THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

Summer 1991

IX:4

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 volunteer 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.

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

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION is published quarterly. Subscriptions are a benefit of membership in the Association for Volunteer Administration(AVA). Non-AVA members may subscribe to THE JOURNAL at a cost of $29 per year or $78 for three years. Subscribers in Canada and Mexico should add $3.00 per year to cover additional postage and handling. Subscribers outside the United States, Canada, and Mexico should add $11.00 per year for additional postage and handling costs. Checks or money orders (payable through a US bank or in $US) should be made payable to: Association for Volunteer Administration.

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ISSN 0733-6535

Philosophy of Volunteerism Statement

Gay Petkau, CVA

My statement of belief regarding volunteerism is coloured by my personal experience of growing up and living in a city where volunteering is a way of life. I live in a city whose greatness can, in part, be attributed to the enormous contributions made by the volunteer sector. Calgary, Alberta, Canada was the site of the XV Olympic Winter Games. The eyes of the world were upon us and Calgary shone with a glow that was felt around the world. And part of that glow was provided by a "grass roots" army of 9,400 volunteers who kept the games rolling as they worked overtime, reported in on their days off, asked for reassignments after they had completed their jobs, and volunteered for extra assignments. Volunteers were the life blood of the XV Olympic Winter Games, for without the dedication of those thousands of children, women and men, the Games quite simply would not have happened.

I believe herein lies the success of a society—the willingness of its citizens to give of themselves to perform or give a service of their own free wills. By putting others first, the hungry get fed, the homeless find shelter, drug abusers receive counselling, children benefit from an enriched school curriculum, abandoned animals find homes, lonely homebound receive tender loving care and recent arrivals can locate community resources. Locally, in 1986 more than 300,000 Calgarians volunteered their services (estimates from the Volunteer Centre of Calgary, based on Stats Canada and Centre statistics) and it is estimated that these volunteers provide more than $88,920,000.00 of their time to Calgary charities and volunteer organizations annually.

I believe volunteer administrators have an obligation to offer sound management which takes into consideration current trends in the field. In Canada we are facing the greying of a nation. As the Baby Boom Generation (those born between 1952–1964) enters the productive years of career building and establishment, many couples, if not rejecting the idea of becoming parents themselves, are at least postponing the arrival of the first child and in many cases are deliberately limiting the size of their families. At the same time our older generation is facing earlier or forced retirement. In my opinion, there is on one hand a group of potential volunteers looking for flexible, short term, gratifying and challenging experiences, while on the other hand there is a group which is looking for more long term, secure, altruistic experiences. Add to this the facts that more women are returning to the workforce in large numbers, there is a dramatic increase in single parent families, youth are looking for more meaning in their lives and what exists is a pot-pourri of unique individuals of all ages wanting to be empowered and challenged. It is imperative that the successful volunteer

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administrator rise to these occasions by introducing challenging positions within well-run programs.

As Volunteer Resource Consultant for the Canadian Red Cross Society, I believe I must be constantly on guard to prevent myself from forming erroneous, prejudicial impressions. Frequently, I deal with individuals on Visitors' Visas, Working Visas or Students' Visas, persons from the Fine Options or the Solicitor General's Office as well as individuals who receive a small honorarium for instruction time. Each person who enters my office brings with him or her a unique talent or gift that will enrich the Society and its services regardless of ethnic or cultural origin, lifestyle or reason for involvement.

The longer I am involved as a volunteer administrator, the more aware I become of the uniqueness, gifts and talents that are part of the human condition. While many still view volunteer work as menial and unimportant, I, for one, prefer to give volunteerism the dignity it deserves. It is, after all, a chance to pay one's dues, leave a legacy, develop potential, or simply to be remembered for some act of kindness done.

I believe volunteering should add flavour to a person's life. Many volunteers, however, get the chance to be only vanilla. They are not encouraged to try new things, accept added responsibilities, or make changes. Doing the jobs that no one else will do, the "reliable" ones often plod along accepting the mundane. I consider that volunteer abuse! Volunteers are much more than vanilla. They should be encouraged to be strawberry—colourful, tangy and bold; chocolate—exotic, mellow and confident; or, even dare to be "flavour of the month"—creative, imaginative, exciting and new!

Volunteers get involved for many different reasons and it is up to me as a volunteer administrator to encourage them to dream, enable them to try and watch them grow. As I empower the volunteers, programs strengthen, services become more efficient, and things get done. I receive tremendous satisfaction in being part of the enabling process.

In a public speaking course I teach the motto, "It's better to light one candle than to curse the darkness." I choose to give out that motto in my work by encouraging volunteers to make the Society a better place to volunteer. So, when I hear a negative remark from a volunteer, I will ask, "How would *you* change things? What would *you* do to make things better?" Many times I receive worthy suggestions, making me believe again in the power of cooperative thought and work. I believe that volunteer input must be a way of life in a nonprofit organization.

The time has come to solicit volunteers for input, expertise, experience and knowledge, without fear of losing control. Who else but a volunteer could comment intelligently on decisions directly affecting his or her role in the organization? This feedback can open up the possibility for new thoughts, new directions and new energy, keeping volunteers, staff and programs vital while enhancing service delivery.

I believe that volunteers are very powerful and can make dramatic changes in our democratic structure and in the laws of the land. Shortly, a Federal Election will be called in Canada and the machinery will be put into motion by thousands of volunteers from coast to coast who will be instrumental in carrying out the democratic process in our great nation.

I believe the word "volunteer" is an action verb. Only in doing does the real meaning of "volunteer" come through. Imagine for a moment what would happen if all that time, energy and talent were withdrawn form the Canadian scene. We would all suffer. Church doors would close without the involvement of tireless volunteers, the less fortunate of our society would be further denied the basic comfort of food and shelter, the

eduction of our future leaders would be seriously curtailed, our elderly would suffer further neglect, and our democratic and political way of life would be in jeopardy.

It is a privilege for me to work with volunteers. I truly believe in the saying "Volunteers are ordinary people making extra ordinary things happen."

Ed. Note: This article was originally written as one element of Ms. Petkau's successful application to become a Certified Volunteer Administrator (CVA).

"Just Do It!": High-Risk Teenagers Help Themselves While Helping Others

Marilyn Smith and Michael J. Havercamp

"We don't want those bad kids teaching at our school," said a group of elementary teachers. This and other derogatory statements associated with youth at risk groups are unfortunately too common. This article presents the results of a pilot study that showed that high-risk youth can be effective volunteer teachers, and through this experience they can improve their attitudes toward school.

Why should we be concerned about youth at risk issues? We are increasingly aware of the costs to society if large numbers of youth fail in school and are unable to become productive adults. Getting or keeping a job and the high crime rate among high school dropouts are two reasons to be concerned.

High school graduation rates are declining while the workplace is demanding better education. Graduation rates have declined form 76% in 1980 to 73% in 1989 (Hodgkinson, 1989). Studies show that dropouts are less likely to be employed than high school graduates and are more likely to have low paying semiskilled manual jobs. For example, in terms of employment compare the 68% of high school dropouts to the 87% of high school graduates between the ages of 16 and 24 in the work force in 1989 (Orr, 1989).

School dropouts impact our society in other ways. The relationship between education and crime is particularly interesting. States with the highest high school graduation rate have the lowest prisoner rates (Hodgkinson, 1989). Eighty-two percent of America's prisoners are high school dropouts (Hodgkinson, 1989). The average cost of incarceration per inmate was $20,000 per year nationally in 1989. The current cost of educating a child in the aforementioned pilot study was $1,800 per year.

PROGRAMS THAT WORK

Orr (1989), in a grant funded by Carnegie Corporation of New York, studied fourteen programs to keep students in school and found four core components directly related to successful high school dropout prevention programs. These components include:

1. Basic skills remediation—reading, writing, and computation.
2. Support services—referrals to service agencies for housing, welfare and medical needs.
3. World of work exposure—work experience and training.
4. Personal development—increased self-esteem and responsible behavior (*e.g.*, peer educator approaches).

Peer educator approaches are seen as effective teaching strategies to increase self-esteem and positive attitude toward school. According to Dryfoos (1990), "Students selected to act as peer mentors gain the most, probably because of the individual attention and enrichment they receive in the training and supervision."

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Most studies agree that students at risk of dropping out of school are not experiencing success in school (Alpert & Dunham, 1986). These students often get poor grades, have discipline problems, do not get along with teachers, and generally do not like school. It is argued that the earlier the at-risk child is identified, the more likely an intervention program is to succeed (Peck, 1988).

"JUST DO IT!" PROGRAM

A local coalition of agencies in northeast Nevada dealt with the school dropout issue. The program "Just Do It!" was organized using the peer educator approach to influence potential dropouts' attitude toward school and themselves.

Eight high-risk teenagers participated in this pilot study. These youth served as volunteer teachers by presenting latchkey skills lessons to third-grade students.

"Just Do It!" was adapted from an earlier study which used 4-H volunteers as peer educators (Smith, Havercamp, and Waters, 1990) and is based on other research directed at teaching high-risk youth (National Collaboration for Youth, 1989). Nevada Cooperative Extension, a federal, state, and locally-funded work program, and a county school district came together in a preventive effort to increase the number of youth completing high school. The local high school principal and elementary school principal had worked with Cooperative Extension on the first volunteer teacher program (Smith, Havercamp, and Waters, 1990) and supported working with high-risk youth. The JOIN program coordinator recognized the need to help high-risk youth and agreed to collaborate on this project.

Selecting High-Risk Volunteer Teachers

Eight freshman and sophomore high school students were chosen for "Just Do It!" Selection criteria were based on JOIN's standards for participation in its other programs:

1. S/he is a member of a family living at or below the poverty level.
2. S/he has poor attendance record (*e.g.*, frequent absences or tardiness).
3. S/he has a poor academic record (*e.g.*, failure to advance to the next grade).
4. S/he has significant deficiencies in computing, reading or writing.
5. S/he has insufficient credits for high school graduation in the senior year.
6. S/he has documented emotional or behavioral problems which may lead to suspension.
7. S/he is a teenage parent or a pregnant teenager.
8. S/he has dropped out and returned to school.

Students had to satisfy two of these criteria to be eligible for "Just Do It!" As an incentive to participate in the program, they were offered $100 by JOIN.

Program Support and Training

Volunteer teachers worked in small groups getting intensive adult and peer support. The number of total participants was kept small so that each person not only would receive individual attention but also would be able to work in teams.

A volunteer teenager and a Nevada Cooperative Extension staff member were given primary responsibility for coaching and guiding the volunteer teachers. The volunteer teenager served as a mentor and coach to high-risk participants and was given the title of "Coach" by the volunteer teachers. The Cooperative Extension Specialist, who had 15 years experience working with youth, served as program coordinator.

The "Coach" was selected for her enthusiasm, leadership abilities, and excellent communication skills. She had been one of the 4-H volunteer teachers in the

first project (see Smith, et al.) which gave her elementary classroom experience.

