. Provide a means of communicating the Council's activities to the volunteer force on an ongoing basis.

In summary, the implementation of the Adult Volunteer Advisory Council at Roanoke Memorial Hospitals has been an avenue through which reorganizing and improving the volunteer program has been achieved. Operational components like recruitment, staff education, and recognition are fundamental to the viability of any volunteer program; however, in a rapidly changing healthcare environment, they can no longer be maintained by volunteer program staff alone. Operational effectiveness and efficiency can be maximized when volunteer program staff ensure that operations are a shared experience between staff and volunteers. The Adult Volunteer Advisory Council at Roanoke Memorial Hospitals appears to have become a successful mechanism for that shared experience. In addition to the improvement noted in the recruitment and retention rates, a need to provide an avenue for monitoring the volunteer dependability factor was also defined. As a result, a volunteer services software program has been purchased to assist with managing volunteer absenteeism information in addition to recruitment and retention data.

Future plans include developing a separate Council for the Youth Volunteer Program* and expanding the current Adult Council membership to incorporate representation of volunteers from community-based volunteer programs and other Carilion Healthcare System subsidiaries.

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*The Youth Volunteer Program is operated predominantly during the summer months.

APPENDIX A

ROANOKE MEMORIAL HOSPITALS
ADULT VOLUNTEER SERVICES PROGRAM

Advisory Council
Guidelines for Operation

I. *Purpose*
    The Advisory Council shall function to advise and assist the Director of Volunteer Services and Volunteer Services Program staff.

II. *Responsibilities*
    The Adult Volunteer Advisory Council shall:
    a. Provide advice and support to the Director of Volunteers and designated departmental staff in the planning, development and execution of operational policies and procedures for volunteers.
    b. Provide advice to the Director regarding components of program operation including effective utilization of volunteers, recruitment strategies, recognition events, and staff/volunteer relationships.
    c. Assist the Director of Volunteers with the planning and implementation of special events; i.e. Winter Volunteer Meeting, Annual Recognition Event.

III. *Structure and Composition*
    a. The Advisory Council will consist of seven (7) members of the Adult Advisory Program with five (5) representatives from the Main Hospital, and two (2) from the Rehabilitation Center/Cancer Center complexes. Staff representation will include the Director of Volunteers, Coordinator, Rehabilitation/Cancer Center, and one (1) designated staff member.
    b. The Director of Volunteers will serve as Chairman of the Advisory Council; minutes of Council meetings will be documented by a Council Member who serves as the Council Secretary.

IV. *Term of Service*
    Volunteer Advisory Council members will serve a two year term beginning October 1 through September 30. A volunteer council member may serve only a one year term upon written request to the Director of Volunteers by August 1st. After the first term of two years, four members will rotate off to be replaced by four new members.

V. *Selection/Orientation of Members*
    a. By July 1, the Director of Volunteers will appoint an *ad hoc* committee from the Advisory Committee to submit recommendations for new Advisory Council volunteer members. Such recommendations must be received by August 1. The Director of Volunteers has the authority to approve or disapprove any recommendations.
    b. New members will be oriented by the Director and returning Advisory Council members to the role and function of the Advisory Council, as well as to the goals and objectives of the next fiscal year's plan of operation.

VI. *Committees*

The Director of Volunteers may establish *ad hoc* committees for special purposes and will be responsible for appointing the chairman of each such committee. The chairman will report for the committee at Advisory Council meetings.

VII. *Voting*

Each Volunteer Advisory Council member will have one vote for issues discussed at a meeting. The Director of Volunteers and department staff will have no vote. Motions are carried by a majority of those present. A quorum of five members is required for action on issues/recommendations made. The Director will have the authority to approve or disapprove, accept, or reject all recommendations made by the Advisory Council.

VIII. *Meetings*

The Volunteer Advisory Council will meet quarterly during the year. Meetings will be held in October, January, April, and July of each year. Additional meetings may be called by the Director of Volunteers.

ATTENDANCE POLICIES
(from Program Policies)

A. Philosophy
  1. Roanoke Memorial Hospitals Volunteers are vital to the successful operation of Roanoke Memorial Hospitals. In addition to providing supplementary staff functions, volunteers offer an added dimension of care to patients and family through their emotional support and empathy.
  2. Even though volunteers are not paid employees, hospital departments and areas are dependent on volunteer support to effectively and efficiently meet the normal routine of their day-to-day operations. As such, volunteers who demonstrate dependability and commitment to their chosen place of volunteer service are greatly appreciated and highly valued by the Hospitals' administration for their quality and quantity of service provided.
  3. Volunteers, like employees, perform their duties with varying amounts and degrees of commitment and enthusiasm. However, standards of dependability for volunteers must be established to ensure a fair and equitable reward mechanism for those who have demonstrated exceptional quality of work and dependability on an on-going basis.
B. Definition of "In-Active Status"
  1. A Roanoke Memorial Hospital volunteer will be placed on "inactive" status for the following reasons:
    a. Does not volunteer for a period of 3 consecutive times without *justified cause during the year.
    b. Does not attend the required hospital/department orientation for new volunteers within a 3 month period from the date of acceptance and participation in the program.
    c. Does not call Volunteer Services department staff and/or staff in the department where the volunteer is placed in advance of/or on the day of absence from their day of scheduled volunteer activity.
  2. A volunteer who is placed on "in-active" status anytime during the year for a non-justified cause will automatically lose the following volunteer benefits:
    a. Opportunity to continue volunteering on the volunteer's preferred day of assignment and in the volunteer's preferred department; i.e., day and department, when returning to active status.
    b. Loss of 20% discount of medicines purchased at the Roanoke Memorial Hospitals' pharmacies.
    c. Opportunity to attend the annual Volunteer Recognition Reception and Awards ceremony.
  3. A volunteer who is placed on "in-active" status for a justified cause* cannot always be guaranteed that his/her preferred day and department of volunteer service will be available when returning to "active" status.
  4. Any exception to the above #1-3, will be at the discretion of the Department Director.

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*Justified causes of volunteer absence are: personal illness, hazardous weather conditions, travel, family illness of immediate family member (child, parent, spouse) or serious, critical illness of family member requiring your support and presence.

The Nurse as a Volunteer in the Human Tissue Donation Referral Process

Elliott Alvarado

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this article is to explain how volunteer administration applies to the successful orchestration of the nurse professional in the referral process for cadaver donors of human tissue.

The continued success of tissue transplantation is dependent upon the availability and presentation of a human tissue donation option at the time of death. The health care professionals presenting this option to the family of the deceased are nurses. Managing, developing, and coordinating the activity of nurses in the human tissue referral process is crucial to the success of tissue transplantation.

BACKGROUND

Many people commonly recognize the potential lifesaving value and life-enhancing gift of human organ (heart, liver, lung, eyes, etc.) transplantation. A relatively recent advance in transplantation medicine is the use of other human tissues. These other tissues include bone, skin, ligaments, and heart valves from cadaver donors and can be used in applications such as replacing cancerous bone rather than amputating a limb.

The human tissue donation process is virtually the same as for human organ or eye donors. At the time of death, a professional nurse describes to the deceased's family a series of options. These options include the choice of donating any viable organs or tissues for transplantation. If the family agrees to exercise this option, then the nurse contacts the appropriate organ or tissue procurement agency to inform them of a possible donor. This call made by the nurse is a "referral."

This referral informs the local area "tissue bank" that a prospective donor is available. The tissue bank is usually a nonprofit biomedical organization, sometimes associated with a medical university, that specializes in the collection, storage, processing and distribution of human tissues for transplantation.[1] The tissue bank will review the medical condition and history of the deceased and determine if the donor is medically suitable. If the donor is suitable, then the tissue bank will make arrangements to remove the deceased's tissues at the earliest possible convenience. The successful removal of human tissues is known as a "recovery."

The need for human tissue donors is growing. According to the National Kidney Foundation, there are over 200,000 surgical operations every year that could or do use transplanted bone. The use of bone from cadaver donors spares the patient time, medical risks, and expenses while providing the physician with a properly-sized bone implant of standardized quality. The physician is able to work with a consistently useful type of tissue "product" that dces not depend on chance availability.

The tissue bank treats the nurse as a "volunteer" even though presentation of the donor option to the donor family is a normal function of the nurse's responsibilities. The nurse works both as an employee of the hospital and as a volunteer for the tissue bank. The nature of the tissue donor referral process is itself essentially a voluntary one. It is a "system linking those who have and can be persuaded to give" with "those who need and are willing to receive."[2]

NURSES AS VOLUNTEERS

Managing the activities of nurses involved in the tissue donor referral process includes many of the same techniques used to manage the activities of other volunteers. This article describes the experience of a new tissue bank in Kansas City, Mis-

souri. The success of this tissue bank in developing a tissue donation process for nursing professionals depended upon the use of volunteer administration techniques to manage the activities of nurses.

In this example, the tissue bank IDENTI-FIED the volunteers (nurses), EDUCATED them to successfully pursue the referral process, RECORDED their activities, provided RECOGNITION, and ORGANIZED them into an identifiable group for advice and feedback.

Identification

Nurses can be identified by the potential role they play in the donor referral process. The criteria used to identify nurses supportive of tissue donation include profession and position.

All nursing professionals are potential active supporters of tissue donation. Not all nurses, however, work in medical institutions that care for patients.

Nurses in academic positions may have the ability to influence the activities of other nursing professionals to play an active role in supporting successful tissue donations. Some nurses may work in specialized care units and have more opportunity than others to come into daily contact with terminally or critically ill patients. Nurses in a position of authority within a hospital can encourage other nurses to actively present the option of human tissue donation to the families of potential donors.

There are nurses with a demonstrated willingness, or even eagerness, to pursue the human donation referral process for organs, tissues, and eyes. Many of these nurses may be listed with other organ or tissue donation agencies in the area. Sharing information between different agencies can occur when a positive and professional relationship exists that seeks to improve the coordination and growth of human tissue and organ donation.

There are, however, many nurses who still do not make the attempt to pursue donation. Some may be reluctant because of their own unresolved feelings, others may have an established opposition to donation or lack of information about the process. These nurses may need more information or time to digest and accept the benefits of organ and tissue donation.

Education

Nurses not only present the option of donation to the family, but also are the family's sole source of information about tissue donation. This requires the tissue bank staff to adequately prepare the nurse professional with a brief and informative education about tissue banking, the uses of human tissue, and an understanding of the tissue donation referral process. As biomedical technology advances, changes in tissue banking will require altering the criteria for accepting potential tissue donors. Additional reference materials reflecting these new criteria should be available to the nurse for quick review of donor procedures.

In addition to compiling the information, another responsibility of the tissue bank staff is to get the information to the nurse. To distribute information regularly, staff may go directly to the nurse. The tissue bank staff should take every opportunity to educate nurses during inservice education programs and seminars.

Familiarity with the concepts of tissue donation can be spread and reinforced through the use of publicity such as newspaper articles and TV newscasts. Articles can be written into in-house newsletters about human tissue donation.

Meetings or associations of nurses working with organ, eye, or tissue banking and donation can be accessed easily. Direct appointments with key nurses to establish important contacts and references can help spread information through institutional channels.

Additionally, the tissue bank staff can publish a regular newsletter. Such a publication can include information about the tissue bank, the mission, and the staff. The newsletter can review the referral process and announce items of interest such as future meetings. Use of a unique logo can identify and set the newsletter apart as special. The printing should include enough copies to distribute newsletters to as many nurses as possible through direct mail, hospitals, and professional nurse organizations.

Recording

A record of those nurses with an identifiable interest and support for human tissue

donation can comprise a sizable group. To properly track the activities of these nurses, the tissue bank can record current and complete information on every nurse identified to create a data base. This data base can include name, address, phone number, position, title, institution, and the number of referrals and recoveries given by each nurse. Such a data base allows the tracking of referrals and recoveries by nurses employed in specific institutions or by an individual nurse over a period of time. The list allows the tissue bank to analyze trends and problems in referrals that could be resolved through education and follow up.