Training of participants was held at the JOIN office, a two block walk from the high school. This location was chosen to give the volunteer teachers a chance to get acquainted with JOIN office staff.

Weekly two-hour training and coaching sessions were provided to volunteer teachers over a seven-week period. The training program included self-esteem, self-responsiblity, decision-making, communication, peer relationships, career awareness, career goals and expectations, and lesson planning. Following a lesson planning session, the participants were given a specific lesson to practice. These practice presentations were videotaped so that changes in presentation styles, dress, or mannerisms could be made.

Teaching Curriculum

The high-risk teenagers chose the curriculum "Stayin' Alive, A Teaching Guide for Latchkey Programs" (Norris, R., Martin, S., 1987) to teach elementary students. The program provided information on staying home alone, rules for outside and indoor safety, handling hazards and emergencies, and feeling OK when alone.

While the latchkey curriculum includes some lecture, the primary emphasis consists of hands–on experiences and role playing. For example, students role play how to answer the phone or door when home alone and what to do if attacked. This curriculum is especially useful in the targeted elementary school because a large number of latchkey children attend the school.

Teaching Experience

After completing fourteen hours of training, the volunteer teachers gave presentations to 90 students in three different third-grade classes. They taught in teams of two, presenting a total of two hours of latchkey skills information to each class.

Four lesson plans were presented by the teams. Each team member taught a portion of a lesson. The amount of time individuals taught was based on their ability and enthusiasm for teaching.

Following the school presentations, the volunteer teachers presented program evaluation results to high school and elementary school principals. Several of them were invited to present these results to the local school board as well.

EVALUATION

A primary emphasis of this program was placed on initiating a change in the high-risk volunteer teachers' attitude toward school. School attitudes were measured in several ways with data taken from the Coopersmith Inventory (Coopersmith, S., 1989), self-evaluation, teacher and parent evaluations, and school grades and attendance. Teaching effectiveness data were collected using a pre– and posttest of elementary students' knowledge of latchkey safety skills and a "parent" (includes guardians) survey to see if the latchkey information would be used at home.

The Coopersmith Inventory (Coopersmith, S., 1989) was administered as a pretest to the eight volunteer teachers at the beginning of the training program, and a posttest was given six months following the teaching of elementary students. The volunteer teachers' pre– and posttest school self-esteem scores were also compared.

The Coopersmith Inventory is a standardized test of self-esteem. It consists of four sub-scales which measure for aspects of self-esteem. This study used the school scale which consists of eight statements related to school attitude. (Example: I find it very hard to talk in front of the class.) Respondents indicate whether each statement is "like me" or "unlike me."

The self-evaluation, teacher and parent evaluations were given at the end of the program. Teachers and parents were

asked ten questions about attitude and behavioral change and were requested to "best describe your observations of the student before the program began and now after completion of the program." This "post– then pre-approach" was used because, by the end of the program, observers would be more likely to see change. If a pretest was used at the beginning of the program, observers had no way to change an answer at the end of the program if they made an inaccurate assessment in their first response (Rockwell and Kohn, 1989).

Data on the participants' teaching effectiveness were collected based on a pre–test given before the latchkey skills program began and a post–test following the completion of the teaching sessions. At the completion of the latchkey teaching program, third-grade students were also asked to take home a questionnaire for their parents to complete and return to school the next day. The questionnaire asked parents and guardians if their children had discussed the latchkey program and if families would be implimenting any of the ideas from the programs at home.

Results

Seven high-risk students were able to increase their school self-esteem scores while only one student did not show an increase (Table I). This particular individual (HR #8) was having difficulty in social situations, such as not getting along with peers and fearing attending large group assemblies. Following the program, this student reported that he was able to overcome this particular fear.

A comparison of grade point averages and attendance records, before and after the program, also showed positive improvements. Especially interesting was the absentee record of HR #8 who showed a decrease in absences, from 24 days to 8 days (Table II).

TABLE I
School Self-Esteem Scores of High-Risk (HR) Volunteer Teachers

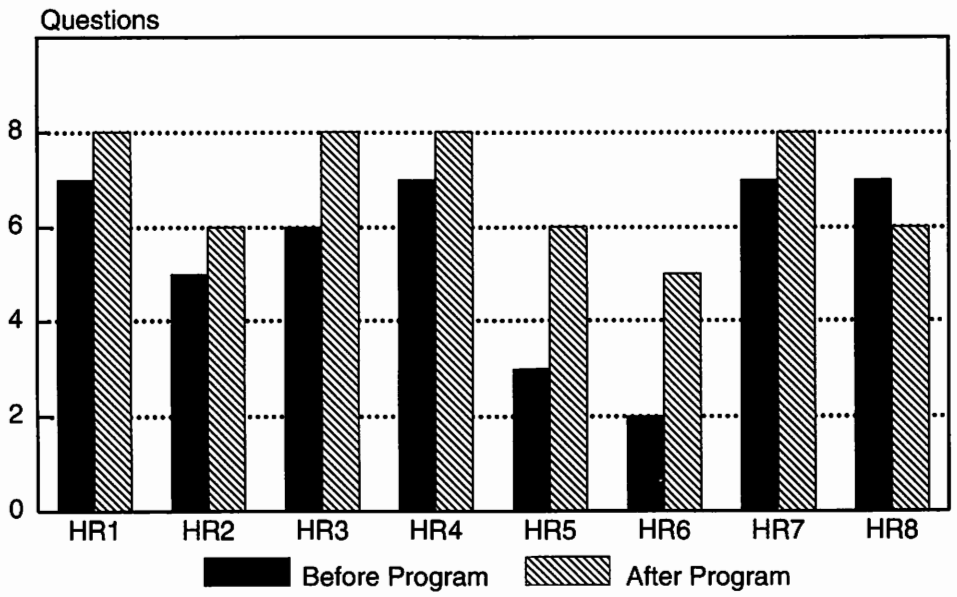


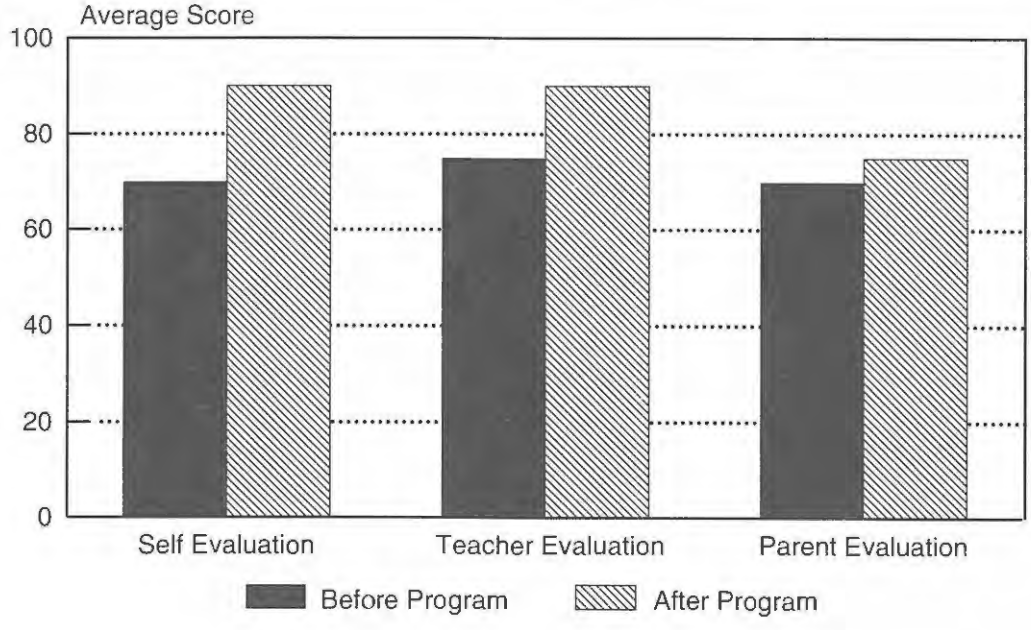
TABLE II
Comparisons of High-Risk Volunteer Teachers' Absences
Before and After Teaching

High-Risk (HR) Students	# of Absences	
	1st Semester	2nd Semester
HR #1	4	0
HR #2	1	0
HR #3	4	4
HR #4	7	2
HR #5	5	5
HR #6	11	7
HR #7	14	13
HR #8	24	8
	70 days	39 days

The academic records of the participants did not change appreciably. However, these students will continue to be observed over time to see if there are any changes in their grades.

The results of teacher and parent assessments, and self-evaluations indicate positive changes in the participants' attitude toward school as well (Table III).

TABLE III
Attitude and Behavior Changes of High-Risk Volunteers
Before and After the Program



Impact on Elementary Students

In comparing pre– and posttest survey results of elementary students' latchkey knowledge, we found that elementary students in the study showed a 45% increase in knowledge gain. Results of the parent survey also indicated that 80% plan to implement ideas from the latchkey safety program.

Special Observations

Observations by school principals and the JOIN coordinator tell a special story. "What I have seen after this marvelous program is better attendance this year versus last year, and improved self-esteem as shown in personal appearance and posturing," said a high school principal. Furthermore, "There's no question this program will result in students getting better grades and staying in school. This is a win-win situation for all concerned." He hopes this program will be offered to other elementary schools in the community.

The local JOIN coordinator, who supervised the volunteer teachers in a summer job program, said that employers were thrilled by the job performance of the high-risk youth from "Just Do It!" She indicated that the self-confidence, responsibility, and self-esteem gained in the peer teaching program made a difference with the high-risk youth. One employer said that the high-risk students were the best JOIN employees he ever had.

An elementary school principal was impressed to see the bonding between high-risk volunteer teachers and elementary students. Subsequently, she set up a high-risk student committee to discuss future program ideas. The committee is currently planning a training program for high-risk elementary students to teach younger children.

SUMMARY

The opportunity to be a volunteer "teacher" proved an effective method of motivating a group of high-risk youth. In elementary classrooms, volunteer teachers were the center of attention, often receiving the admiration and respect of younger students. This learning experience was successful in building teachers' self-esteem and self-confidence.

"Bad kids" were seen as effective teachers. This success, in part, could be due to the fact that volunteer teachers in the pilot study had been latchkey children themselves. Volunteer teachers were able to help elementary children learn important latchkey skills. Most importantly, the teaching experience helped these high-risk volunteer teachers change their own attitudes about school.

The authors believe that community-based educational organizations, such as Cooperative Extension, should help facilitate empowerment processes where youth at risk are provided volunteer teacher experiences. Dryfoos (1990) reports that effective high-risk youth programs should be connected, in some degree, to the school setting. She recommends that school-based programs do not have to be controlled by school systems and that schools should seek collaborative efforts with other agencies when developing programs for high-risk youth.

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Evaluating a Museum's Volunteer Program

Shirley M. Lundin, CVA

BACKGROUND

Early in the 1970s, an extraordinary historic property entered the Chicago–area real estate market. This cedar-shingled complex, located at Forest and Chicago Avenues in Oak Park, Illinois, was built in 1889 by a 22-year-old fledgling draftsman, Frank Lloyd Wright. Wright borrowed $5,000 from his employer, Louis Sullivan, to build a small cottage for his bride, the 18-year-old Catherine Lee Tobin. This home marked the beginning of a remarkable career destined to change the face of American architecture.

Here, between 1889 and 1909, as the architect's colorful and controversial life unfolded, he created wonderful rooms for his expanding family. In 1898, he attached a studio to his home, merging his architectural practice with his family life. Here the Prairie School of architecture was conceived and developed. And here it thrived until 1909 when Wright abruptly left both the home and studio.

In the ensuing years until 1972, the property changed hands frequently, its ample space producing both rental income and living quarters for its owners. When the building was offered for sale, it was badly in need of repair.

VOLUNTEERS TAKE LEADERSHIP

Through the efforts of determined and dedicated volunteers, funds were raised to purchase, restore and preserve the first home created by Wright for his family and his Oak Park studio. In 1974, volunteers formed the Frank Lloyd Wright Home and Studio Foundation and negotiated the property's purchase by the National Trust for Historic Preservation in a co-stewardship agreement. In 1976, the Frank Lloyd Wright Home and Studio was designated a National Historic Landmark.

STAFF ADDED

Professional staff were hired to work with volunteers to develop a restoration plan and to oversee 13 years of extensive and carefully authenticated restoration activities. Volunteers gave tours throughout the restoration process to assure a steady income and to build public awareness of Wright's impact on American architecture. The Ginkgo Tree Bookshop, which provides important financial support for the Foundation's programs, was launched and operated by volunteers. While the bookshop now employs a core staff, volunteers still are the backbone of daily operations and serve visitors on a daily basis. Today, the property is a fully restored historic house museum where over 550 volunteers offer a range of services daily to tourists and scholars alike. In addition to the public-serving volunteer components, a board of directors and 23 volunteer committees participate in long-range planning and work closely as partners with staff to direct the foundation's programs. Volunteer involvement is the most consistent strength of the entire organization.

By 1988, when the tasks associated

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with volunteer management had exceeded the time and energy constraints of both volunteers and existing staff, the first volunteer coordinator was hired.

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGES

The homey, relaxed, "let's do it" atmosphere of a small, single-minded volunteer group underwent change as more volunteers were needed to accommodate daily demands. There were more forms and record-keeping, more restrictions on use of the home and studio, fewer spontaneous "happenings." The atmosphere had shifted from one of active hands-on involvement in restoring a building to a more guarded, white-gloves approach to preserving a museum. Many changes had occurred. As goals were accomplished, new goals were developed and new volunteer responsibilities evolved. Volunteers were still essential to maintain the upbeat, enthusiastic quality of daily operations but now staff were responsible for the scheduling and supervision of volunteers.

NEED FOR PROGRAM EVALUATION

A formal evaluation of volunteer satisfaction had not been undertaken for at least three years prior to the arrival of the new volunteer coordinator. The volunteer coordinator, aware that the organization's growth had created some stress-points, was committed to establishing an ongoing evaluation process to "take volunteers' temperatures" on a regular, preferably triennial, basis.

What evolved was a nine-step process which has become the model for future evaluations.

THE EVALUATION PROCESS

Step One: Gain Acceptance for and Ownership of the Evaluation Process

One of the volunteer coordinator's first accomplishments was to recruit and activate a Volunteer Services Committee. This committee is responsible for overseeing all aspects of the volunteer program in close partnership with the volunteer coordinator. Initially, when the coordinator introduced the evaluation concept to the committee, some members were apprehensive. Shadows of an earlier attempt to "evaluate" individual volunteer performance still darkened memories. A new proposal for a volunteer program evaluation seeking to measure the *satisfaction* levels of current volunteers, rather than to *evaluate* individual volunteers, gained support. One committee member not only agreed with the concept but persuaded a market research firm to donate its services to assist with the project. With few exceptions, both committee members and staff were ready to support the project.

THE NINE-STEP EVALUATION PROCESS

STEP 1. Gain acceptance for and ownership of the process.
STEP 2. Gather information about issues and/or trouble spots.
STEP 3. Organize focus groups.
STEP 4. Formulate a general survey.
STEP 5. Distribute, collect and tabulate surveys.
STEP 6. Prepare a final report; schedule report meetings. Recognize strengths and celebrate them!
STEP 7. Identify areas needing change. Involve groups in problem-solving. Develop an action plan.
STEP 8. Implement changes.
STEP 9. Savor the results! Take a break! Then get ready to start the process again.

Figure 1
The Nine-Step Evaluation Process

Step Two: Gather Information About Issues/Trouble Spots

A meeting was scheduled with staff, who supervised volunteers, and volunteer leadership, whose close daily contact with volunteers helped to identify any concerns and friction points. Among the trouble spots named for further examination by volunteers in focus groups were:

- level of discomfort with organizational changes;
- methods of selection for key leadership positions and special assignments;
- timeliness of updates about pertinent information;
- degree of satisfaction with supervision and recognition.

Group members also wanted feedback about their own effectiveness as supervisors and leaders, and an overall reading of the volunteers' satisfaction with the organization.

The volunteer coordinator convened a meeting to share the "laundry list" of concerns with the market research consultant who transformed the concerns into a sequenced set of focus group discussion questions. The committee was now ready to poll volunteers.

Step Three: Organize Focus Groups

It was important to select a well-rounded cross-section of volunteers to participate in the focus groups. Among criteria were:

- length and time of service: how many years? week-end or weekday? four hours or four days a month?
- volunteer role: public serving? behind-the-scenes? board or committee member?
- demographics such as age, sex, and place of residence; job status.

With a selected list of about 30 people representing all volunteer areas, the committee easily recruited two focus groups of 10–12 members each.

A central off-site location was arranged for the meetings. Notes were sent to each focus group member confirming date, time and place. Aided by an assistant who recorded all comments, the consultant facilitated both groups, then compiled the responses into a written report. The consultant met with the *ad hoc* committee one more time to discuss the findings from the focus groups.

Step Four: Formulate a General Survey

With the focus groups' verification of the original "laundry list," and the addition of a few new questions, the consultant developed a four–page survey for mailing to all 550 volunteers.

The survey began with a few "warm-up" questions such as a checklist of reasons for volunteering and a rating of overall satisfaction with the program. Volunteers then were asked to rate 24 straight-forward statements such as, "I am given enough updates...(to do my job)." Three ratings were used: either "agree," "neutral," "disagree," or "satisfied," "neutral," "dissatisfied."

A checklist on the last page allowed respondents to identify their volunteer assignments and mark the one in which the most time was spent. The last page also requested demographics such as place of residence and length of service both in years and in hours volunteered each month.

Step Five: Distribute, Collect and Tabulate Surveys

Every volunteer was mailed a survey and given a return deadline. Almost 50% of the surveys were returned, far exceeding normal response rates. The survey's format was developed for easy input into a database program created by a computer-literate volunteer. The program could also generate computer reports for comparison and analysis. Another volunteer skilled in data input helped the volunteer coordinator log individual survey responses into the database. The program allowed every survey question to be compared in an unlimited number of ways for each volunteer position. Staff and volunteer leadership were able to request reports compiled from only their own volunteers. Reports for the whole volunteer corps as well as smaller segments were also calculated.

An open-ended question, "What could

the Foundation to do to make volunteering a better experience for you?" offered an opportunity for unsolicited comments and generated many additional handwritten comments. Each was transferred to a 3"x 5" note card, then sorted into general categories such as:

- Leadership;
- Scheduling;
- Recognition;
- Effect of Change;
- Continuing Education;
- Communication;
- Training;
- Social.

The comments were then typed into a verbatim report, giving a valuable compilation of viewpoints.

Step Six: Prepare Final Report; Schedule Report Meetings

Several types of reports emerged from the summarized database ratings and the verbatim comments. Staff and volunteer leaders could request data comparisons from only their own volunteers as well as the figures compiled from all respondents. The board of directors, staff and committees received preliminary written reports as well as verbal ones at their meetings.

Respondents were effusive in their many complimentary comments and warm appreciation for the Foundation's programs and personnel. These comments were shared as were comments of a more critical nature. Selected results were reported through the *Volunteer Newsletter* as a way to disseminate information and to generate interest in a full report meeting.

Step Seven: Identify Areas Needing Change; Involve Groups in Problem Solving; Develop an Action Plan

Finally, a special report meeting was scheduled for all volunteers, as the culmination of almost a full year of planning, preparation and analysis. The agenda included a report given by members of the Volunteer Services Committee, time for small group discussions and for the full group to reconvene and share mutual concerns.

Discussion helped promote better understanding of mutual concerns by encouraging direct dialogue. For example, volunteers who felt overlooked when appointments to key leadership positions were made, expressed their concerns. On the other hand, those charged with filling key positions wanted better information about willing volunteers. All agreed that a better system for posting and filling key positions was needed. The Volunteer Services Committee accepted the assignment of developing such a system.

Step Eight: Implement Changes

Simple-to-make adjustments happened immediately: more informational updates and new volunteer job openings were published in the Volunteer Newsletter; soft drinks were made available. More extensive organizational change such as review of committee structure and leadership selection procedures were delegated to appropriate committees.

Step Nine: Savor Results! Take a Break! Get Ready to Start Again!

The workable and replicable Nine-Step Evaluation Process documented here is a product of the successful completion of this volunteer program survey.

The Volunteer Services Committee of the Frank Lloyd Wright Home and Studio Foundation hopes that others may benefit from the process developed with guidance from a professional in market research and the creative efforts of our own staff and volunteers. This process enabled us to seek direction for program improvement from our own most valuable resource—our volunteers.

The Right Combination: Volunteers as Health Advocates for Homebound Elders

Mary Killeen, R.N., Ph.D.

Today, chronic illnesses represent the primary health problems affecting older adults. In fact, 80% of older adults have at least one chronic illness and frequently multiple chronic illnesses are diagnosed for an individual (Lubkin, 1990). These conditions are long-lasting, and their progress generally causes irreversible pathology. However, "the actual presence of disease is often not as important to the individual as the impact the condition has on their ability to carry out usual activities" (Kart, Metress and Metress, 1990, p. 3). Nearly half of those with chronic illnesses are unable to perform some activities of daily living, with the limitations ranging from inability to button to inability to bathe. Combined with the normal aging processes, maintenance of self-care can be formidable. Limitations on functioning imposed by chronic illnesses can compromise individuals' independence, and their perceptions of wellness. These changes contribute to a powerlessness that Miller and Ortel (1983) view as a developmental vulnerability. This vulnerability to powerlessness may be accentuated by encounters with a medical system which often focuses on illness and the accompanying limitations, what a person *can not* do, rather than a self-care perspective which focuses on what a person *can* do.