The donation of a deceased's tissues are a gift from the donor's family. Ethically and legally, the donor family does not receive any financial compensation because of the donation. The donor family is also spared any financial hardship that may arise from the tissue donation. Likewise, any medical personnel involved in the donation process are not financially compensated for the donation. The nurse's role in the referral process is recognized as voluntary and without financial reward.

Recognition

The first step in the recognition of nurses is to be cognizant of the unique position and importance of the nursing profession in modern health care. The entire nursing profession suffers from understaffing, low professional pay, stressful working conditions, unique biohazards, and poor working hours. Nurses remain an unheralded but a very important link in society's health care system.

The second step of recognizing a nurse's referral activity is to have a measurable activity to track. The typical tool to measure volunteer activity (recording the HOURS involved) is unsuitable for nurses. For most volunteers, there is an explicit understanding that they must record or turn in the hours they contribute. For nurses working through the human tissue donation referral process, they are unwitting "volunteers" for the tissue bank.

Nursing professionals who present the option of donation to the deceased's family tackle a difficult job. That job can be less difficult and less stressful if the nurse does not have to report the time spent with the

donor's family. Instead of reporting a highly variable value such as time, it is much more beneficial to measure activity by using "events" instead of hours. Each referral or recovery can count as one event. Assigning time equivalents to each event may help to mark volunteer involvement for those agencies that must use hours.

To provide effective recognition, the referral should be acknowledged as quickly as possible. The activity can be recognized by acknowledging the referral in as many different ways or forms as possible to emphasize appreciation and recognition. Acknowledgments can include a follow up thank-you letter to the nurse or a novel "thank you" such as a rosebud in a vase.

The work of the nurse in the human tissue donation process can also gain recognition by using many other different types of devices. There may be a Nurse-of-the-Year Award to recognize nurse professionals who have significantly contributed to the success of the tissue referral process. Lapel pins, ribbons, buttons, and other accessories can be used to appropriately mark the inclusion of the referral nurse into a valued group of medical professionals.

The effectiveness of the recognition should be evaluated and measured if possible. Some forms of recognition for this type of volunteer work may not be appropriate in some areas. The timing of the recognition is important. Special awards call for special occasions in front of peers, coworkers, or family. Of course, to be most effective, recognition should not be an expectation of service and involvement.

Organizing

The tissue bank staff also have a responsibility to remain responsive to the complaints of the nurse professional. Since the nurses are doing the actual work of approaching donor families, staff should remain flexible and open to the needs of nurses approaching donor families.

In order to channel this feedback into a comprehensive and organized format, a volunteer "advisory committee" of interested nursing professionals can be created.[3] This committee allows the tissue bank to head off potential problems in the donor referral process that would not otherwise come to light.

The committee acts as a forum that legitimizes the valuable tissue donation experience of the nurse. The "advisory committee" format is useful because it provides a regular and formal method of addressing members'concerns to the tissue bank. The committee can suggest and bounce around ideas without interfering with the policymaking or administrative management of the tissue bank.

The first attempt to successfully organize nurses involved in the human tissue donation process occurred in Kansas City, Missouri. The Kansas City Eye Bank established the first nurse advisory committee in 1980.[4] This nursing advisory committee later formed the core for a national organization called the Consortium of Registered Nurses of Eye Acquisition (CORNEA) in 1983. In 1988, CORNEA became ANET (Association of Nurses Endorsing Transplantation). ANET is a national organization of nurses endorsing not only eye but also other organ and tissue donation. Nurse advisory committee members can be encouraged to pool their experiences with other nursing professionals through organizations such as ANET.

Membership for the advisory committee can be solicited from the data base described earlier. That list may include nurses who have made tissue donor referrals and the nurse contacts shared by other local eye, organ, and tissue banks.

As the committee develops, additional members can be solicited from among the peers of current members. Written job descriptions and responsibilities help the committee members understand the expectations and purpose of the committee. To focus their activities, the committee members can have specific "job assignments." These assignments may include such activities as helping to draft and implement nursing protocols for their hospitals on tissue donation. Nurses may also work together to highlight the need for donors through special events.

Because of the unique working conditions of nurses, they highly value the small amount of time they spend on activities other than work and family. It is imperative that nurses not think that they waste their valuable time at meetings of the advisory committee. Staff should host productive meetings that keep the committee members interested and involved.

Despite the fact that many of the nurses on the committee may not know one another, a favorable environment can be created for the sharing of feelings and concerns. The nurses drawn for the advisory committee will represent different, sometimes competing, hospitals. The committee meeting should provide a neutral ground for the positive sharing of ideas and suggestions.

For the first few meetings, staff may have to set committee agendas, times, programs, and discussions. The natural socializing effect of group dynamics should come into play, encouraging nurses to be open to one another. Eventually, as potential nurse volunteer leaders begin to surface, the committee may hold an election to select a chairperson to work directly with staff. The chair can provide leadership and direction to the advisory committee by working cooperatively with the tissue bank staff to design future agendas, set meeting dates and times, programs, and activities.

The nursing advisory committee members can become professional representatives for the tissue bank at their hospitals. To be effective, members of the nursing advisory committee must be kept informed of developments in the tissue bank. The advisory committee is a forum to share information openly and willingly about developments in tissue banking that could affect the tissue referral process. The tissue bank staff can build trust with the committee members by sharing information openly with members of the committee.

The success of the advisory committee depends upon developing an open and frank understanding between staff and the nurse volunteer. As the professional nurse builds trust with the tissue bank's staff and mission, the nurse is more likely to share that trust with a prospective donor family. Building on that trust, the donor family gains a greater understanding and is then more likely to consent to donation.

CONCLUSION

The need for more tissue donors will cause a greater involvement of nurse professionals in the tissue donor referral process. Making an appeal for human tissue

donation requires the uncommon qualities of tact and understanding most often associated with nurses. To continue the process of approaching prospective donor families, nurses will need more information and recognition.

Managing those nurses involved in the referral process requires establishing methods to identify, educate, record, recognize, and organize their activities. The administration of these nurse volunteers is a challenge to the continued viability of tissue banking. Experience indicates that successful tissue donor referrals by nurses can be successfully managed and coordinated by using some of the skills practiced by volunteer administrators.

The management techniques used to work with professional nurses in the tissue donation referral process are the same ones used to manage or administer other volunteer activity. In fact, the nurse seeking permission for an organ or tissue donation from the family of a deceased patient is the exemplar volunteer. Asking for nothing in return, such nurses take upon themselves a difficult task to help others.

FOOTNOTES

1. *Standards for Tissue Banking*, Association of Tissue Banks, 1988, p. 5.

2. Mason, David E., *Voluntary Nonprofit Enterprise Management*, New York: Plenum Press, 1984, p. 160.

3. Macduff, Nancy, Building a Strong Advisory Group, *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*, Spring 1989, VII:3, pp. 31-33.

4. Personal conversation on June 22, 1989, with Don Hudson, Executive Director, Kansas City Eye Bank, Kansas City, Missouri.

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Research on Volunteerism: Researchers' Interests and Practitioners' Needs

Jane Asche and Jane Janey

While research on voluntary associations and nonprofit organizations has never been stronger (Peterson, 1985), there is little information available that specifically addresses a need for research in volunteerism. What research is needed? What are the interests of potential researchers? In what areas is there the greatest agreement between research needs of volunteerism practitioners and the interests of those who might do the research? This article begins with the assumptions that practitioners have perceived research needs, potential researchers have specific areas of interest which they can identify, and there is sufficient agreement between the two groups to generate useful research projects. The Center for Volunteer Development, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, undertook a study in 1988 to test these assumptions.

The study was an outgrowth of a concern of the Resource Development Committee of the advisory council, Center for Volunteer Development. The committee, charged with a responsibility (among others) for finding funds which the Center could use for mini-grants, felt it could not approach potential funders until it had useful information about volunteerism research needs in Virginia and the availability of professionals interested in conducting such research.

A review of the literature was undertaken to learn if any scholar(s) had conducted a study which focused on volunteer research needs identification and the interests of potential researchers. None was found. Articles were found, however, in which the writers (Allen, 1983; Ellis, Peterson, Moyer,

Hodgkinson, Naylor, 1985) addressed the need for volunteerism research. None of the writers, other than Ellis, made a concentrated effort to identify major categories in which the research was needed. An Info Trac search and a review of appropriate selected abstracts, indices, working papers and books revealed no additional information that focused sufficiently on the concern to be of value to the researchers.

PURPOSE

The major purpose of the study was to determine the areas of agreement between perceived research needs of volunteerism practitioners and the interests of potential researchers. Answers to three questions were sought:

1. In what categories of information do volunteerism practitioners perceive a need for research?

2. What are the research interests of collegiate social science faculty members in regard to volunteerism?

3. In what categories of information is there greatest agreement between perceived research needs of practitioners and research interests of faculty?

METHODOLOGY

The study consisted of two phases: a mail survey to potential researchers in academic settings, and a hand-out survey to practitioners attending the 1988 Virginia Department of Volunteerism (DOV) conference.

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Phase I

A three-page survey was designed to determine the interests of a purposive sample of college faculty in conducting research on volunteerism. Only two questions were asked. The first dealt with the subject's current research on volunteerism (identification of any research underway and whether the research was funded or funds were being sought) and the second with the volunteerism research interests of the potential researcher.

To determine the interests of potential researchers, the question was asked "Would you consider conducting research on volunteerism if funds were available?" If the response was "yes," the researcher could then indicate an interest in as many of the 14 given research categories (with space provided for adding additional categories) as he or she desired. Each category was accompanied by subcategories which could be considered operational definitions. For example, the category "Black volunteerism" was operationally defined by these possible responses: types of organizations that attract Blacks and why, Black volunteerism patterns, Black volunteerism in traditionally non-Black organizations, and cultural uniquenesses that describe their helping patterns. Again, respondents could indicate an interest in as many subcategories as they wished. Additionally, space was provided for open response.

The categories listed on the survey form were influenced greatly by those outlined by Ellis (1985) as major topics of research need (who volunteers, motivation issues, overview subjects such as history of volunteers and international volunteerism, and organization related) and the operational questions for those topics. Ellis' work was basic for two reasons: (1) no other person has contributed the same type of information to the literature, and (2) she is a scholar and practitioner of volunteerism who has gained wide respect for her work, astuteness, and outstanding knowledge of what is needed in the field. The research questions Ellis asked were studied, and then choices of which to include were based on those most closely reflecting needs for information in Virginia as determined by assistance requested or questions asked the Center for Volunteer Development since its inception in 1981.

The target research group selected to receive the survey was the 222-member Virginia Social Science Association, a professional organization of social science faculty at the postsecondary level. This group was chosen because (1) traditionally, volunteerism research in academia has been conducted by social science educators, and (2) it provided a sample of convenience which was fairly representative of postsecondary institutions throughout the state.

Phase II

For this part of the study, information was gathered from practitioners attending the 1988 conference of the Virginia Department of Volunteerism. As with the subject group in Phase I, this group provided a sample of convenience. The primary reason it was chosen was because of the prohibitive difficulty and expense involved in obtaining a random sample. (No complete mailing list of volunteer practitioners exists in the state.) Additionally, it is felt that participants at the annual DOV conference represent the most diverse group of practitioners to assemble annually in the state. Analysis of the 1988 conference list of 474 people revealed that 51% were directors of volunteer programs within government agencies or public institutions, 28% were volunteers or directors of volunteer programs in volunteer associations, and 21% were volunteers or on-site directors of volunteers in corporate settings. The majority were paid directors.

The survey designed for use with the practitioners, and placed in the conference registration packets, was similar to the one sent to potential researchers. The first question was "In which of the following categories do you feel research is needed?" The same research categories and operational definitions offered as choices for the potential researchers were offered as choices for the practitioners. Again, space was provided for adding other categories or definitions under the given ones.