Even in the presence of chronic conditions, older individuals can be assisted in maintaining function and control by directing efforts toward preserving self-care and self-esteem. "Maximizing control of the environment is critical to keeping people involved and avoiding helplessness and the 'giving-up syndrome'" (Davidson, 1991, p.2). Because the changes that occur with chronic diseases are irreversible, adaptation is necessary if function is to be preserved. Adaptation through use of assistive devices that aid and complement existing function and promote independence permit individuals to maintain functioning in the presence of chronic illness. Use of such devices requires knowledge of what is available. Yet lack of knowledge about resources and their availability has been identified as the greatest problem for community-dwelling elders and their family caregivers (Killeen, 1990). Many older adults are not aware of available assistive devices and resources that could enhance function and support independence; this lack of knowledge then contributes to a decline in self-care and independence.

At the same time there are other older adults who have retired and have sustained changes in social and occupational roles but have remained mobile and independent. In a society that values productivity, older adults may experience a decline in status if they are unable to maintain useful functional roles. One of the most common roles initiated or expanded following retirement is that of

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volunteer, which can "provide role continuity, satisfaction, enhancement of the self-concept, and social support systems" (Payne, 1977, p. 355). Many older adult volunteers derive "critical benefits, increased sense of current meaningfulness and value in one's life, an increased sense of competence and self-esteem, and establishment of satisfying social bonds, from helping others" (Midlarsky and Kahana, 1983).

Two patterns of helping, giving and assistance, have been identified. *Giving* refers to the bestowal of spontaneous gifts or loans of one's own possessions to another. In contrast, *assistance* refers to giving aid so another individual can reach a goal. The extent to which an individual can contribute to the well-being of another is a primary contributor to ones self-worth and prestige. Additional benefits derived from helping include:

1. addition of structure and purpose to the day;
2. creation of a context in which to develop and maintain friendships;
3. compensation for decreases in family and work responsibilities;
4. provision of emotional ties and social gratification (Midlarsky and Kahana, 1983).

OLDER VOLUNTEERS AS HEALTH ADVOCATES

Combining the benefits of volunteering with the needs of frail homebound elders was the intent of a community-based pilot program. Titled "Project Health and Hope," a program linking volunteers with homebound elders to provide information on assistive and safety devices was initiated. Under the direction of Beatitudes Center for Developing Older Adult Resources (Center DOAR) a program was developed to:

1. prepare volunteers to serve as information-linkers and health advocates to homebound elders;
2. conduct surveys to assess awareness and interest in assistive devices and safety measures in the home;
3. distribute information according to expressed interest.

Center DOAR is an organization of nearly 100 congregations which began in response to needs of frail elders and their desire to remain at home as long as possible. Through support services, the Center strives to enrich the quality of life for older adults and their families, and to enable them to remain as independent as possible in their homes. One of the primary thrusts of Center DOAR is the Volunteer Interfaith Caregivers Program (VICaP), which recruits, trains, assigns and monitors volunteers who offer informal support to those who are homebound. These volunteers became increasingly concerned that the homebound elders, whom they visit regularly, could do more or be safer in their homes if they knew about assistive devices that could make daily activities more manageable or their environment safer.

FROM CONCERN TO ACTION

A survey was developed through a collaborative effort by a group of gerontological nurses and older adult volunteers (social worker, librarian, teacher, businessman). The survey format was to facilitate systematic recordings of the elder's current use of assistive and safety devices and requests for information. The survey began with an introductory page that stated the nature of the project, what was being requested of the elders, and their rights as participants. Areas addressed included vision, hearing, mobility, use of phone, shopping and food preparation, housekeeping, bathroom safety, and medications. Exercise, typical activities of a day, sleep routine, frequency of contact with others, last physician and dentist visit, and current medical problems were included to assess general mobility, and isolation. The survey underwent several revisions to con-

dense information, clarify wording, and streamline recording.

Twenty–five volunteers were recruited from the Friendly Visitor Service provided through VICaP, which assigns volunteers to homebound elders. Orientation for volunteers was scheduled and included an explanation of the survey, familiarization with assistive devices, discussion and questions. Physiological and psychosocial aging changes were integrated to elucidate the complementary nature of assistive devices in promoting function and self-care. Basic principles of interviewing and listening were reviewed with the volunteers and they were also counseled to be attentive to fatigue in the elder. Establishing a comfortable pace for both the volunteer and the elder was emphasized with the option of completing the survey at a single visit or spacing it over several visits. Volunteer interest was great; their eagerness to learn was evidenced in their questions, requests for elaboration and willingness to share relevant aspects of their volunteer experience. Following orientation the survey was modified to incorporate the pertinent suggestions offered by these volunteers. Concurrently, an "Information Library" was established. Available literature was collected that related to all surveyed areas. In addition, pamphlets on self-care, health promotion, general nutrition for older adults, and home safety materials were gathered.

Two surveys were mailed to each volunteer: one was to be given to the elder, the other was to be completed and returned. Volunteers were encouraged to administer the survey in the manner most appropriate for their elders. The volunteer could either read the survey, the elder could read, or they could sit side-by-side reading and completing it together. All volunteers had been visiting their elders prior to the initiation of this project and had established rapport and trust with the elder. To facilitate the return of surveys, a stamped, return envelope was provided to each volunteer. Completed surveys were returned to the Information Library at Center DOAR where requests were matched with materials. Information packets were then sent back to the volunteer who would take the materials to the homebound elder on the next visit. At this time volunteers reviewed each piece of requested information with their elder.

PROFILE OF ELDERS VISITED

Homebound elders surveyed ranged in age from 65 to 90 years, with an average age of 78. All elders lived in the community. Eighty-three percent were female. The most frequently reported health problems related to vision and arthritis (see Table I). Cardiovascular problems were next in frequency with four of the eleven identifying the use of pacemakers. The most common endocrine problem was diabetes. Although four elders reported incontinence problems, this category is likely to be underrepresented because of the embarrassing nature of the problem. Problems in the "Other" category included anemia, shingles, sinus, and obesity. Seventy-six percent of the elders reported visiting a physician within the last three months, 16% within the last six months and only one individual reporting the last visit being more than five years ago. In contrast, dental visits were less frequent with 20% reporting a visit within the past three months, 28% within the past six to twelve months and 52% reporting their last visit being 2 - 35 years ago.

A typical day for the homebound elders focused around meals, small housekeeping chores and television. When asked what activities they enjoyed, viewing television was the most frequently cited. Other activities, in order of frequency, included reading (including talking books), listening to music, games (puzzles, cards, bingo), church activities, arts and crafts and "going out" (ride, visit, shop, eat). Elders were asked the number of individuals they encountered each week. This was intended to serve as

TABLE I
Health Problems Reported by Homebound Elders

Category	Frequency*
Vision	16
Arthritis	16
Cardiovascular	11
Endocrine	6
Incontinence	4
Dental	4
Respiratory	3
Hearing	3
Cancer	3
Other	6

*Frequency column totals exceed number of participants due to individuals reporting multiple health problems.

an indicator of isolation. Responses ranged from one to 100. One elder stated that although he saw about 30 people per week, this consisted of the same four people every day. When elders were asked if they would like information on social activities available in the community, the majority (67%) said "no."

Forty-four percent of the elders stated that they did not engage in any exercise other than the usual activity around their living quarters. Walking was the most frequently cited form of exercise (28%), with the frequency ranging from "some" to four times per day. The most common pattern was daily. Other forms of exercise included wheelchair exercises (20%), and water exercise and massage (8%). The amount of sleep reported ranged from "piecemeal" to 10 hours of sleep per night, with the average being 6.3 hours. Seventy-six percent reported taking at least one nap during the day with the duration ranging from "catnap" to 3 hours.

REQUESTS FOR INFORMATION

All requests for information were accompanied by brochures on self-care, health promotion, medication safety, and general home safety. A Sears Home Health Catalog was also inserted in each packet. The most requested information was in the category of safety (see Table II) and related to security, medications and mobility. Security items requested most frequently were emergency numbers, door locks and lighting. Approximately half of the participants reported an absence of window and door locks. Although 35% of the participants did not have smoke alarms and 57% did not have fire extinguishers, requests for these items were minimal.

A second aspect of safety dealt with medication administration. An unexpected finding was the low use of medication organizers and timers. Adults aged 65 or older comprise 12% of the population, but account for 31% of all prescription drug use. Nonadherence with medication regimes is frequently cited as one of the primary medical management problem within this age group (Ebersole and Hess, 1990). Ninety percent of older adults who reported not using either medication organizers or timers requested information on memory aids for medication routines.

The third safety area related to re-

TABLE II
Requests for Information

Category	Frequency n (%)	Items Most Requested
Safety	21 (91)	Emergency Numbers, Locks
Vision	15 (65)	Large print & Talking Books
Mobility	15 (65)	Grab Bars
Bathroom	13 (57)	Nonskid surface, Grab Bars
Shopping & Food Preparation	13 (57)	Preprinted List
Housekeeping	12 (52)	Reach Extenders
Telephone	10 (44)	Amplification
Medications	9 (39)	Organizers, Reminders
Hearing	8 (35)	Amplified Phone

quests for information on mobility devices. Requests ranged from canes to hospital beds, with the most frequently requested item being grab bars to assist in sitting and standing. Similarly, in the bathroom category 62% of the requests were for nonskid surfaces and grab bars.

Sensory decrements are common as individuals grow older. The second most requested category was for information related to vision. Requests ranged from magnifying glasses to state services available for the visually impaired, with the primary request being information on large print or talking books. In relation to hearing, information on amplification for phones was the most frequently requested.

RESPONSES TO THE PROJECT

A follow-up meeting was held for the volunteers to solicit feedback about their experiences. Responses from volunteers were overwhelmingly positive. Having learned more about the uniqueness of their elders, volunteers reported that their interactions were more meaningful and they felt better able to offer useful assistance. Elder fatigue was not a problem as volunteers had expected. Rather, elders voiced enthusiasm and enjoyment from having someone take such an interest in them and their needs. Many positive comments were offered by the elders. One elder spoke of "the joy of a Sear's Catalog," another wrote "I especially like the guide to community resources." Several indicated that the project had been "well worth it," and being "grateful" for information provided. They indicated that they had learned about community resources, and discovered "little things" that could make their every day life easier. Family members also found the survey information useful and used it as a guide for items to purchase for their elders' birthdays or other celebrations.

Volunteers unanimously recommended expansion of the project to greater numbers of homebound elders. They also recommended that an annual survey update be conducted with their elders, recognizing that functional status and safety needs vary over time.

SUCCESSES AND FRUSTRATIONS

The major successes of the project included construction of a survey that both volunteers and elders were comfortable completing, heightened awareness of resources, and increased understanding of the aging process. The involvement of volunteers in survey design and refinement also allowed them to experience a sense of contribution and ownership of

the survey. In addition, both elders and volunteers learned about normal aging processes and ways that can maintain and enhance function. Separating out the aging changes from unusual changes made them more cognizant of disruptions in health. Awareness of community resources and assistive devices helped elders and volunteers see that it is not necessary to just tolerate changes and diminished function; instead, there are ways to adapt to those changes while preserving and promoting function. In addition, volunteers commented that knowledge of normal aging, community resources and assistive devices reduced their own anxieties about growing older.

Psychosocial benefits were also experienced by both homebound elders and volunteers. The elders delighted in having extra visits with the focus of conversation on their health and safety needs. Since contact with other human beings aids in sustaining a sense of self-worth (de la Cruz, 1986), visits conveyed a sense of elders' importance to others and validated that someone cares. Volunteers voiced an "I made a difference!" attitude. Heightened self-esteem was reflected in comments such as "I could really help my neighbor after learning about her health," "I feel like I can be more helpful knowing more about my neighbor," and "I was able to share some of the information with her daughter and she bought one of the devices to help her mother." By assigning a purpose to visit, the communication moved beyond social to being more therapeutic in nature.

Two major frustrations were expressed by both the elders and volunteers related to transportation and cost. Elders perceived a lack of adequate and available transportation, or dissatisfaction with existing community-based transportation. They cited buses that ran infrequently or irregularly, difficulty managing mobility-assistive devices (walkers, push carts, wheelchairs) on public transportation, and waiting time for transportation to arrive. They reported that waiting time, added to time enroute and time at the planned activity, added up to being too lengthy and exhausting, with too little of the total time being available at the planned activity.

The frustration with transportation may have also influenced elders' responses to requests for information on community activities. Because these elders were home bound, it had been expected that they would be experiencing some degree of isolation. Clearly, they enjoyed and anticipated the visits of their volunteers, yet in response to questions about whether they were interested in information on social and community activities, the majority said "no." Two factors may account for this response. First, energy levels diminish in older adults, and endurance declines with age. Elders may have spurned additional information on activities because of their experienced fatigue within their usual day as well as fatigue associated with extracurricular activities. Second, one of the major frustrations expressed was inadequacy of transportation. Although social activities may be desirable, the frustration of scheduling transportation or the anticipated extra energy expenditure in managing devices that aid mobility may have dampened the desire.

The issue of cost was the second frustration. Commercially available assistive devices can be costly, and the poverty of many elders made it unlikely that they would be able to afford any assistive devices. Even small, inexpensive devices were too costly for many of the elders. Volunteers felt frustrated with increasing elder awareness of available assistive devices while the majority had little discretionary money for such purchases.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Survey Design

The majority of volunteers recommended the elimination of the portion of the survey that determined whether the

elder had access to a particular device and frequency of use. The intent of this section was to remind elders of the device's assistive value, and possibly prompt greater use. Volunteers found that reviewing the types of assistive devices and determining whether the elder wished information also served as a reminder. Through this process volunteers learned which assistive devices elders had available and could direct future conversations toward encouraging their use.

The survey sections that addressed the elder's exercise and activity habits were viewed as worthwhile for helping the volunteer to know better the person they visited. Knowing exercise preferences and activities provided focus for conversations and permitted volunteers to incorporate some of these activities into their routine visits. Some volunteers organized visits around board games, sewing or viewing photo albums, while others would join the elders in watching a favorite TV program which they could then discuss later.

Information obtained from surveying elder's typical days and patterns of sleeping and napping were of questionable worth. The intent was to gain a sense of the balance between rest and activity. Questions used did not adequately provide this type of information. The more important information is the degree of isolation that might be present. Rephrasing the question "How many people do you see in a day, month, year?" to one that would address the variety of people in elders' lives and the nature of these interactions would likely be a more valid indicator of isolation. Questions that asked about the last doctor and dentist visit were not utilized in a systematic manner. Unless a specific use is identified, the need to obtain this information is questionable. Recommended frequency for these preventive visits was included in materials related to health maintenance and promotion that were provided to each participant.

Evaluation

A second recommendation was to incorporate a systematic evaluation from the elder's perspective on the advantages and disadvantages of the information survey. Although elders spoke positively of the project's survey, the method of administration, and informational materials received, there was no systematic recording of comments. It was also recommended that, with permission, there be a planned sharing of information with the elder's friends and relatives. Individuals are often willing to help if types of help can be specified. Providing them with specific items that would assist their elders to maintain function and self-care would channel a broad desire to help into a specific action of helping.

Project Expansion

Volunteers considered the health survey valuable enough that they unanimously recommended that it be integrated into the general volunteer training program. This would change the status of the project from "special" to a core part of the volunteer-elder visiting experience. Conducting the survey annually would permit review of the elder's existing condition and related informational needs. Another recommendation was for the expansion of the Information Library. Because there were many elders who could not afford an assistive device, it was recommended that the library be expanded to include a directory of service organizations which select an annual community project for their public service focus. These organizations could be approached with project ideas that would address the assistive or safety device needs of the elders, linking those who possess resources with those who are in need.

A third area of expansion related to greater utilization of volunteer expertise. Project volunteers and staff suggested that some assistive devices could be constructed by volunteers, making them less expensive than those commercially available. A proposal for such a project was

funded* and successfully implemented. Now retired craftsmen are designing and creating assistive devices from materials donated by community businesses for elders in need.

CONCLUSIONS

Project Health and Hope was successful, in part, because of the recognition that there is variation in growing older and that needs and abilities of individuals can complement one another. To enhance care for the elderly, we must be accurate in identifying those individuals with definite needs and astute in recognizing others who possess many skills and are eager to share their areas of expertise. We can act as catalysts, bringing the two together and, through guided interactions and interventions, can generate benefits for both. We can achieve two of the primary objectives of volunteerism (Sharon, 1991): humanizing services that have become increasingly impersonal, and providing constructive outlets and courses of action for individuals with leisure time. By helping others help others, we multiply the benefits to all.

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*This project was supported by funds from Medtronics Foundation of Minneapolis, MN.

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ABSTRACT

Volunteering in a major zoo offers a unique and varied work experience which is quite different from that offered by other nonprofit institutions, and necessitates a highly refined and coordinated team approach. Applying management principles in developing jobs as varied as exhibit interpretation, the botanical simulation of natural habitats, and customer service has allowed the Volunteer Resources Department to satisfy short term needs while laying the framework for consistent long-term leadership and growth. The principles of creating a meaningful zoo experience while sustaining a mutually beneficial relationship between paid and unpaid staff are vital to an effective operation and equally applicable to the volunteer programs of other institutions.

Volunteerism in a Unique Setting: Donating Your Time at the Zoo

Mary Beth McKay and Donald W. Jackson

INTRODUCTION

Working at nearly any major zoo can be an exceptional experience whether one is a paid staff member or a volunteer. Zoos are unique facilities and the opportunity for individuals to donate their time in such an ever-changing environment will be remembered for the rest of their lives. Running an efficient and cost-effective volunteer department is a challenging experience indeed. The fundamental concepts which relate to developing and maintaining such a program are, in most ways, similar to other nonprofit organizations. Many facets of the operation, from the handling of animals and their interpretation for the public to facilitating the volunteer–assisted animal feeding program in the Zoo's diet kitchen, do necessitate a much more highly refined and coordinated team approach.

THE ROLE OF VOLUNTEERS AT ZOO ATLANTA

It is obviously much more conducive to the long-term health of any volunteer program to retain trained and committed volunteers, rather than to continually depend on frequently scheduled recruitment sessions to fulfill an organization's unpaid staffing needs. One of the most significant responsibilities of the Friends of Zoo Atlanta's (FOZA) Volunteer Resources Department involves the ability to forecast how the current volunteer needs will change throughout the short and long term.

Mary Beth McKay is Director of Volunteer Resources for Friends of Zoo Atlanta (FOZA) and as the volunteer program manager works with both organizations. She coordinates with the Chairman of the Volunteer Resources Committee and the Executive Director of FOZA in setting program goals, priorities, and facilitating daily operations with 14 departmental staff managers. Ms. McKay serves on the Executive Committee for the 1991 International Conference on Volunteer Administration, and is a member of AVA, COVA, and GAVA. She has worked with volunteers for the past ten years. *Donald W. Jackson* is Curator of Horticulture at Zoo Atlanta and has been actively involved with the Friends of Zoo Atlanta volunteer program for the past four years. He serves as a member of the Volunteer Resources Committee. As the staff manager of the Habitat (horticulture) volunteer service area he also participates on the Volunteer Council, a representative group which promotes professional management within the zoo. Mr. Jackson has published volunteer management papers in horticultural journals as well as in the proceedings of professional zoo conferences.

This has been especially critical at Zoo Atlanta in that a total of approximately $27 million has been spent on exhibitry since its new master plan was initiated in 1985. This phenomenal growth has made developing and maintaining a comprehensive program with a team approach that much more important to providing a quality volunteer experience.

To illustrate the Zoo's impressive growth, attendance has jumped from 595,000 to 743,000 in the 3 years between 1987 and 1990. The Zoo's membership drive has been equally impressive with an increase from 3,000 to an astounding 45,836 from 1985 to 1990. Not surprisingly, the number of active volunteers who donated their services for the Zoo had expanded to over 500 by 1988 with total hours of 31,320. The 1990 figures are even more impressive with 678 volunteers donating 43,319 hours. At a conservative pay rate of just $12.00 per hour, this is equivalent to $519,828 in donated services and 21 staff positions. Zoo Atlanta's permanent paid staff has increased as well in the five years between 1985 and 1990, from 37 to 107 (with the addition of 75-100 seasonal staff during peak season). During this same time period, FOZA's staff has risen from 6 to 18, a growth of 300% in only 5 years.

Although such swift growth in human and financial resources, as well as program activity, is certainly a very welcomed and desirable opportunity for any institution, it does tax the ability of its support organization to keep pace with the many critical needs that are sure to rise. Without question, the willingness to strategically plan and manage paid and volunteer resources to support immediate and long-range goals is a sound investment in the future of any organization. This is especially true, however, when growth has taken place in an environment which is as fast-paced and ever changing as that at Zoo Atlanta. Difficult as it may be, it is imperative to maintain a high quality and meaningful experience for volunteers in the face of such rapid growth. The priority is to keep departments planning for the future while responding to immediate needs.

CURRENT VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS

At present, FOZA recruits, trains, and staffs fourteen volunteer service areas for the zoo. These include Administrative Services, the Beastly Feast Committee (black-tie fundraiser), Diet Kitchen, Docents, Habitat (horticulture), Junior League, OK-To-Touch Corral, Research, Speakers Bureau, Summer Safari Day Camp, the Z' Team (special events), the Visitor Information Program (VIP), The Zoo Atlanta Annual Fund, and FOZA's Board of Directors. Of the fourteen available program areas, four are particularly innovative and creative in harnessing and directing the abilities of FOZA's volunteers.