The second question dealt with the type of role the respondent was currently practicing in regard to volunteerism, *i.e.*, salaried coordinator, an unsalaried community volunteer, or unsalaried corporate volunteer. The final question asked "Would you be willing to work with one or more faculty

members in designing and carrying out a research project?"

FINDINGS
Research Interests of Social Science Faculty

Of the 76 faculty members or potential researchers who returned a survey (34.2% response), 47 indicated they would be interested in conducting research on volunteerism if funds were available, and three others indicated a possible interest. Seven additional faculty members were currently conducting volunteerism research projects, three of which were funded. One of these reported great difficulty in getting the research funded, whereas the other two said it had not been a problem. (One was funded through a university foundation grant, one from the Association of American Colleges, and one from the National Endowment for Humanities.) The other four faculty researchers were still seeking funds although the projects were underway.

Table I shows frequencies and the percentage of respondents interested and possibly interested in the given categories of research (rank ordered from greatest interest to least interest). In regard to the category "organizational issues," the largest number of faculty (19) expressed an interest in research related to measuring program effectiveness and retention of volunteers. Eighteen faculty were interested in research

on recruitment, followed by 25 expressions of interest in volunteer screening, 14 each in burnout and skills development or retraining, and 10 in organizational issues related to volunteer associations. The sub-category "legal issues" was also reported by eight respondents as an area of interest.

The category "gender patterns" drew an interest response from 28 of the respondents. The two major research interests were how changes in lifestyles or the economy affect male and female volunteer activities such as where, when, how much time, and roles (22 faculty); and whether men and women assume different volunteer roles because of their age. Interest areas added by respondents were types of agencies or programs that attract males/females, retired men as volunteers, and female volunteers in all-male settings (*e.g.*, prisons).

Those faculty who ranked "student volunteerism" (24) as a category of research interest were specifically interested in the types of organizations that would attract student volunteers and why (20 faculty), student volunteerism patterns (19 faculty), and unique terms that describe student helping patterns (14 faculty).

In regard to the category "motivational issues," the highest interest was expressed in motivational differences between salaried workers and volunteer workers; for the category "school volunteerism," it was the impact

Table I
Faculty Interest in Volunteerism (n=50)

Rank	Category of Interest	%*	Frequency
1	Organizational Issues	64	32
2	Gender Patterns	56	28
3	Student Volunteerism	48	24
4	Motivational Issues	42	21
5	School Volunteerism	40	20
6	Black Volunteerism	38	19
7	Low-Income Volunteerism	30	15
8	Criminal Justice Volunteerism	22	11
8	Asian Volunteerism	22	11
10	Funding	20	10
10	Board/Staff Relationships	20	10
10	Self-Help Networks	20	10
13	Native American Volunteerism	16	8
14	Hispanic Volunteerism	10	5

*Rounded to the nearest whole percent

of volunteer experiences on career choices of students; and for the research categories "Black volunteerism" and "low-income volunteerism," of greatest interest were the types of organizations that attract Blacks and those with low incomes as volunteers.

The highest reported research interest for the category "criminal justice volunteering" was alternative sentencing in volunteer settings; for "Asian volunteerism," cultural uniquenesses that describe their helping patterns; funding, charitable giving; board/staff relationships, role delineation; self-help networks, cooperatives for health care, housing, etc.; and for "Native American volunteerism" and "Hispanic volunteerism," types of organizations that attract these two groups and why, and their volunteerism patterns.

Categories of research interest reported by the researchers as open response were "volunteerism in Mennonite communities," "volunteer activities of the elderly," "relationship of marital status to volunteerism" (especially among young adults), "involvement of volunteers in community colleges," "impact of boards of trustees on Afro-American higher education," and "volunteers and the political process."

Perceived Research Needs of Practitioners

Fifty-three (11%) of the practitioners returned the surveys. More than two-thirds of these classified themselves as salaried volunteer coordinators. Thirty-nine of the 53 people indicated a willingness to work with a faculty member in designing and carrying out a research project for which the practitioner felt a need and in which the researcher was interested. Table II shows in rank order from greatest to least interest the frequencies and percentages of respondents interested in given categories of research. Since a purpose of the study was to report categories in which practitioners perceived a need for research, all respondents are included, not just those who indicated a willingness to help with the research.

As shown in Table II, the highest percentage of practitioners perceived a need for research in the category "motivational issues." Within this category, 25 respondents expressed a need for research on the effects of stipends and other rewards, 23 felt the effect on motivation of length of time in leadership roles should be researched, and 22 perceived a need for research on motivational differences between salaried workers and volunteer workers. Open-ended responses indicated a perceived need for research on motivation of volunteers to accept leadership positions, and how differences in age, gender, socio-economic status, race, religion, etc.,

Table II
Practitioners' Perceived Research Needs (n=53)

Rank	Category of Interest	%*	Frequency
1	Motivational Issues	96	51
2	Organizational Issues	94	50
3	Low-Income Volunteerism	91	48
4	Gender Patterns	81	43
5	Student Volunteerism	77	41
6	Board/Staff Relationships	70	37
6	Funding	70	37
8	Black Volunteerism	66	35
8	Self-Help Networks	66	35
10	Criminal Justice Volunteerism	64	34
11	School Volunteerism	62	33
12	Asian Volunteerism	13	7
13	Hispanic Volunteerism	11	6
14	Native American Volunteerism	9	5

*Rounded to the nearest whole percent

affect motivation.

"Organizational issues" was also perceived by a high percentage of the practitioners as an area of research need. In this category, recruitment was reported as the area of greatest need (28 practitioners), and information on organizational issues of volunteer associations was perceived by the fewest number (6) as a research need. Responses also indicated that 26 practitioners perceived a need for research on tools for measuring effectiveness; 25, retention; 2 each on skills development/retraining and tools for screening volunteers; 20, corporate volunteerism; 19, burnout; 16, legal issues; and 12, volunteerism in civic groups. Open-ended responses indicated a perceived need for research on developing ownership of/commitment to program goals; professionalism (e.g., standards and certification), and communication between co-equal and interdependent departments and committees.

Low-income volunteerism was also seen by practitioners as an area of great research need, particularly in regard to the types of organizations that attract low-income volunteers and why (29 practitioners), volunteerism patterns of those with low incomes (28), and the unique terms that describe their helping patterns (21). In regard to the category "gender patterns," the greatest perceived research need was on how economic and lifestyle changes affect the volunteer activities of males and females.

Table II shows that a high percentage of the practitioners perceived a need for research in all given categories except Asian, Hispanic, and Native American volunteerism. The lack of high interest in those three categories is undoubtedly due to the fact that Asians, Hispanics, and Native Americans account for a relatively low percentage of the population in Virginia. Volunteerism among the Black population, which accounts for about 19% of Virginia's population, was perceived, however, as an area of research need by 35 of the practitioners.

In the category "student volunteerism," the greatest expressions of research need were in regard to patterns of volunteering (26 practitioners) and the types of organizations that attract student volunteers and why (25). Role delineation was seen as the primary research need (24) in the category "board/staff relationships." In regard to the category "funding," charitable giving was perceived by 25 practitioners to be an area of research need; for "self-help networks," it was cooperatives for various causes (24);

Table III
Comparison of Rankings Between Faculty Interest in Volunteerism and Practitioners' Perceived Research Needs

Category of Interest	Researchers' Ranking (n=50)	%	Practitioners' Ranking (n=53)	%
Organizational Issues	1	64	2	94
Gender Patterns	2	56	4	81
Student Volunteerism	3	48	5	77
Motivational Issues	4	42	1	96
School Volunteerism	5	40	9	62
Black Volunteerism	6	38	7	66
Low-Income Volunteerism	7	30	3	91
Criminal Justice Volunteerism	8	22	8	64
Asian Volunteerism	8	22	10	13
Funding	10	20	6	70
Board/Staff Relationships	10	20	6	70
Self-Help Networks	10	20	7	66
Native American Volunteerism	13	16	12	9
Hispanic Volunteerism	14	10	11	9
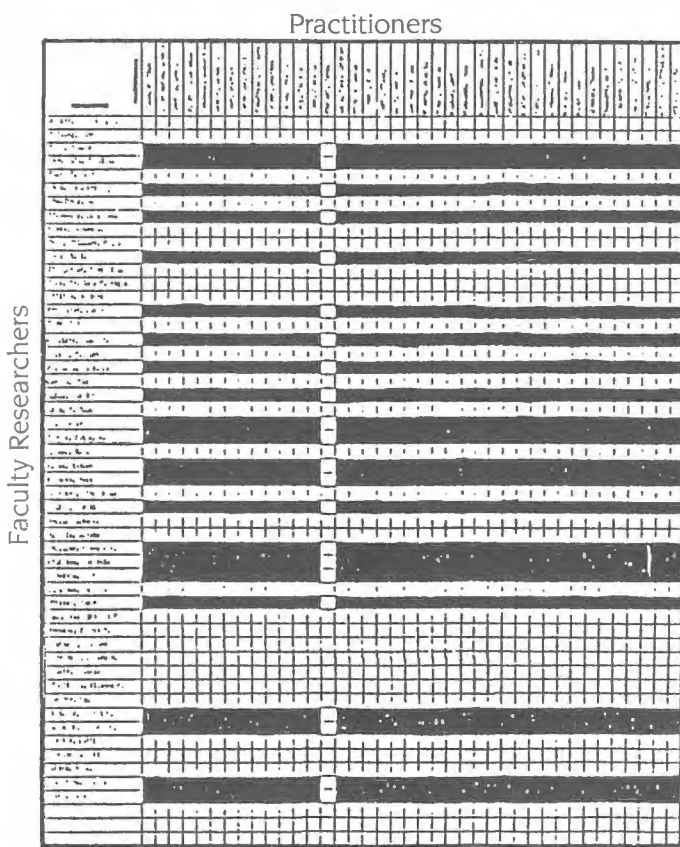
Figure 1
Interest in Motivational Issues Indicated by
Practitioners and Faculty Researchers

"criminal justice volunteerism," alternative sentencing in volunteer settings (21); and, "school volunteerism," the impact of volunteer experiences on career choices of students (17).

Research Categories of Greatest Agreement Among Researchers and Practitioners

When one compares the interests of faculty in volunteerism research with the perceived needs of practitioners for research (Table III), it is readily apparent that more than 50% of the practitioners perceived a need for research in all of the given categories except three, whereas only the first two categories listed received an expression of interest from more than 50% of the faculty researchers. Three of the same categories are rank ordered four or above in both Tables I and II, although the rank orders are not parallel. These data indicate that the categories of greatest research agreement among researchers and practitioners are "organizational issues," "motiva-

tional issues," and "gender patterns."

After the researchers' interests were compared with perceived needs of practitioners, a grid was developed for each given category of research so agreement between individual researchers' interests and the perceived research needs of individual practitioners could be identified and studied. It is important to note that only those practitioners (n=39) who indicated a willingness to assist faculty with research were included in this analysis.

On the grid, for each category of research, the names of practitioners willing to help faculty with research were listed on the horizontal axis, and the names of all faculty researchers on the vertical axis. Whenever both the researcher and the practitioner were interested in a given category, the appropriate intersection on the grid was marked. For instance, one can see in the example illustrating the interest in motivational issues (Figure 1) that all practitioners but one were interested in research

Table IV
Possible Research Combinations Between Researchers and Practitioners

Rank	Category of Interest	Researchers (n=50)	Practitioners (n=39)	Possible Research Combinations
1	Organizational Issues	32	37	1184
2	Motivational Issues	22	38	836
3	Gender Patterns	26	30	780
4	Student Volunteerism	24	31	744
5	Low-Income Volunteerism	15	33	495
6	Black Volunteerism	19	26	494
7	School Volunteerism	22	24	480
8	Self-Help Networks	14	25	350
9	Criminal Justice Volunteerism	11	26	286
10	Funding	11	25	275
11	Board/Staff Relationships	9	30	270
12	Asian Volunteerism	11	6	66
13	Hispanic Volunteerism	5	5	25
14	Native American Volunteerism	8	3	24

on motivation, whereas only 22 of the researchers were interested. A count of the marked intersections reveals 836 possible research combinations if one considers the given category only. (Consideration of sub-categories would result in fewer possible combinations.) This means that any one of the 22 researchers could be paired with any one (or possibly more) of the 39 practitioners for a research project. The count, carried out for each category, was useful to show quickly in which categories lay the greatest possible research combinations. Table IV shows that the greatest possibilities (number of marked intersections = 1,184) occurred for the category "organizational issues" and the least (number of marked intersections = 24) for the category "Native American Volunteerism."

No grids were prepared for the subcategories or operational definitions for each given category, yet within these lie the most crucial information for pairing researchers and practitioners for research. A computerized relational database is being established, however, that will provide this additional information. Names, institutions or organizations, addresses, phone numbers and interests (categories and subcategories) of researchers and practitioners will be entered. This database will allow precise matches for cooperative work to be made quickly as funds become available.

SUMMARY

This study indicates that the practitioners who responded to the survey perceive a need for research in many given categories related to volunteerism. It also shows that social science faculty have an interest in research on volunteerism and would be willing to conduct joint research projects with practitioners if money were available. Additionally, the study shows strong agreement in several categories between the perceived research needs of volunteerism practitioners and the interests of faculty researchers. Strong agreement is said to exist where there are the greatest number of possibilities for joint research projects. By this definition, the strongest agreements exist in the categories "organizational issues," "motivational issues," "gender patterns" and "student volunteerism." The agreements for all other categories, nonetheless, with the exception of Asian, Hispanic, and Native American Volunteerism, are also high.

It is reasonable to conclude that the Center for Volunteer Development could

initiate a great deal of research if funds were available. In light of practical considerations, however, it will probably fund only four or five projects in the near future. Already the results of this study have helped the advisory council secure funds for these studies. The results will further determine the nature of the studies and who will do the research. Preliminary work has shown the (1) some faculty and practitioners have left the positions they were in when they completed the survey, (2) some faculty are interested in grants larger than those the Center can make available, and (3) geographic proximity is a problem for some pairs of researchers and practitioners, as is finding a common time to work on the research project.

The sample populations for this study were nonrandom and nonrepresentative, and the results should be viewed in light of these limitations. They do, however, raise questions that call for continued research into what research is needed, and who will and can do it. The findings also add to the continuing discussion regarding availability of funds for volunteerism research. From where will they come? There are virtually no grant funds available for research in a field of action that doesn't fit neatly into some prescribed academic discipline (Allen, 1983). Probably the best approach to funding is for practitioners and researchers to define clearly a research agenda for volunteerism and then seek funds based on it. This seems imperative as volunteer organizations look toward the coming decade and the projection that they will be called upon to serve increasing numbers of people and with fewer resources to do it, at least from governmental bodies.

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ABSTRACT

A *relatively new type of community service, court-ordered community service, has an impact on volunteer administration in nonprofit organizations. The purpose of this article is to explore community service by court order, its impact on the nonprofit organization, and to bring forth guidelines to assist the manager of volunteers in determining whether or not to utilize the court-referred "volunteer."*

Court-Ordered Community Service and the Nonprofit Organization

Karen L. Hart

Court-ordered community service is an important issue facing the field of volunteer administration. An understanding of community service by court order is important to the managers of volunteers in nonprofit organizations as their organizations are often the "sponsors" providing unpaid work opportunities for the court-referred "volunteer." The purpose of this article is to explore community service by court order, its impact on the nonprofit organization, and to bring forth guidelines to assist the manager of volunteers in determining whether or not to utilize court-referred "volunteers" in their particular organizations.

To explore community service by court order, one must first have a basic understanding about its place in the criminal justice system. As defined by Noyes (1985), "a community service program places offenders in unpaid positions with nonprofit or tax-supported (governmental) agencies to perform a specified number of hours of work or service within a given time limit" (p.2). A definition of community service by order necessitates inclusion of a philosophical perspective. Simply put, should a criminal offender be punished or should the offender make restitution for the offense? Community service orders as restitution involve the offender in providing unpaid service for the good of the community. From the perspective of adult educators, Hanson and Stone (1985) stated, "Restitution is often ordered by agents of the criminal justice system, whereby the offender is

asked to take responsibility for his or her actions and, in doing so, to make amends to those injured by the offense" (p. 11). Put into historical perspective, the community service order emerged in the United States in the early 1970s as an alternative sentence for the criminal offender. Often, community service programs are instituted only on a local level and upon the discretion of a local criminal justice program.

Community service "volunteer" placements with a "sponsor" organization are often handled in the following manner:

Information is gathered from both the social inquiry report and within the interview so that the work-providing agency may be adequately informed about the offender and his circumstances. If the agency shows interest in an offender, the offender meets his potential supervisor prior to his formal acceptance by the agency. The placement proceeds only if both the offender and the supervisor feel reasonably confident with each other. Community Service by Order, 1979, p. 66.

Community service orders impact the nonprofit organization in varied ways. Leibrich, *et al.* (1986) stated, "Community service sentencing provides both opportunity and challenge for human service agencies. Opportunities exist for a steady flow of 'volunteers' to perform needed work and services for the agency and for the agency to assist in the community's response to offenders. But challenges exist in relating to criminal justice staff and offenders and integrating offenders into the volunteer pro-

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grams of the agency" (p. 12). These challenges fall along philosophical and pragmatic lines and depend upon effective communication between all players (the manager of volunteers, the criminal justice referral agent, and the offender).

PRELIMINARY QUESTIONS AND DISCUSSION

To assure, from the perspective of a manager of volunteers, that the decision to accept court-ordered "volunteers" is sound and that communication between all parties is effective, certain questions and considerations may be posed to assess the impact on his or her nonprofit organization. Ultimately, the questions then serve as guidelines for consideration of the utilization of court-ordered "volunteers." Following each question is some discussion of the impact on the organization. As a manager of volunteers,

. . . What is my definition or concept of "volunteer"?

One must be aware of one's own definition or concept of "volunteer." Consider these definitions and concepts. David (1970) stated, "Being a volunteer only requires a frame of mind—the desire to do something, with no financial reward, for someone else who could not receive that service unless you do it with him or for him" (p. 15). "Volunteers . . . are idealistically motivated persons who want to devote some portion of their lives to serving their fellow man. They come not for pay, though some may receive a token amount," stated Cull and Hardy (1974, p. 5). Ellis and Noyes (1978) stated, "To volunteer is to choose to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility and without concern for monetary profit, going beyond what is necessary to one's physical well-being " (p. 10). And Scheier (1980) noted, "Volunteering, then, is considered to be any relatively uncoerced work, intended to help, done without primary or immediate thought of financial gain" (p. 12). The definitions and concepts are presented here with the first being more restrictive and the last being more open and subject to individual interpretation. Each one attempts to deal with two main components: motive (voluntary

participation) and lack of financial reward or immediate thought of financial gain. Components of each can be useful in conceptualizing and possibly defining "volunteer."

. . . What is my philosophy about the criminal justice system and the treatment of the (an) offender? What are the benefits to the offender? What are the benefits to society?

These questions encourage the manager of volunteers to examine his/her own philosophy. Should a criminal offender be given a punitive sentence or be given the opportunity to make restitution through community service? Potential benefits for the offender, as noted by Noyes (1985-86) are: ". . . avoiding the hardships of incarceration or fines; relief from guilt about an offense and an opportunity to make amends; increased awareness of the needs of other people; new skills and work experience; and, avoiding stigmatizing and demeaning treatment often associated with other parts of the criminal justice system" (p. 2).

Potential benefits for society, as noted by Noyes (1985-86) include ". . . additional useful community service; the introduction of new persons to the volunteer network, one who might otherwise never be inclined to involve themselves freely; reduced criminal justice costs; a decrease in public stereotypes about offenders; increased public involvement in and awareness of the criminal justice system" (p. 2).

. . . Why would my organization accept a court-referred volunteer? What are the benefits to our organization?

This question encourages the manager of volunteers to examine organizational philosophy and purpose. Is the organizational acceptance of court-ordered "volunteers" considered an opportunity for the offender and for society, or just an opportunity for needed work to be done? Potential benefits for the organization include: providing opportunity for volunteer development and personal growth of the offender (Hanson & Henderson, 1983-84); utilizing an offender's skills which may not otherwise be available to the nonprofit organization for financial reasons; and tapping into a source for short term volunteers.

. . . *What is the philosophy of the referral agent?*

A report in *Community Service by Order* (1979) detailed reasons given by probation officers in England when recommending community service work. These were: "A) to benefit the offender, B) as an alternative to custody, C) to benefit the community and D) mixed reasons, a combination of some or all of (A), (B), or (C)" (p. 50). As the authors of *Community Service by Order* reveal, "In *Example* B the possibility of the court taking a punitive view is immediately acknowledged and community service is offered as a straight alternative 'depriving (the defendant) of his time' " (p. 50). In *Example* C, "the benefit to the offender is inverted and the stress is upon the help to the community which the making of a community service order would provide" (p. 50). As an example of the ideal (D):

> The ethos chosen for Devon community service was that the offender should be placed where he was, and felt, needed. It was thought that little was to be gained, other than easy completion of orders, merely by placing the majority of community service offenders with work typical of their normal daily employment. If feelings of self-worth and real achievement were to be engendered, these seemed far more likely to be found in new experiences which valued the offender for what he was able to give and to receive in an exchange relationship. Community Service by Order, 1979, p. 66.

After careful consideration of the preliminary questions and arrival at the conclusion that court-ordered community service may have a place in one's organization, the manager of volunteers may proceed to the next levels—the utilization of the court-referred volunteer and assessing the impact on the organization.

UTILIZATION OF THE COURT-REFERRED VOLUNTEER

What are the costs to the organization for volunteer management? Can the organization utilize the short-term volunteer and at what cost?

As Cull and Hardy (1974) noted:

> Volunteers are not a free source of help, either professional or paraprofessional. The costs in terms of recruitment, training, and supervision is substantial. The volunteers are in many respects equivalent to employees of the organization in that they require job descriptions, in-ser-

vice training programs, and supervision (p.6).

An organization may wish to place limits, as Ellis (1986) noted, "on the minimum amount of hours in the sentence [for example, it may not be cost-effective for you to orient and place someone who has less than 20 hours of community service work to do, unless you have a number of short-term projects waiting to be tackled]" (p. 98).

Who are the clientele served by the organization? What might the impact on clientele or patrons of the organization be?

Confidentiality of clients may be an issue for some organizations. Many people served are in a vulnerable position. The manager of volunteers needs to look out for the interests of the clientele served by the organization. Other organizations may prefer not to accept placements of persons who committed offenses such as sexual offenses. The clientele or family of the clientele may object to a sexual offender placed in a day-care setting.

What is the impact on other volunteers in the organization? What hesitations might other staff have with working with the court-ordered volunteer?

Ellis (1986) posed this consideration: will court-referred workers "be assigned to the same jobs as other volunteers?" (p. 98). In the case study of a library's experience with court-ordered community service volunteers, Taylor (1985) noted, a ". . . volunteer reported that some of her fellow civic group members did not want to volunteer at the library because so many court placements worked there that they feared people would perceive them to be offenders also" (p. 19). Volunteers and staff may want or need to know that the volunteer is an offender.

Does my organization already have short-term projects or would they be created?