DOCENT (EDUCATION) VOLUNTEERS

The docent program is involved with interpreting the zoo's animal collection for the enjoyment of the visiting public as well as promoting a higher awareness of conservation ethics for patrons of all ages. Docent training sessions are held bi-annually and consist of a total of 36 classroom hours, with an additional 12 hours of on-the-job training. For a minimum commitment of 6.5 hours per month, the volunteer receives a wide array of benefits from learning animal behavior to the concepts involved in the design and construction of our newest, state-of-the-art exhibits. The extensive training which each docent receives enables him or her to confidently answer a wide array of visitor questions regarding the zoo's diverse animal collection. This same high level of training and experience also allows individuals who have matured within the organization to step into volunteer leadership roles and assist in the nurturing of less–tenured docents.

Rather than lead tours to educate and entertain the visiting public, stations are positioned around the zoo, complete

with animal artifacts and information on endangered species. The stations are interactive and promote a great deal of touching and handling of the materials on display. This is particularly valuable in holding the interest of the zoo's younger visitors. Giving the public the flexibility to move between the zoo's various docent stations has provided visitors with a more positive educational experience, and at the same time has expanded the range of innovative staffing opportunities for volunteers.

HABITAT (HORTICULTURE) VOLUNTEERS

The ability to simulate natural habitats and therefore promote an understanding of the relationship between animals and their native environments is certainly one of the main responsiblities of Zoo Atlanta's horticulture department. Few horticulture departments in zoos have actively cultivated and maintained volunteers as a viable and productive resource. The horticulture (Habitat) volunteers work from 9:00 a.m. to approximately noon on the second Saturday of each month on a variety of projects scheduled by the zoo's Curator of Horticulture. Between 30-40 Habitat volunteers routinely attend each month's workday, out of a total of approximately 90 who participate in the program. This volunteer service area requires three hours of on-the-job training and a time commitment of three to four hours per month.

A number of important concepts have helped make the Habitat volunteer service area popular and productive. These include:

1. A telephone calling system has been established to keep each Habitat volunteer appraised of the nature and complexity of jobs which have been scheduled for the upcoming workday. This allows the volunteers to dress properly for the next Saturday's event.

2. An ample supply of pastries and either hot or cold refreshments (depending on the season of the year) is made available to the volunteers at the beginning of each Saturday's meeting, and is continually replenished as the workday progresses.

3. The Curator of Horticulture requires that all full and part-time employees report on the second Saturday of each month and work in close association with the Habitat volunteers. This has been exceedingly valuable in reinforcing to volunteers the importance with which the staff views the Habitat program. At each workday, tasks are assigned to work groups composed of horticulture staff and volunteers. This has been exceedingly advantageous in promoting a cohesive team between paid and unpaid staff.

4. Each Habitat workday produces in three to four hours the equivalent of nearly a full week's worth of paid staff labor. This high level of productivity can be attributed to the significant size of the Habitat program, the training, as well as to the effective planning and coordination of work projects. All of the equipment and materials needed to complete any scheduled landscape planting are set in place late Friday afternoon to prepare for the Saturday morning activities.

   This high level of coordination has allowed major projects such as planting well over 100,000 of the 225,000 spring (tulips, daffodils, etc.) and summer flowering bulbs which have been installed over the last three years at Zoo Atlanta, accomplished with volunteer labor. In one day alone, 16,000 daffodils were planted in a combined effort of employee volunteers from a local Atlanta-based department store, and FOZA's Habitat volunteers.

5. It is critical that any volunteer, no matter what his or her interests, is given tasks that have both meaning and substance. Habitat volunteers have completed a wide array of horticulturally-oriented projects from the planting of thousands of flowering bulbs of all types, to major landscaping in the zoo's two newest naturalistic animal exhibits, each of which cost over $1,000,000 to design and construct. Involving volunteers resulted in a savings to the Zoo of over $100,000 in associated landscape expenses.

Jobs which have "long-term" significance and/or visibility are preferable to those whose value can only be measured in hours, days, or weeks. For example, daffodil bulbs will bloom each spring for many years after planting. By the same token, the installation of trees and shrubs in and around an animal exhibit also gives a horticulture volunteer long-term satisfaction. In essence, the Habitat volunteer is guaranteed the opportunity of coming back year after year with his or her children, or even in some cases grandchildren, to admire a particular job well done.

By contrast, a project such a raking leaves would not be as desirable, due primarily to its short-term intrinsic value. Within a few weeks there would be no lasting evidence of all the hard work that went into such an endeavor.

DIET KITCHEN

The animal diet kitchen trains volunteers to prepare meals for the animals and deliver these prepared diets to exhibit areas. Twelve hours of on-the-job training along with a minimum time commitment of four hours per month are required. Working with a trained dietician and delivering food preparations to animal habitats are definite benefits of Diet Kitchen volunteers. By matching the schedules, skills, and interests of unpaid staff to the commissary work routines, the dietician has been able to greatly increase the efficiency of her entire operation. She has developed a procedure for scheduling the commissary's many job responsiblities to take advantage of the highly motivated and trained volunteers. For example, she now prepares the week's ape (dry feed) diets only on Saturdays, the day when the largest number of volunteers is scheduled.

Having noticed the energy and enthusiasm of teenagers at the zoo, the dietician has now developed a set of guidelines for Jr. Zoo Crew volunteers to work in the commissary with paid and unpaid staff. Their benefits include gaining a knowledge of both animals and nutrition, working in a structured environment and job experience. For these efforts, the staff dietician gains a higher level of volunteer productivity along with the satisfaction of developing a positive and creative educational experience for today's youth.

VISITOR INFORMATION PROGRAM

The Visitor Information Program (VIP) volunteers approach and greet patrons entering and leaving the zoo, track visitor feedback, and answer general information questions. A total of eight hours of classroom time and 12 hours of on-the-job training are required, along with a minimum commitment of four hours per month. This program has allowed the zoo to upgrade the quality of its customer service, in addition to providing a mechanism for informal visitor feedback. Visitor feedback and VIP suggestions are recorded on a daily basis and consolidated into a weekly report for the senior managers of the zoo and Friends of Zoo Atlanta. Each year, the suggestions and comments along with their resulting improvements are summarized. These changes are reported to the volunteers as positive feedback and to reinforce to them the program's value and effectiveness.

The Visitor Information Program is a cooperative project between the zoo's

Operations Department and FOZA's Department of Volunteer Resources. The program was formulated by staff from both departments with input and recommendations from volunteers. A full day's training module was developed to present the program's proactive customer service approach in joint training sessions scheduled for the VIP team of paid and unpaid staff. During the program's first year, several volunteers served in an advisory capacity. A volunteer chairperson was selected the following year to assist in planning, training, and recruitment, and a "Leadership Team" was appointed within eighteen months. This Leadership Team was formed to assure the effective operation of the program, and is responsible for the selection of "Coordinators" who work with volunteers to assure that recognition, training requirements, time commitments, etc. have been successfully completed. These leadership positions have allowed the volunteers to take more responsiblity for the success of this service area, especially as it relates to active volunteer participation.

RECRUITMENT AND TRAINING

The concept that it is much more efficient and cost-effective to retain existing volunteers of proven quality than it is to continually recruit and train replacements is just as true in a zoological setting as it is in any other institution. However, demonstrating quality and value at the outset of a potential volunteer's experience is critical to setting the stage for a meaningful and long-term experience.

To accomplish this at Zoo Atlanta, all potential volunteers are introduced to the entire volunteer program through FOZA's Volunteer Choice Safari. The "Safari" is designed to immerse volunteers into the uniqueness of donating one's time at the zoo and is held twice a year (spring and fall). New volunteers are acquainted with an overview of each of the nine program areas available. After introductions by both the Director of the zoo and FOZA, volunteer guides lead the potential volunteers in small groups on "Safari" through the zoo. Stopping at each of the nine "encampments," the potential volunteers are given a short presentation on the benefits and opportunities of each service area.

In addition to the training sessions for each service area, all new volunteers must also attend the ZOOMaker's Enrichment Series (ZMES). These quarterly workshops (two to four hours each, depending on the program selected), introduce volunteers to the mission and goals of both FOZA and the Zoo, and further educate them on volunteer and customer service procedures. The ZMES concept also motivates volunteers by providing them with the "inside scoop" on zoo animals, exhibits, and activities.

VOLUNTEER LEADERSHIP STRUCTURE

In April of 1990, the Director of Volunteer Resources and the Executive Director of FOZA developed two very important strategy groups to assist in the long-range planning and overall development of the volunteer program.

The Volunteer Resources Committee was restructured as a standing committee of the Friends of Zoo Atlanta Board of Directors to assist in the more broad-based policy decisions of the volunteer program as well as advocate for program support. The committee meets monthly with a membership selected from the organization's Board of Directors as well as volunteer service area leaders and staff.

In an effort to best assist the Director of Volunteer Resources to promote an even more responsive volunteer program in 1991, the committee has selected three prime areas in which to concentrate its efforts and expertise. These include recruitment (especially as it relates to seniors and weekday volunteers), recognition, and the Volunteer Council agenda.

The Volunteer Council was designed to operate as a representative group, teaming volunteer service area leaders with staff managers in all program areas. The

Council's mission is to promote professional volunteer management within the zoo, and meets on a quarterly basis for informative sessions.

Service Area Leadership

The expansion of more tenured, experienced volunteers into leadership roles supervising their peers builds their self-esteem and gives them a greater sense of program ownership. This ownership ties them more strongly to the success of the particular service area. They are willing to set standards that volunteers must adhere to and will take steps to assure that these standards are met. Expanding leadership into new areas and increasing levels of involvement within service areas will also improve the retention of volunteers over the long-term.

SUMMARY

Zoos are unique educational facilities which offer an array of desirable opportunitites for volunteers. Because of Zoo Atlanta's ambitious reconstruction effort over the last five years, FOZA's volunteer programs have been forced to grow just as rapidly in order to adequately fulfill the many needed areas of support. As discussed here, a number of creative and innovative approaches have been implemented in each of the service areas to assure the needed balance between quality and growth. Selecting visible, meaningful jobs, being prepared with supplies and equipment, encouraging leadership development and teambuilding between volunteers and staff, and planning staff work around volunteer skills and availability will go a long way toward sustaining an active volunteer program. These concepts are readily applicable to a wide range of non-profit institutions.

Volunteering Activities of Seniors

Alec J. Lee, MBA, MPA and Catherine Burden, BA, BPR

In early 1990, the Victoria Volunteer Bureau, with the support of Health and Welfare Canada's Seniors' Independence Program, began its Seniors Volunteering Project. The purpose of the project was to develop and test strategies to promote seniors' involvement in volunteering. The initial stage of research for the project, a baseline study of seniors in the Greater Victoria area, was reported in Lee and Burden (1990-1991). This research sought to identify the extent and nature of seniors' volunteer participation in the Greater Victoria community. As well, it reported the characteristics of seniors who volunteer and identified reasons why seniors do and do not participate in volunteer activities.

The research reported here provides a follow-up to this baseline study. It examines in more detail the nature of seniors' volunteer work, their motives for volunteering, their views about why seniors may or may not choose to volunteer, and their ideas about what might work to increase the recruitment of senior volunteers.