If short-term projects are available and waiting to be done, the costs are less than if jobs are created specifically for the court-ordered volunteer. For example, if a volunteer is interested in doing outside work such as landscaping (which might be desired by the organization), it does not mean that the resources and materials are available to do so. As with any volunteer job, a written job description leads to the consideration of resources (human and

financial) before "hiring" for the position.

After consideration of the utilization of the court-referred volunteer and the impact on the organization, the manager of volunteers may proceed to the next level—placement procedures and their impact on the nonprofit organization. The following questions, unless otherwise noted, were posed by Taylor (1985).

PLACEMENT PROCEDURES AND IMPACT

"*Does the referral source have firm written guidelines governing eligibility for participation and written regulations for the defendants?*" (Taylor, 1985, p. 20).

Written guidelines, which spell out how the suitability of an offender is determined, are essential. The most frequently used criteria are 1) employed and of a settled address and 2) the nature of the offense. The guidelines can give the manager of volunteers an idea of the "type" of offender who might be given the community service order. However, keeping in mind the clientele served, the manager of volunteers may also set more restrictive guidelines for accepting placements of offenders. Written regulations for the offenders provide information to the manager of volunteers about the expectations of the criminal justice system for the offender.

How is screening done? As manager of volunteers, how am I involved in the screening and placement of the volunteer?

It may be necessary to know the background of an offender. Ask the criminal justice referral agents to tell you what information they can provide and their reasoning behind it. They may have policies about what information will and can be provided to the sponsoring organization.

"*Does the referral source have a written agreement with recipient agencies, outlining responsibilities and rights of all parties?*" (Taylor, 1985, p. 20).

The written agreement spells out the responsibilities of all the players: the manager of volunteers, the offender, and the criminal justice referral agent—who is accountable for whom, to whom, and for what. These responsibilities may include: 1) necessary paperwork, 2) procedures for noncompliance by the offender, 3) whether the client must perform at a certain standard in order to receive credit for hours served, 4) whether the placement can be terminated by an agency and on what grounds, 5) whether the referral source is responsible to assist the agency with problems, and 6) if the participating offender must abide by the rules of the sponsoring organization (Taylor, 1985, p. 20). Without an agreement, the community-service sentence would be fraught with misunderstandings and problems.

CONCLUSION

The success of a court-ordered community service program depends upon effective communication between all players (the manager of volunteers, the criminal justice referral agent, and the offender). Not all offenders are appropriate for court-ordered community service, nor are all offenders chosen for community service appropriate for all organizations. A survey done by Hanson and Stone (1985) showed "that the administration of community service with offenders is an important issue for volunteer agency staff working with such volunteers" (p. 19). As Noyes (1985-86) stated, "it is up to us to advocate for ourselves and our programs. . . . By opening new channels of communication, seeking new definitions and establishing workable guidelines and policies, we can help to shape the notion of court-ordered community service into a valuable opportunity rather than a frustrating dilemma" (p. 5). The questions presented in this article should serve as a basis and as guidelines for any nonprofit organization considering the utilization of the court-ordered volunteer. The decision to involve the court-ordered volunteer needs to be a well-thought-out and conscious decision. The benefit to the organization, within the scope of its mission, must be known and considered.

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Training Supervisors of Volunteers

Connie Skillingstad, CVA

Training staff to supervise volunteers has long been a concern of volunteer administrators. Insuring that the volunteer experience within agencies and organizations is productive and satisfying in part depends on having a paid staff that is willing and able to supervise effectively. During the past three years, Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of St. Paul and Minneapolis has developed a training program to enable paid staff to work more effectively with the more than 5,000 volunteers who serve Catholic Charities each year.

In 1987, volunteer supervisory training became the highest priority for the eight volunteer coordinators within the Catholic Charities system. Staff were also requesting opportunities to increase their supervisory skills This past spring, Catholic Charities implemented its first full training program for staff supervisors with a 21-hour training program for 60 staff whose current or future role included supervision of volunteers.

THE TIME FRAME

Pre-March 1987: The Catholic Charities Volunteer Coordinating Committee (the paid volunteer coordinators) in conjunction with the Central Volunteer Committee (volunteer representatives from each division of Catholic Charities) defined Volunteer Policies and Procedures which were approved by the corporate board. Each division added to these policies, addressing the unique concerns of that division (*e.g.*, vulnerable children or adults, homeless issues, unmarried parents, refugee resettlement, and so on). The policies were included in the volunteer orientation, given to staff, and included in division operations manuals and program handbooks.

March 1987: In response to continuing requests for training, the volunteer coordinators explored the development of an agency-wide supervisory training component. Realizing that there was currently no training for supervisors offered within Catholic Charities, the organization recognized the need to provide training in the basic skills of supervision.

While separate divisions of Catholic Charities oriented staff to the volunteer program, there were no consistent standards or supervisory expectations on which to base the training. Therefore, an initial step was to *define mutually agreed upon minimum standards for supervision of volunteers* (see Appendix A). During the ensuing year, meetings were held with supervisory staff members to fine tune the standards and get agreement and support to implement them.

The personnel department also included the supervision of volunteers as a function in all applicable job descriptions. These standards then became the basis for performance review on that job function. Functions which staff felt were too extensive were incorporated into a document defining how supervisors may exceed expectations (see Appendix B).

March 1988: *The Central Volunteer Coordinator*, responsible for calling together the coordinators from very diverse programs to work as a unit, *recruited a volunteer management consultant*. The consultant presented a training model that had been developed for a large multinational corporation based in the area and agreed to adapt the model for use in the nonprofit arena and specifically for supervision of volunteers.

May 1988: Prior to adaptation for supervisors of volunteers, *the model was presented to the Executive Team for its endorsement and support for staff involvement*. The coordinators then worked with the consultant to write vignettes on volunteers to be used in skill practice sessions and revise the curriculum where necessary to make applicable to volunteer issues.

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June-August, 1988: Approximately 60 *managers and administrators* who supervised volunteer supervisors *attended 16 hours of training* to learn about the model and how to coach those staff who would be trained in this model.

October 1988-January 1989: A cadre of *trainers was recruited* from within the agency in order to keep dependence on outside resources to a minimum, to insure thorough integration of the training with the organizational values and culture, and to allow the training to be implemented over the long term. The trainers included volunteer coordinators and staff selected for their experience as volunteer supervisors and as trainers. Sixteen agency staff members began training to become trainers. All but two of the trainers came from the 60 persons attending the original briefing on the model.

Thirteen of the sixteen who began the training *completed 50 hours of training each* during which time they developed the trainer's manual, participant manual, and the various exercises which would be used in the delivery of the training. This particular strategy was unique in that it used and demonstrated skill and knowledge of effective adult teaching methods by incorporating the actual development of materials and methodology of delivery into the training process. Each trainee was responsible for preparation and delivery of one training module, which was videotaped and feedback was provided by other participants and the consultant. This process also enabled the consultant and Central Volunteer Coordinator to assess the training skills of the prospective trainers.

During this time, decisions were being made about how best to deliver the training to staff. *It was decided to make the training mandatory for all who supervise volunteers*. The trainers were organized into training teams made up of a volunteer coordinator and at least one other staff person. At this point those involved in the "birthing" process found time to celebrate how far they had come.

February 23-May 23, 1989: The next phase of actually implementing the training within the agency occurred. Each of the 60 *staff who supervised or wanted to supervise volunteers participated in 21 hours of training*. Training teams were organized into four different sections. Different time frames were used in order to determine which would be most effective and desirable in delivering future training.

May 26, 1989: *All involved celebrated* the completion of the second phase of the program. Each trainer received a certificate acknowledging his or her completion of the training and the significant commitment each had made. Further, each person completing the training received a certificate of completion and a letter from the Executive Director acknowledging his or her work. A copy of the certificate is placed in the individual's personnel file and helps meet the inservice training requirement for credentialing.

THE TRAINING PROCESS
Approach and Methodology

Effective supervision, whether it be of volunteers or of paid staff, requires skill in both the content and process areas. Content can be described as the quality and quantity of work performed, while process defines the way in which we do the work, (*i.e.*, habits, relationships, *etc.*). Since society tends to be highly content-oriented, supervision is content-driven as well. This tendency is most often expressed in the supervisory complaint, "Well, I told them what to do; why didn't they do it?" Such a comment usually indicates either a lack of understanding of or the lack of skills in the process components of supervision.

In Catholic Charities, as in some other organizations (especially nonprofit human service agencies), the reverse is true: the process takes precedence over content. While the mission and goals of the organization are well documented, the training of those who work in them frequently leads toward a "human relations" style of management. A supervisory comment that often points to such a reversal goes like this: "I can't understand it! We have such a good relationship, and s/he still didn't get the job done!"

The implications for designing and conducting supervisory training in an organization which emphasizes process over content were not, in reality, very different from those that would be considered in doing the same training in an organization that values content over process. In fact, an

argument can be made that training in a process-based organization should be easier to conduct and more effective in long term results since content skills have often formed the basis for promotion to supervisory roles, and process skills are often more highly profiled.

The selection of the training design factored in the need for both content and process and insured that both were congruent with each other within the materials and training delivery, and were also externally congruent with the culture and values of the organization. At Catholic Charities, a training design was developed which incorporated solid interpersonal values, a behavior modeling focus, and a progressive problem-solving structure, with skill practices (role plays).

The interpersonal value (called Key Principles in the jargon of the program) incorporated into the training design were, for simplicity and ease of use, limited to three:

1) Maintain and enhance self esteem.
2) Listen and respond with empathy.
3) Ask for help in solving the problem.

The behavior modeling focus involved an emphasis on describing and demonstrating the right things to do as a supervisor as well as making sure that instructor behaviors in the classroom situation espoused the same behaviors being taught.

The progressive problem-solving structure served to emphasize such content areas as dealing with performance and work habits problems in a first meeting, handling follow-up meetings, and maintaining progress as well as motivating the average performer. This structure kept participants focused on the fact that problems *require* solutions and that those solutions can and should be formulated in a collaborative, win-win manner. The skill practices, a tightly structured role-play format, provided the learning transfer vehicle. It was particularly effective when the participants used their own work situations for practice.

OUTLINE OF THE TRAINING

Seven distinct training modules were covered during the training:

1. Fundamental Concepts of Supervision
2. Dealing with Performance Problems

3. Dealing with Work Habits Problems
4. Utilizing Effective Follow-up Action
5. Maintaining Improved Performance
6. Utilizing Effective Disciplinary Action
7. Motivating the Average Performer

Each module was presented in a three-hour block. The training was experiential in nature and a manual provided both readings and exercises. The format included presentation of critical steps to use in managing each particular situation.

EVALUATION

Evaluations were conducted after each of the seven modules and when the training was completed. Trainers and participants were asked to complete evaluation forms and the results were tabulated in order to determine future changes and directions for the program. Prospective trainers are being identified from participant groups for future development. Evaluation meetings with the trainers were held to review the process and identify needed changes. Some key results of evaluations were as follows:

1. The training was seen as very helpful and should be the model for the agency and be available for new staff on a regular basis. A follow-up system is essential as an ongoing evaluation of the impact of the training.
2. A system to continue coaching those persons who have attended the training is needed. Coaching such as that which was used in the training was seen as particularly valuable by participants.
3. A concern of trainers is to assure continued coordination by one person.
4. One participant who claimed she "hated" volunteers because of a difficult situation was one of the most eager participants and determined she did not hate volunteers as she had thought—she really only needed help to deal with a problem. This story has repeated itself in many different ways.
5. Participants utilized the skills they learned between sessions and brought their concerns back to the next session. Time between sessions provided an opportunity to practice and will continue to be a part of future formats.

6. The commitment of the trainers was extensive, with much work done at home/after hours. While it was a much larger commitment than anticipated, most trainers felt that it was manageable with supervisor's support. Staff trainers felt they were the best models for co-workers. Time was the key concern of the trainers, not the value of the experience.

7. On a scale of 1-5, all responses were a 3 or better on the following items:
   - trainer having good knowledge of the subject
   - trainer being responsive and flexible to meet needs
   - effectiveness of trainers' delivery of material
   - organization of content
   - usefulness of materials
   - outcomes being clear and realized
   - belief that training prepares participants to supervise
   - effectiveness of the training

FUTURE GOALS

Based on the evaluations and ongoing discussions by the trainers and training subcommittee, the following goals were set:

1. To complete training of 180 volunteer supervisors by summer 1990 and to develop a schedule for training new staff members in the program, assuring that all staff who supervise are trained.

2. To have this program available on an ongoing basis through the recommitment of the training team members, recruitment of additional trainers to replace those who have completed their initial commitment, and development of an ongoing "training for trainers" model.

3. To revise materials and format based on evaluations, and to strengthen the introduction as it deals with hiring process.

4. To conduct ongoing evaluation of the program by the Volunteer Coordinator's training subcommittee to improve the quality and effectiveness of the model. A six-month post-questionnaire focusing on specific applications of the material was suggested.

5. To explore the possibility of taking this model to the larger community, to other nonprofit agencies, to other Catholic Charities agencies around the country and beyond.

APPENDIX A

Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of St. Paul and Minneapolis

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR SUPERVISION OF VOLUNTEERS

We ask the volunteer supervisor to:

1. Attend required volunteer supervisory orientation/training.

2. Work with volunteer coordinator to clearly define volunteer position(s) which the supervisor is requesting (including duties, qualifications, and time commitment to fulfill the position). Keep volunteer coordinator informed of changes in job description.

3. Participate with the volunteer coordinator in the selection of volunteers for the specific position.

4. Provide specific on-site orientation and training for volunteers.

5. Assure regular contact with volunteers for whom you are responsible, and provide a minimum of an annual formal evaluation session.

6. Communicate key information to volunteers which will affect the volunteer's performance (*i.e.*, current operating information, changes in schedules, training, meeting dates and changes in client status).

7. Assure report of volunteer's hours/impact to the volunteer coordinator.

8. Participate in formal and informal volunteer recognition activities.

9. Notify the volunteer coordinator of any problems or questions regarding a volunteer as soon as they become evident and prior to any decision to terminate.

10. Advise the volunteer coordinator when a volunteer terminates and/or has a change in volunteer status.

APPENDIX B

Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of St. Paul and Minneapolis

SUPERVISORS OF VOLUNTEERS EXCEED EXPECTATIONS BY:

1. Attending additional training regarding supervision.

2. Assisting the volunteer coordinator in recruitment of volunteers and being aware of organizational volunteers needs.

3. Designing and implementing the volunteer training and training materials.

4. Contributing to the volunteer's professional growth, including such things as resume writing, career laddering, reference letters, and special trainings.

5. Planning and implementing formal and informal recognition activities for volunteers.

6. Along with the volunteer coordinator, solving problems around potential issues/problems regarding volunteers and the volunteer program.

7. Engaging with the volunteer coordinator in the annual planning process for the volunteer program.

8. Participating in the divisional volunteer program by serving on a task force or advisory committee.

Utilizing a "Rich" Resource: Older Volunteers

Ellen S. Stevens, DSW

As more people live longer, the need to continue one's sense of purpose impacts upon more and later lives. While work inside and outside the home once constituted purpose, new-found leisure time is accompanied by the ongoing need for meaningful activity.

Of the thirty million senior citizens in the United States, approximately 35%—or 10,500,000 people—engage in volunteer service.[1] More than half of these older adults work under the auspices of a volunteer organization. However, the attrition rate of such volunteers approaches 25% during the first year of service.[2] This presents a multi-faceted problem: turnover is costly to the volunteer organization, disruptive to the placement agency, and distressing to the beneficiaries and providers of the volunteer service.

A recent study was proposed to increase theoretical and practical understanding of senior volunteer retention and satisfaction. The intent was to learn how to keep senior volunteers—and how to keep them satisfied.

This article describes the nature of the study, reveals why the older adults in the study chose to continue or discontinue volunteer service, and identifies characteristics that contribute to staying on the job. Practical applications for the volunteer administrator are offered.

NATURE OF THE STUDY

A sample of 151 older volunteers from one metropolitan volunteer organization comprised the study population. Questionnaires were completed by 66% of the current volunteers sampled (n=114) and 50% of the former volunteers sampled (n=37), constituting a total response rate of 61%

The questionnaire was developed with two rounds of pretesting with older volunteers working under the auspices of the same volunteer organization from which the sample was obtained. Measures of reliability and validity were established.

The study is both descriptive and explanatory. It identifies sociodemographic characteristics of the sample and points to associations between these characteristics and levels of satisfaction and retention. The volunteers of the study range in age from 60 through 93, are primarily married or widowed, and are four times as likely to be women as men.[3] The minority representation in this sample is disproportionately high—21% are Black, 21% are Jewish, and 20% are Italian—notably higher percentages than are typical in the population-at-large.

The socioeconomic status of the sample is relatively low. More than half of the volunteers reported annual incomes of less than $10,000, including 23% who reported less than $5,000 per year. More than one-third had no more than a grade school education.

These volunteers served in a range of settings, including schools, hospitals, private industry, and senior citizen centers. They usually worked within one mile of their homes in communities where they had resided for more than 30 years.

Thus, the volunteers of the study are older adults who are residentially stable, predominantly female, often of minority status, low in socioeconomic status and working for nonmonetary reward. These volunteers are distinguished from the prototype of volunteers by age (they are older), racial and ethnic background (strong minority representation), and socioeconomic status (they are poorer and less educated).[4] Furthermore, these volunteers are distinguished from the prototype of *older* volunteers in both socioeconomic status and gender ratio. Here we have older volunteers who are more-often-than-not low-income women.

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WHY DO THEY STAY?

The profile of these volunteers prompts inquiry into reasons for older adults with limited resources *volunteering* their time. The questionnaire proffered the following questions and response choices:[5]

What is the MAIN reason you are volunteering? (*Circle* one number below.)

1. I LIKE THE WORK I DO
2. I LIKE THE PEOPLE I WORK WITH
3. I FEEL USEFUL
4. IT FILLS MY TIME
9. OTHER; PLEASE SPECIFY —————

The most frequently-cited reason for volunteering was I FEEL USEFUL.

Former volunteers were asked the same question, worded as follows:

What is the MAIN reason you stopped volunteering? (*Circle* one number below.)

1. I DID NOT LIKE THE WORK
2. I DID NOT LIKE THE PEOPLE I WORKED WITH
3. I DID NOT FEEL USEFUL
4. IT DID NOT FILL MY TIME
5. IT TOOK TOO MUCH OF MY TIME
9. OTHER; PLEASE SPECIFY —————

The most frequently-cited reason for dropping out of the volunteer role was I DID NOT FEEL USEFUL.

For this sample, the need to feel useful during later life is a primary motive for continuing in the volunteer role. This finding points to the need to address the older volunteer's need to feel useful—a key factor in influencing continued involvement of the senior volunteer.

CRITICAL CHARACTERISTICS FOR PROMOTING USEFULNESS

In order to optimally utilize this "rich" resource, we look to qualities of the volunteer role that are associated with higher levels of retention and satisfaction. This study revealed three characteristics that, combined with sociodemographic characteristics of this sample, best explain how to keep and satisfy senior volunteers.

The three R's of ROLE-SET INTERACTION, ROLE RECOGNITION, and RESPECT are the critical characteristics. "Role-set

interaction" is contact on the job with paid and volunteer staff; "role recognition" is positive feedback from people at the placement agency as well as the volunteer organization; "respect" refers to prestige perceived in former work positions and current volunteer position.

For the volunteers of the study, contact with others on the job, positive feedback, and respect at levels formerly perceived were directly related to likelihood of staying on the job and staying satisfied. The volunteer administrator is challenged to meet these needs.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

The volunteer administrator is confronted with the turnover phenomenon. Meeting the volunteer's need for usefulness through role-set interaction, recognition, and respect may be a beginning to preventing an end. Recruitment, placement, and supervision of older volunteers, and the staff who work with them, can incorporate these findings to meet this need.

Recruitment Practices

Targeting older adults who live within close proximity of agencies in need of volunteer services is conducive to volunteer interaction. People who are already active are likely candidates for involvement in service activity;[6] thus, viable marketplaces for older volunteers are neighborhood senior centers, civic organizations, and churches and synagogues. Visual displays of information such as large-print posters, and personal presentations of the need for people-power, alert seniors to an opportunity to put their experience to use. Older people who know each other through one organization may find it supportive to jointly embark upon the application and orientation procedures in a new setting. Transportation provisions, post-volunteering meals, and intermittent socializing may create opportunities for role-set interaction both on and off the job.

The recruitment process may be consummated with a written plan composed by volunteer and staff member. This plan addresses the volunteer's goals, time availability, proximity needs, and areas of interest and expertise. The volunteer and volunteer organization retain a copy of this plan

to be updated during ensuing conferences. The development and use of such a plan may be reminiscent of employment practices which conveyed respect during earlier stages of adulthood.

Placement Practices

Preplacement interviews can glean information about the prospective volunteer's areas of knowledge and skill and current interests, while assessing the level of prestige inherent in former positions. This enhances the likelihood of placement in a position that will tap the volunteer's interests and maximize opportunity for success and recognition. Preplacement site visits present an opportunity for joint decision-making from the beginning of the placement process, creating a partnership that conveys respect. Additionally, role-set interaction now takes on a staff-volunteer dimension.

Once the placement decision is made, effort can be directed toward creating a "volunteer-friendly" environment. The physical environment of the older volunteer should be conducive to interaction; thus, placement near other volunteer or paid staff members serves this end. A designated workspace conveys respect and is often reminiscent of previous work conditions. The social environment should integrate older volunteers. They should be party to memoranda about agency policies and procedures, invited to participate in relevant meetings, and included in mealtime get-togethers and social events. In addition, periodic evaluation conferences between the volunteer coordinator and older volunteer can enable a mutual exchange of information, observations, and feelings. Such communication may bring problems to light before they become obstacles.

Supervision

A primary element in successful supervision of senior volunteers is recognition. Positive feedback from people at all levels of the placement site falls on eager ears. Of equal importance is praise from members of the volunteer organization who may have less-frequent personal contact with volunteers-on-site. Written communication and telephone contact may effectively bridge this gap.

Recognition of the older volunteer's worth to the organization may take on varied forms. Verbal recognition, smiles and pats on the shoulder, written letters of commendation, certificates, trophies, and plaques all provide valuable nonmonetary reward. Importantly, the people who take time out to demonstrate this recognition, often paid staff who are pressured and oftentimes unrecognized themselves, will benefit from such recognition of their own merit to the organization.

Eventually, the older volunteer's tenure on the job will end. An exit interview can reveal to the organization the volunteer's reason for ceasing service, provide a time for final expressions of gratitude, and convey to the volunteer a sense of appreciation and usefulness that she or he may convey to prospective volunteers.

CONCLUSION

Older volunteers are here—but to stay? Much depends on the organization's ability to satisfy the continuing need for a sense of usefulness. Meeting this need has a high payoff: millions of dollars of services are provided voluntarily,[7] staff and clients receive continuity in volunteer service, and older adults are afforded a viable role in later life.

Meeting this need can be catalyzed through application of the three R's: role-set interaction, recognition, and respect. Involvement with others on the volunteer job, positive feedback to the older volunteer, and a working plan and partnership between paid and volunteer staff appear to maximize senior volunteer satisfaction and retention.

The volunteer administrator is invited to apply these research findings in recruitment, placement, and supervisory processes with older volunteers. A staff-volunteer partnership which begins during recruitment and continues throughout the placement period enables reciprocity in exchange and mutuality in benefit from this vital human resource of older adults.

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FOOTNOTES

1. U.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United*

States, 1989, pp. 36 and 371.