NATURE OF THE STUDY

The findings reported here were obtained through in-depth personal interviews of 144 residents of Southern Vancouver Island, aged 55 years and over. Each respondent had actively volunteered at some time during the twelve months prior to the interview. The vast majority (90.3%) of respondents were, in fact, currently volunteering at the time of the study.

A convenience sample was used, with respondents drawn from lists provided by several Greater Victoria seniors organizations, the Victoria Volunteer Bureau and from participants in a locally-held senior's conference. The data were collected during the late spring and early summer of 1990.

THE NATURE OF SENIORS' VOLUNTEER ACTIVITY

Respondents were first asked to describe features of their current or most recent volunteering activities and to outline aspects of their volunteering history.

Where Do They Volunteer?

During the past year, most respondents (60.4%) had volunteered for one organization. An additional 21.5% had volunteered for two groups, while 14.6% had participated with three groups and 3.5% with four. Overall, the 144 respondents had volunteered with a total of 232 organizations during the past year, for an average of 1.6 organizations per person.

The most frequently mentioned type of organization with which volunteers were involved was Recreation. This response was given by 63.9% of respondents and represented 39.7% of all 232 volunteer jobs in which respondents were involved. This was followed by Service Organizations (35.4% of respondents and 22.0% of all volunteer jobs), and Church Groups (14.6% of respondents and 9.0% of all volunteer jobs).

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What Volunteer Work Do They Do?

The main types of work in which respondents were involved included Administrative Tasks (32.6% of respondents and 20.3% of all volunteer jobs), Domestic/Maintenance Work (31.6% of respondents and 19.0% of all jobs), Office Work (25.7% of respondents and 16.0% of all jobs), Recreation (19.4% of respondents and 12.1% of all jobs), Arts (14.6% of respondents and 9.0% of all jobs) and Education (13.9% of respondents and 8.6% of all jobs). Other, less frequently mentioned tasks included Visiting, Counselling, Driving, Health Care and Daycare.

Time Spent Volunteering

The median number of hours per week spent *on each volunteer job* was 2.9 hours, with the responses ranging from fifteen minutes to 35 hours. The median number of hours per week spent volunteering by each respondent *on all jobs* was 4.6 hours, with the responses ranging from one hour to 35 hours. This is slightly more than the Canadian national average of 3.7 hours.

Volunteering was not a new experience to respondents. They had been active as volunteers for an average of 8.4 years.

It should be noted that these are subjective estimates of time spent volunteering rather than precise, objective measures. However, their similarity to observations reported in other research (Lee and Burden, 1990–1991) suggests some validity to the data.

Awareness of Volunteer Opportunities

Almost one-third (32.6%) of respondents became aware of their current or most recent volunteer activity through a Meeting of an Organization in which they were involved. Print Advertising was an influence for 16.7%, while a Friend was identified by 16.0% as the source of awareness. Other means included Personal Experience (13.2%), the local Volunteer Bureau (12.5%), Family Member (6.9%) and Word of Mouth (other than through family member) (4.9%). Only 1.4% gave Radio or Television as the source of awareness suggesting limitations to these media as primary recruiting vehicles.

Organizational Support of Volunteers

Of importance to volunteer managers is the extent to which their volunteers feel supported by their organization. Respondents were asked to comment on several facets of organizational support, particularly in the areas of training, utilization of their talents and reimbursement for out-of-pocket expenses.

It was interesting to note that 32.9% of the 232 volunteer jobs in which respondents were involved provided some form of training for the volunteers. The remaining 67.1% received no training at all, although many respondents indicated that training was not required.

An issue volunteer managers feel can turn people away from volunteering is underutilization of skills. Respondents generally did not see this as a problem, however, with 67.3% feeling their talents were either Fully or Substantially Utilized. Only 4.2% indicated their talents were not utilized at all.

Slightly more than one-fifth (21.5%) of respondents were reimbursed for out of pocket expenses. The most common reimbursements were for Transportation Expenses (64.5% of those receiving reimbursements), Food Costs (25.8%) and Utilities (16.1%).

Informal Volunteering

Some people help others on their own, without going through a specific organization. This activity, referred to as "informal volunteering," was practiced by 61.8% of respondents. The main areas in which they were involved as informal volunteers included Transportation (44.9% of those who informally volunteer), Personal Care (30.3%), Household Chores (30.3%) and Visiting (23.6%).

REASONS FOR VOLUNTEERING

Reasons for volunteering varied from respondent to respondent. The most frequently mentioned reasons included Something To Do (36.8%), to Help Others In Need (28.5%) and to Stay Healthy, Active or Useful (25.7%). Table I presents the detailed results.

TABLE I
Reasons for Volunteering

Reason	n	%*
Something To Do	53	36.8
Help Others In Need	41	28.5
Stay Healthy, Active, Useful	37	25.7
To Contribute	31	21.5
I Like the Cause	30	20.8
I Was Personally Affected	17	11.8
I Was Asked To Volunteer	8	5.6
Because of Family or Friends	8	5.6
Convenience	4	2.8

*Percentages exceed 100% since respondents could give more than one answer.

Reasons for choosing a particular organization in which to volunteer also varied considerably among the respondents. As Table II reports, the most frequently mentioned reasons included Interest in the Type of Work (21.5%) and Membership in the Group (17.3%). Other reasons were Convenience, the Involvement of Friends and Family and Personal Experience as a Client of the Organization.

When asked what they enjoy most about their volunteer activities, the importance of social aspects and personal satisfaction became very apparent. Fully 40.3% indicted that it was the People they found to be the most enjoyable part of their volunteer work. This was followed by Helping Others (31.3%), Socializing (29.9%) and Personal Satisfaction (27.1%). An additional 11.1% felt that

TABLE II
Reasons for Choosing a Particular Organization

Reason	n	%
Interest In the Type of Work	31	21.5
I Am a Member of the Group	25	17.3
No Particular Reason	20	13.9
Convenience	19	13.2
Friends/Family Involved	19	13.2
Personal Experience With It	17	11.8
I Was Asked To Volunteer There	8	5.6
Referred By the Volunteer Bureau	5	3.5
Totals	144	100.0

Keeping Active as particularly valuable.

Almost two-thirds (66.0%) of respondents could identify nothing they enjoyed least about their volunteer work, indicating a high degree of satisfaction. Those who did provide a response were most likely to give job-specific complaints rather than general volunteering concerns. Examples of job-specific complaints included Treatment as a Volunteer, Inadequate Facilities, Time, Parking, Lack of Support, Too Much Work, and No Clearcut Jobs.

PREFERENCES REGARDING SELECTED VOLUNTEER TASK CHARACTERISTICS

To help determine suitable volunteer experiences for seniors, respondents were asked to indicate their preferences in a variety of areas, particularly when they prefer to volunteer, with whom they prefer to work and what kinds of on-the-job features are of interest to them.

When They Prefer to Volunteer

Respondents were asked to indicate what days, hours, and times of year they prefer to volunteer. Very clearly, the preferred days were weekdays, particularly Monday (65.3%), Tuesday (67.4%), Wednesday (69.4%) and Thursday (63.2%). Friday was desired by 54.2%. Not unexpectedly, the least preferred days were Saturday and Sunday, with 22.9% and 22.2%, respectively.

Mornings were preferred by 63.2%, followed closely by Afternoons (56.3%). Only 19.3% wanted to volunteer in the Evenings.

For three-quarters of the respondents, there was no preferred time of year for volunteering. In fact, the most significant response here was a preference for not volunteering during the summer, as indicted by 13.9%. This finding contradicts a commonly held perception that people over the age of 55 dislike winter commitments due to travel plans to warmer climes.

With Whom They Prefer to Volunteer

Almost half (45.5%) of the respondents would volunteer with any age group, while, given a choice, 34.7% would prefer working with Seniors and 24.3% with Adults. As shown in Table III, however, only 2.1% specifically did not want to work with Babies and only 1.4% preferred not to work with Children.

Preferences for Selected On-The-Job Features

On-the-job features can often make or break a volunteer experience. The respondents were asked to indicate the level of importance of four such features:

TABLE III
With Which Age Group(s) Do You Prefer to Volunteer?

Age Group	n	%*
Any Age Group	67	46.5
Seniors	50	34.7
Adult	35	24.3
Youth	8	5.6
Children	6	4.2
Not Babies	3	2.1
Not Seniors	3	2.1
Not Children	2	1.4
Babies	1	.7

*Percentages total more than 100% since respondents could give more than one preference.

TABLE IV
Importance of Selected On-The-Job Features

LEVEL OF IMPORTANCE	SELECTED ON-THE-JOB FEATURES			
	BREAKS FROM VOLUNTEERING	JOB SHARING	REIMBURSEMENTS	INCENTIVES
	%	%	%	%
Very Important	34.7	36.1	3.2	9.0
Somewhat Important	35.4	27.1	29.0	27.0
Not Too Important	13.2	10.4	22.6	18.1
Not Important at All	12.5	16.7	45.2	42.4
No Response	4.2	9.7	0.0	3.5
Totals	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

breaks form volunteering, job sharing, reimbursements for out-of-pocket expenses, and incentives, such as tax benefits. Table IV presents the results.

Slightly more than 70% felt that it was either Very or Somewhat Important for them to be able to take breaks from volunteering for a few weeks or months and be able to resume it later, indicating a preference for flexibility in entering and leaving volunteer experiences, thus allowing for holidays and family commitments.

Job Sharing, as a volunteer work option, was either Very or Somewhat Important to 63.2% of respondents.

By contrast, reimbursements were either Very or Somewhat Important to only 32.3% of volunteers. Slightly more than two-thirds (67.8%) felt reimbursements to be either Not Too Important or Not Important At All. Lastly, incentives, such as tax breaks and being driven to and from the volunteer location, were rated as Very or Somewhat Important by 36.0%.

The ratings of importance for these last two features suggest that people currently volunteering are less interested in the financial sides of volunteering than with the flexibility which breaks and job sharing afford. As well, these responses should be placed in the context of earlier data which indicated the importance of the social and personal satisfaction elements of volunteering rather than any extrinsic factors.

WHY SENIORS MAY OR MAY NOT CHOOSE TO VOLUNTEER

To help identify any barriers to volunteering, respondents were asked their opinions about the main reasons why people 55 years and over choose not to volunteer. The main reasons given were Lack of Information about Volunteer Opportunities (given by 34.0%), Negative Attitudes about Volunteering (34.0%), Lifestyle (33.3%), Time Commitments (21.5%), Low Self-esteem (20.1%), and Health Limitations (11.1%). Additional, less frequently mentioned reasons included Family Commitments, a Negative Volunteer Experience and Transportation Difficulties.

The above suggests that seniors who currently volunteer feel that a significant proportion of their peers are unlikely to volunteer due to attitudinal, lifestyle or health reasons. However, they also indicate that communicating volunteer opportunities and/or designing volunteer jobs to suit seniors' current situations may serve to boost volunteer involvement among this group.

When asked what would encourage people 55 years and over to consider volunteering, respondents emphasized Using a Personal Approach (given by

26.4%), Publicity (24.3%) and Responding to the Needs and Self-Esteem of Potential Volunteers (23.6%).