2. Interviews with James Sugarman, Retired Senior Volunteer Program in New York City, New York, 1984-87.

3. This is two times the usual ratio of 2:1 for older female:older male volunteers.

Susan Maizel Chambré, "Is Volunteering a Substitute for Role Loss in Old Age? An Empirical Test of Activity Theory," *The Gerontologist* 24 (June 1984): 292-8.

4. Russell A. Ward, *The Aging Experience*, New York: Harper and Row, 1984.

5. Ellen Stevens, "Goodness-of-Fit in Senior Volunteerism," DSW dissertation, Columbia University, 1988, pp. 176 and 191.

6. Susan Maizel Chambré, "Older Volunteers as Joiners," paper presented at the Annual Scientific Meeting of the Gerontological Society of America, San Antonio, Texas, November 19, 1984.

7. U.S. Government, ACTION 1987 *Annual Report*, Washington, DC: Government Printing Office. This report states that $242,000,000 in services was provided by 387,000 Retired Senior Volunteer Program volunteers in FY 1987.

Volunteer Youth Service Legislation: An Opportunity for Social Change?

Marie Saunders

A volunteer, according to *Webster's Dictionary* is "one who enters into or offers himself for any service of his own free will". In their book, *By the People*, Susan Ellis and Katherine Noyes define the verb volunteer in this way: "to volunteer is to choose to act in recognition of a need, with an attitude of social responsibility and without concern for monetary profit, going beyond what is necessary to one's physical well-being."

Both of these definitions involve free will or choice, a key concept in America. The Ellis/Noyes definition includes social responsibility which can refer to specific and immediate needs or to actions relating to society at large. The definition also uses the phrase "going beyond" which implies that something extra beyond the bare minimum is required. It is interesting to note that the definitions of volunteer used here do not include the words "community service," a phrase one is beginning to see and hear when the concept of volunteering is being discussed.

We as Americans have a tradition of exercising social responsibility beyond the minimum. The Independent Sector recently published a study on just how far we do go. The study showed that for all adults 18 years or older, including nonvolunteering households, an average of 2.1 hours per week was volunteered. Of those who volunteered, their weekly average was 4.7 hours. In 1985 this average was 3.5 hours per week. In addition there are financial contributions with an average contribution from all households of $562 or 1.5% of their income.

The Independent Sector drew a number of other general conclusions about the public's attitudes towards volunteers. These included the following:

- Most Americans believe they should volunteer and give to help others.
- People who volunteer are more apt to also contribute dollars. Those who exercised their personal commitment to charitable giving and to participating in public affairs gave more generously.
- 87% believe that charities play a significant role in society and express confidence that they are better able to provide social services than are big business or Congress.
- Americans believe that the government has a responsibility to help people who cannot help themselves. However, there was not much agreement on what form this help should take.

The purpose of this brief review of the volunteer concept is to set the stage for a discussion of some legislation currently before the 101st Congress to establish a national volunteer service program. There are now some 14 different bills before Congress for its consideration. Many of these bills have been consolidated into S1430, a bill to enhance national and community service.

In addition, President George Bush has announced YES in America (Youth

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Engaged in Service in America), a program dubbed "a thousand points of light" during the recent Presidential campaign and expected to cost $100 million over the next four years.

The focus of this article is to raise some ethical questions and provide some information to assist in their consideration. This will be accomplished through a brief review of the most significant legislation being considered along with some of the commentary found in the press. It will then take a look at volunteerism in our past which addresses the question of change as well as political expediency. It will conclude with some observations which support, in part, the question of an ethical dilemma.

Some Questions

So what's the fuss? Americans are happily volunteering of their own free will and Congress and/or the President is going to help them.

But there needs to be a fuss about the establishment of a national volunteer service corps. Do we want to legislate into place something that is already being done without legislation? Do we want to create and fund an organization that mandates caring through government requirements? Will such a governmental organization be as responsive to changing social needs over time as a charitable organization dependent on the community for its financial well being? If not, does it matter?

Does the national service corps concept take an uniquely American value and legislate it into being a program that is politically expedient? Is the government saying that it can not solve the social problems so it will take a positive political value and push the solutions on to the nonprofit sector? And what will happen to voluntary volunteering?

In the process of designing incentives to volunteer is too little attention being paid to the costs and problems of supervising volunteers? Will incentives and/or coercion really create a sense of caring and a national sense of community? Are the professionals in volunteer administration addressing these questions in anticipation of the future or is the future simply evolving and our role will be to react when it arrives?

Some Proposed Laws

There is an assortment of legislation pending before Congress that give rise to the questions that have been raised. The proposed laws being reviewed here have been selected because they have been the most visible and have been incorporated, at least in part, into S1430 which will also be briefly reviewed. They also show the range of incentives being proposed and populations being targeted in an attempt to develop a political coalition enabling enactment.

The main focus of all of the bills is on youth with an emphasis on education. They all have considerable sums of Federal money attached. While there is a sense of the national costs, there is little information on the state or local costs for actually running the programs. There is no sense at all of the costs to the agencies in establishing effective programs that meet agency, student, and Federal objectives.

Senator Sam Nunn (D,GA) and Congressman Dave McCurdy (D,OK) introduced the first of the national service bills. S3/H660 allows civilian service volunteers to receive subsistence wages and a $10,000 voucher for education, job training, or down payment on a home, The $10,000 voucher would phase out the education loan program. Active military volunteers would receive a $24,000 voucher at the end of two years of military duty. Senior volunteers over age 65 would receive a stipend for either part-time or full-time volunteering in this program.

A nonprofit Corporation for National Service would be established to manage the program. Its Board would make grants to the states which in turn would develop a service plan and designate local projects. The states would pay 25% of the costs out of non-Federal funds. The nonprofits in which the volunteers are placed would pay up to $1,000 a year to the state for each volunteer.

S408 sponsored by Senator Barbara Mikulski (D,MD) establishes a similar program with a $3,000 yearly voucher and a three-year commitment. Management would again be through a national corporation with the states providing local administration and administration costs.

This bill does not phase out the Federal education loan program.

The focus of H717/S322, introduced by Congressman Leon Panetta (D,CA) and Senator Christopher Dodd (D,CT) is on a Conservation Corps targeting 16 to 25 year olds. Matching grants from the Secretary of the Interior would set up local and state conservation corps working on public lands. Participants would be paid stipends equal to minimum wages.

S650, introduced by Senator Edward Kennedy (D, MA), focuses on the concept that community service should be a part of the learning process for all students. Serve America provides start-up grants to existing institutions to expand service opportunities with matching funds to be found locally. No stipends will be paid to students from Federal monies. In addition the bill establishes a youth job-training partnership for summers. Students are defined as kindergarten through college. The bill also mandates existing Federal agencies to offer greatly expanded volunteer service opportunities throughout the system. This mandate is not restricted to youth opportunities.

S1430 incorporates many features of each of the just described bills. It starts with a number of findings that help give credence to questions raised in this article. These include the concept that service to the community and the country is a responsibility of all citizens regardless of age or economic status, that service helps build self esteem and teaches teamwork, and involvement at a young age teaches citizenship responsibilities. The bill also asserts that the high costs of education and housing deter youth from volunteering, that older Americans already give considerable energies to solving community problems and this needs to be recognized, and that everyone should have an opportunity to participate in community service.

To accomplish its objectives, S1430 establishes a school-based community service program, a youth service corps, a national demonstration program, and an expansion of both Volunteers in Service to America and the National Older American Volunteer programs. All of these would be managed by a nonprofit Corporation for National Service.

The school-based community service program (Serve America) would be under the direction of the Secretary of Education with state education departments submitting program proposals. This puts the education system rather than the nonprofit sector in control of determining community needs while enabling educators to address the issue of teaching community service as a value. Funding support would be provided for curriculum development as well as program support. Participants may receive academic credit in the elementary and secondary grades. In the higher education programs, students may exchange participation for financial assistance that reduces educational debt.

Title II of S1430 establishes an American Conservation and Youth Service Corps that offers full-time productive work with visible community benefits in a natural resource or human service setting and gives a mix of work experience, life skills, education, and support services. School credit may be awarded for participation. Participants receive a minimum living allowance and health insurance.

The third major part of this bill establishes demonstration programs in public or private nonprofit organizations engaged in human services, education, environmental, or public safety needs. This program gives grants to states to run full-time or part-time programs, starting with five states in 1991 and reaching no more than 35 states by fiscal years 1994 and 1995. The demonstrations need to show ways to reach economically and educationally disadvantaged youth and may include seniors over the age of 60. Part-time youth participants are eligible for vouchers up to $3,000 per year, and full-time up to $8,500 per year. The vouchers may be used for student loan payments, tuitions, or down payment on a home. Seniors are not eligible for vouchers. Full-time participants will receive a living allowance and health insurance. Introductory training will include a component on citizenship and community service.

All of these programs will be administered by a nonprofit Corporation for National Service with a Board of Directors and a paid staff. Each state that applies to participate in the various programs encompassed in S1430 will form a state advi-

sory board for national and community service.

When reviewing the summary of the bills, it becomes clear that the main focus is on youth with an emphasis on education. They are incentive driven rather than enabling the exercise of free will or choice.

In a June 1989 *Wall Street Journal* Op-Ed there were a number of reasons put forth for opposing any sort of national service. The author, George Poche, said "at a minimum, the concept of national service defies the forces of the market. It assumes government can accurately assess the needs and desires of the public for social services and plan appropriately to meet them."[1] In the same article he challenges the entitlement mentality of this country, he questions the budgetary and political implications, and he suspects the program would create a self-perpetuating constituency in the same manner as health care, welfare, Social Security, and other government subsidy programs.

Brian O'Connell, president of Independent Sector, criticizes the proposed laws from the nonprofit sector point of view. "The nonprofit sector is about 10% the size of the government and it was never in the cards that much of that 10% could be switched around to match the areas of government reductions. If a large part of the nonprofits' 10% is diverted to cover what the government can not provide, then these organizations lose their capacity to be different from the government."[2]

Carol Steinback concurred with O'Connell indicating that "while activism has been rising, federal financing of nonprofit groups during the Reagan years has fallen by more than 22%."[3] She goes on to say that in 1981 President Reagan created a White House task force on private-sector initiatives to promote voluntarism. Critics charged that this was only a smoke screen to soften the blow of the Administration's cuts in federal social programs. Other critics have indicated that the independent sector has not been viewed as a co-equal in addressing major social problems, but as an afterthought in policy making.

The support for the proposed laws seems to come from the education community. For example, Susan Schwartz of the Education Commission of the States writes "many education leaders believe that public and community service can do more than any classroom learning to make social responsibility an integral part of a student's life."[4]

The proponents of national service call upon our sense of values to promote their cause. President Bush said "from now on in America any definition of a successful life must include serving others."[5] According to Sam Nunn, "there is a pressing need to awaken a new spirit of civic obligation and participation in America . . . Those who take from the common good should give something back."[6] And Senator Kennedy announced that "the Me Decade is over. The 1990's can be the decade when we rediscover the importance of giving something back to our country in return for all it has given us."[7]

This writer suggests that if one reviews this article's opening statistics on volunteerism and reviews the history of volunteerism, it will be seen that the growth and activism is already there. It is possible that political expediency is playing a role in the rhetoric expressed by some of the proponents of the various proposals.

A Quick History Lesson

America's commitment to voluntary cooperation to achieve mutual goals can be traced back to the Social Compact of 1620. In this document the pilgrims affirmed the necessity for a government based on the consent of the governed. They further joined in a covenant which "bound 'them strictly tied to all care of each others' good and of the whole by everyone and so mutually.'"[8] Their strict moral code implied an active concern for the behavior and welfare of the members of their community.

In the 1600s and 1700s the community service issues were survival related. Families helped relatives. Neighbor helped neighbor. Social welfare was provided by "taking in" the destitute. Schools and libraries were frequently started through donations. Lotteries financed the building of public works. The military was voluntary.

In the 1800s the questions of survival were still critical as the country moved west, but we began to see more organized structures. There were volunteer fire

departments. Justice with juries was a community affair. Labor organizations and agricultural societies formed and provided leadership for changes. Departments of Public Health were established for the promotion of individual and community health. The church continued to be a central factor in American lives.

With the Civil War came another kind of volunteer—those who aided the Underground Railroad. They were activists for a cause in which they strongly believed.

As we grew through the 1900s many community service functions were provided by the government. But volunteers pioneered in developing solutions to social problems. They provided the leadership and frequently started something that then became institutionalized within our society. Many of these institutions, such as the American Red Cross or the YMCA or YWCA, are familiar to us today. And many of these institutions have changed their focus and mission to address social needs far different from those for which they were originally begun.

Observations

At the start of this article, the definition of volunteer included "own free will." Several of the proposals for national service include "requirements." The emphasis on "require" appears to be coming from the educators.

John Battaglia of the Fort Lee (NJ) High School says "by national youth service I mean a program in which all young adults between the ages of 18 and 21 would be required by law to volunteer a prescribed number of hours within a legitimate, recognizable, and certified human service agency."[9] In fact approximately 50% of all private schools in this country require some sort of volunteer, community service for graduation.

Educators' arguments appear to be based on the need to teach the value of caring. Former Secretary of Education William Bennett describes many US public schools as "languishing for lack of moral nutrition."[10] He goes on to say that as the home is seen as a less stable and more selfish place, many people have begun to blame the schools for not taking over the traditional family task of inculcating values.

There is a belief stated by John Gunther in *Inside USA* that "ours is the only country deliberately founded on a good idea. That good idea combines a commitment to a man's inalienable rights with the Calvinist belief in an ultimate moral right and sinful man's obligation to do good. These articles of faith, embodied in the Declaration of Independence and in the Constitution, govern our lives today."

While the educators are promoting support for this belief through various forms of national service, those in the nonprofit sector are promoting the free will concept.

Bill Aramony, president of the United Way of America, talks about "collaboratives of the public and private sectors for the common good."[11] He argues that "it is often the citizen volunteers who see the problem in their own neighborhoods or experience [the problem] in their family who must raise the cry in the community. When they do so they turn to the voluntary agencies as the best advocates for solutions and for involving the support of our government." The history of volunteerism in this country documents this concept.

Volunteer leaders such as Charlotte Lunsford of the American Red Cross speak about the value of volunteerism with the emphasis still on free will or choice. She said "volunteerism combines the best and the most powerful values in our society—pride in the dignity of work, the opportunity to get involved in things that affect us, the freedom of choice and expression, the chance to put into practice an ethic of caring, and the realization that one person can make a difference."[12]

There are arguments to support the concept of volunteering from all sectors. What has been interesting to this writer in reviewing the literature for this article is the dearth of material to be found. Most of the discussion is in the popular press and it specifically relates to the proposed laws.

What was found in journals tended to be written by educators rather than volunteer administrators. This included the majority of articles that appeared in an issue of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* with a focus on student volunteering. This may be in part attributable to the propensity of

educators to write and volunteer administrators to do. As noted earlier, it may also be related to the educators' frustrations in teaching values and their consequent looking to the government for assistance.

The successful examples of youth service programs cited in articles by educators or volunteer administrators had a common thread. Success came with partnerships between voluntary agencies and the government, and those partnerships were equal. The control of the programs was at the local level, and the models evolved to meet local needs. Those programs that are federal, such as the Peace Corps and Young Volunteers in Action, appear to wax and wane over relatively short periods of time.

If we are going to legislate a national youth service corps, we need to build in "free will" and collaboration. We need to answer the philosophical questions raised earlier in this article and know why we are developing the legislation. We need to know that we are providing learning opportunities that teach the value of caring.

FOOTNOTES

1. "Stop the National Service Before It Starts," *Wall Street Journal*, June 7, 1989, p. A32.
2. "Bush's Thousand Points of Light," *Wall Street Journal*, Feb. 14, 1989, p. A16.
3. Carol Steinbach, "Those Points of Light," p. 3192.
4. Susan Schwartz, "Encouraging Youth Community Service," p. 289.
5. "Uncle Sam Wants You," *Boston Globe*, March 21, 1989, p. 75.
6. *Ibid.*
7. *Ibid.*
8. Susan Ellis, *By The People*, p. 15.
9. John Battaglia, "National Service: A Prospectus for Student Service," p. 18.
10. "Looking to Its Roots," *Time*, May 25, 1987, p. 27.
11. William Aramony, "Philanthropy, Voluntarism, and Public Policy," p. 315.
12. Charlotte Lunsford, "The Answer Is in Your Hands," p. 730.

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Book Review

National Service: A Promise to Keep
by Donald J. Eberly

Reviewed by Wm. Lynn McKinney, Ph.D.

National Service: A Promise to Keep. Donald J. Eberly. Rochester, NY: John Alden Books. 1988. 247 pages.

Donald Eberly has devoted his life to the idea of national service, beginning with an experiment in the early 1950s designed to see whether he contributed more to society while in civilian service than while in the military. To Eberly, the civilian work was clearly more useful to mankind, so by 1955 he was persuaded that national service was a good idea. *National Service: A Promise to Keep* is his autobiographical account of the thinking and experiences that have combined to fuel his efforts to establish such a program.

The book is personal. Eberly wrote it for his grandchildren and begins with a letter to them. As he had done with his 1966 *A Profile of National Service*, Eberly chose to give us his unedited views.

The chronicle is broken into chapters according to phases of Eberly's life, beginning with a chapter on his high school and college years and concluding with a chapter entitled "Reflections." As one would expect in a good history, the events of the times both shape and are shaped by individuals. His commitment to national service began after the Korean War when he accepted a teaching position in Nigeria through the International Development Placement Association. On board the ship taking him there was Senator John F. Kennedy; Eberly was able to secure some private time to meet with him. While this particular event was not life-altering (it lasted only fifteen minutes) it illustrates Eberly's ability to get the attention of people in powerful positions. While in Nigeria, two life-altering events did occur. First, he was married to Louise Genthner whom he had met while in the military; second, he found that he was able to make major contributions toward improving the quality of the lives of the people at Molusi College—clean drinking water, for example.

Shortly after his experiences in Nigeria, Eberly began writing about national service, first with a letter to *The Christian Science Monitor* that attracted considerable notice, including that of Eleanor Roosevelt, of Paul Hoffman, former head of the Marshall Plan, and of Congressman Frank T. Bow of Ohio. During and shortly after the elections of 1960, Eberly's growing reputation as a champion of national service resulted in his close association with the development of the Peace Corps.

The book includes significant pieces of Eberly's writings—letters to editors of newspapers (*The Christian Science Monitor*), articles in scholarly journals (*Teachers College Record* and *Social Policy*), and statements before Congressional committees. It also includes some writing about Eberly and his work. A 1987 column by William Raspberry illustrates two underlying themes of Eberly's thinking: useful work (primarily for young people, relating to conservation) and instilling in the souls of youth a sense of selflessness and engagement in their country.

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Eberly's working years span World War II, John F. Kennedy's Camelot, Lyndon Johnson's Great Society, the Nixon presidency, and the Reagan administration. During these forty-five years, national service has been on the national agenda. From the establishment of the Peace Corps to today's myriad of proposals in Congress for a national service, Donald Eberly's work has been evident. Anyone who is interested in volunteerism or seeks insight into recent history should read the book. It shows how the persistence of one individual can make a difference.

At points in the book the reader is reminded that it has been written for Eberly's grandchildren. There are occasional lapses into minutiae—how a dinner menu was selected, for example, and how much more light-hearted and open the Chinese people were in 1987 than they had seemed a decade earlier. Occasionally,

illuminating details aren't there. For example, shortly after Senator Hubert Humphrey introduced his Peace Corps bill on June 15, 1960, Eberly ". . . gave some talks and participated in several meetings on the subject." He doesn't tell us with whom he met or to whom he spoke. We don't always know how Eberly's thinking has developed to the point it has. But, this is, after all, a personal account, and in telling a personal story, the teller must be granted some license.

Both the personal stories and the professional experiences are interesting. Eberly's published letters and articles are well written, articulate, and convincing. The ways in which both civilians and military personnel have viewed civilian service as an alternative to military service are clearly displayed. Eberly is able to tell his own story with neither undue modesty nor bragging. The tale is an insprirational one.

GUIDELINES FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS

I. CONTENT

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

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

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

volunteerism: anything related to volunteers or volunteer programs, regardless of setting, funding base, etc. (so includes government-related volunteers)

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

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

D.   THE JOURNAL is seeking articles with a "timeless" quality. Press releases or articles simply describing a new program are not sufficient. We want to go beyond "show and tell" to deal with substantive questions such as:

—why was the program initiated in the first place? what obstacles had to be overcome?

—what advice would the author give to others attempting a similar program?

—what might the author do differently if given a second chance?

—what might need adaptation if the program were duplicated elsewhere?

Articles must be conscious demonstrations of an issue or a principle.

II. PROCEDURE

A.   The author must send three (3) copies of the manuscript to:

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

for the *October* issue: manuscripts are due on the *15th of July*.

for the *January* issue: manuscripts are due on the *15th of October*.

for the *April* issue: manuscripts are due on the *15th of January*.

for the *July* issue: manuscripts are due on the *15th of April*.

C.   With the three copies of the manuscript, authors must send the following:

1. a one-paragraph biography, highlighting the author's background in volunteerism;
2. a cover letter authorizing THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION to publish the submitted article, if found acceptable;
3. mailing address(es) and telephone number(s) for each author credited.

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

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

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

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

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

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

III. STYLE

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

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

C. Manuscripts should be submitted with a title page containing title and author and *which can be removed* for the "blind" review process. Author's name should not appear on the text pages, but the article title may be repeated (or a key word used) at the top of each text page.

D. Footnotes should appear at the end of the manuscripts, followed by references listed alphabetically (please append an accurate, complete bibliography in proper form).

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

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

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

H. Authors are encouraged to use interior headings to aid the reader in keeping up with a lengthy article. This means breaking up the text at logical intervals with introductory "titles." Refer to issues of THE JOURNAL for sample headings.

I. Illustrations (photographs, artwork) will only be used in rare instances in which the illustrations are integral to the content of the article. Generally such artwork will not be accepted.

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

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION welcomes your interest in our publication. We are ready and willing to work collaboratively with authors to produce the best possible article. Please feel free to submit outlines or first drafts to receive initial response from us. If your work is not accepted on the first try, we encourage you to rewrite your manuscript and resubmit.

Further questions may be directed either to our administrative offices in Boulder or to Anne Honer, Editor-in-Chief (401-294-2749, evenings).

Guide to Publishing a Training Design

When submitting a training design for publication in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*, please structure your material in the following way:

TITLE OR NAME OF ACTIVITY

GROUP TYPE AND SIZE: This should be variable so that as many groups as possible can use the design. Optimum group size can be emphasized or ways to adapt the design to various group sizes can be described.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES: One or more sentences specifying the objectives of the activity.

TIME REQUIRED: Approximate time frame.

MATERIALS: List all materials including props, handouts, flip charts, magic markers, and audio-visual equipment.

PHYSICAL SETTING: Room size, furniture arrangement, number of rooms, etc.

PROCESS: Describe *in detail* the progression of the activity, including sequencing of time periods. Use numbered steps or narrative, but clarify the role of the trainer at each step. Specify instructions to be given to trainees. Include a complete script of lecturettes plus details of the *processing* of the activity, evaluation, and application.

If there are handouts, include these as appendix items. Camera-ready handouts are appreciated.

VARIATIONS: If other ways of conducting the design are applicable, describe briefly.

Include a three or four line biographical statement at the end of the design and any bibliographical references showing other available resources.

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