APPROACHES TO RECRUITING SENIORS TO VOLUNTEER

Volunteers were than asked to indicated the extent to which various communication approaches would be an influence in their decision to volunteer or not to volunteer.

As Table V shows, a Personal Request From Someone You Know would have the most influence, with an average rating of 1.6 on a 4-point rating scale, with 1 indicating a Major influence and 4 indicating No Influence. This response reflects the approach emphasized in the previous section, deemed effective in encouraging people over 55 to volunteer. Hearing a Speaker (rating of 2.4), Newspaper Column or Article (2.4) and Personal Request from Someone You Don't Know (2.6) followed this response. The mass media approaches of Television, Direct Mail and Radio rated the lowest, with ratings of 2.9, 3.1, and 3.5, respectively.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The findings of this research relate not only to possible recruiting methods and messages to boost volunteer involvement of seniors, but also to elements of volunteer job design.

It would appear that recruiting strategies that emphasize the social self-worth and personal satisfaction benefits of volunteering would appeal to many seniors. As well, employing recruiting techniques that are more personal (*e.g.*, direct contact or contact through an organization) are more effective than approaches which rely on the mass media.

Mass media may prove useful in informing potential volunteers of the types of volunteer opportunities available and in generally reinforcing the value of volunteering. With increased communication about the scope of volunteer positions, personal recruitment efforts can focus on finding suitable volunteer/organization matches rather than educating.

Attention must also be given to designing jobs that suit the needs and limitations of senior volunteers. This area of

TABLE V
Levels of Influence of Alternative Communication Approaches

COMMUNICATION APPROACH	LEVEL OF INFLUENCE MAJOR INFLUENCE 1	2	3	NO INFLUENCE 4
Personal Request From Someone You Know	1.6			
Hearing a Speaker		2.4		
Newspaper Column or Article		2.4		
Personal Request From Someone You Don't Know			2.6	
Television Report			2.9	
Direct Mail Request From the Organization			3.1	
Radio Report				3.5

job design should relate to the tasks to be performed, the scheduling of jobs and the extent to which flexibility can be built into them.

CONCLUSION

This report represents the second stage of research on the Seniors Volunteering Project. The next step involves surveying community agencies to determine the extent and nature of their involvement of seniors and volunteers.

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ABSTRACT

Whenever we think about volunteering, we do so mostly from only one perspective, that of the volunteer. There are at least two others to consider: the perspective of the recipient of the voluntary act and the perspective of the society in which the voluntary action takes place. To limit ourselves only to the perspective of the volunteer will limit research into voluntary action.

Altruism as a motivator of voluntary action is explored from several perspectives and suggestions on how to make this information operational are presented.

Volunteering: Continuing Expansion of the Definition and A Practical Application of Altruistic Motivation

Richard S. Shure, Ph.D.

RASHOMON AND VOLUNTEERING

The library at Grand Forks Air Force Base in North Dakota protected books in inclement weather by providing plastic bags imprinted in large capital letters with "THE LIMITS OF MY VOCABULARY ARE THE LIMITS OF MY WORLD." Today's definition of volunteering could be a limiting factor. We should be aware that the definition continues to be expanded and, as such, promotes additional research into volunteering. The concept of perspective should be considered when observing and describing a voluntary act.

Japanese author Akutagawa's character, Rashomon, in a 1915 story by the same name, tells of an incident involving a samurai, his wife, and a bandit. Before a court of inquiry, each describes the incident. Three different versions are heard before the court, the differences being perspectives driven by individual needs. The reader is left with the responsibility of deciding what actually happened. There is a parallel in the act of volunteering.

The INDEPENDENT SECTOR UPDATE (April 1986) defines the act of volunteering as persons offering themselves for a service without obligation to do so, willingly, and without pay. This definition is limiting as it tends to focus primarily on the act of volunteering from the perspective of the volunteer. There are at least three components to each voluntary act: the volunteer (act initiator); the recipient of the act; and society, as defined by Durkheim (1973), an observer of the act, or anyone having knowledge of it. Every voluntary act may be viewed differently by each of these participants or components.

Community Service Orders (CSO) offer an operating example of differing component views of the same act. In the Chicago area there are presently over 500 persons convicted in federal courts of "white collar" crimes who, in addition to incarceration and/or parying a

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fine, are required to perform from two hundred to several thousand hours of community service as part of their overall sentence (Foster, 1988). Their crimes are viewed as being out of their normal characters and they are not considered a threat to society. This is a form of limited discretionary volunteering (LDV). The Justice Department refers to these persons as "volunteers" consistent with current definitions. Let us look at the experience of one such "volunteer," Tony.

Tony was sentenced to ninety days in prison for failure to declare all of his income on his tax forms, paid a ten thousand dollar fine, and was expected to perform 1500 hours of community service. He is an excellent swimmer and now works with age ten and under minority, inner-city boys, teaching them how to swim. He must pick up the children at their housing project and drive them to and from the pool. For most of these children this is the only opportunity they will have to learn how to swim and, for many, to experience the warmth and caring of an adult male on a consistent, predictable basis. From Tony's perspective, he is paying down his sentence, yet he may feel that he is also making restitution to society for his crime. He feels good about what he is doing for the children but he does not feel that what he does is voluntary nor that he is a volunteer. Others performing community service orders who feel wrongly convicted of a crime they did not commit (as opposed to those, like Tony, who pleaded guilty) are more vocal about not being volunteers in the traditional sense.

Yet, from the perspective of the children being taught to swim, Tony and the others like him are volunteers in the traditional sense. The children receive a service without cost that they would not normally have. Neither the service provided nor the benefits received are appreciably diminished or enhanced by the motivation of the giver.

Society could argue that both the opportunity to perform a restitutive act as well as having children learn a new skill are positive. Society could also benefit should another adult be motivated to do similar volunteer work after observing Tony and the children interact. Observers at the pool, not knowing Tony's background, would most likely describe what they see as a voluntary act: one act, with several perspectives and interpretations.

To better understand a voluntary act, the components of the act need to be identified and the perspective of each understood. Knowing something of the perspectives that are operational leading up to a voluntary act may yield clues to the motivation for the act.

ALTRUISTIC MOTIVATION AND VOLUNTEERING

Everyone is a potential volunteer with singular talents capable of enhancing the lives of others. Some exhibit this facet of themselves early on, others later in life; some never do. The more that is known about volunteers and motivation for volunteering, the more likely it is that this volunteering component may be activated. A universal motivator able to trigger the volunteering component within each of us would be quite a find. Until that time, all likely motivators should be studied in the hope of discovering how each may trigger some of us to volunteer. Altruism is one such motivator, and understanding altruistic motivations may lead to increased volunteering.

Altruism expresses the principle or practice of unselfish concern for, or the devotion to the welfare of others. Does it exist? Many argue that people act out of nothing more than enlightened self-interest while others would argue that it is natural and normal to foster and act solely out of concern for others. Plato, Helvetius, and Marx would be among the former and Durkheim among the latter (Oliner and Oliner, 1988.) According to Durkheim (1973), altruism exists as an integral part of society and is evidenced when people "abnegate their interests in favor of obedience for the sake of soci-

ety—altruism is not merely an agreeable ornament to social life but its fundamental basis." There does not appear to be a lack of those who would argue at almost any point in-between. If the definition of volunteering is expanded to include perspective, the views all along the continuum will be useful in research to further understand volunteering motivation.

The literature on altruism appears to have diverged along two not always distinct paths: sociobiology along one path; psychoanalytic theory, cognitive developmental theory, social learning theory, and social psychological orientation theory along the other. The former attempts to explain altrusim as one method of insuring gene propagation, the latter attempt to explain altruism as something learned or acquired in life through experience, reinforcement, modeling, or the interaction between personal, external social or situational factors (Oliner and Oliner, 1988).

Babcock's (1986) summary of altruism attributed to Darwinian concepts introduces three categories of altruism broad enough for parallels to be found in most other theories: kin altruism or inclusive fitness, reciprocal altruism, and induced or obligatory altruism. *Kin altruism* describes a situation in which a sacrifice is made by one person on behalf of another, both of whom share the same genes. The altruistic act directly benefits the recipient of the act and indirectly benefits the actor as the reproductive success of the genes shared by both has been enhanced. Acts provided to members of one's extended family, accepted as natural and normal, may not be thought of as altruistic acts, while identical acts provided to non-relatives would be considered altruistic. Kin altruism has parallels in other disciplines attempting to explain any altruistic act provided to member of one's extended family.

Reciprocal altruism refers to a service provided or sacrifice made by one organism for another which will be balanced in the future by a service provided or sacrifice made to the original provider. Exchange theory is one parallel theory from another discipline.

Induced altruism is defined as an act that promotes the fitness of another without reciprocal benefit to itself or its genes present in the recipient. An example given by Babcock (1986) is the grouper fish which allows smaller fish, cleaner wrasses, to clean particles of food and debris from between the grouper's teeth and gills. This appears to be an example of reciprocal altruism as each benefits: the grouper's health is promoted as the wrasse finds nourishment at little cost or threat to its safety. There is, however, another small fish that looks similar to the wrasse. The grouper, thinking it is a wrasse, allows the fish to come close, and once close this fish will tear a piece of flesh from within the grouper's mouth. The grouper is not a willing volunteer, yet the act itself from the perspective of the benificiary appears to be a voluntary one. This is one example from the literature in which perspective of the actors must be taken into consideration in understanding the act. It has a direct parallel in the concept discussed previously: limited discretionary volunteering, community service orders.

From the perspective of the recipient, any volunteer action resulting from an altruistic motivator directly benefits the recipient. Theories on altruism give insights into what may initiate a voluntary act. With this knowledge we may attract more volunteers. Several theories are presented for illustration and discussion.

PRACTICAL APPLICATIONS

In their study of non-Jewish volunteers aiding in the rescue of Jews during World War II, Oliner and Oliner (1988) found that volunteers and non-volunteers alike were aware of what was happening to Jews, but the volunteers perceived the information in a personal way, precipitating action. These volunteers needed resources: jobs/money, family support, community/church support,

and the support of others similarly involved. Volunteers needed a precipitating occasion, often nothing more than being asked to help. The volunteers expressed a closeness to their community and exhibited a strong sense of efficacy. They could affect events and had a responsibility to do so. They were considered extensive personalities described by terms such as involved, committed, caring, and responsible, rather than constrictive personalities described as detached, exclusive, and disassociated. Their parents stressed a universalistic outlook toward equity and caring. Knowing this, in campaigns for volunteers the need should be stressed in a personal and meaningful way, appealing to their sense of efficacy, their need to be involved, to care, to make commitments and assume responsibility. The universal nature of the need should be stressed. Potential volunteers should be supplied with a list of community support groups available to them as volunteers.

Oliner and Oliner (1988) suggest that persons predisposed to altruistic behavior may require a "catalyst" to turn motivation into action. They suggest three in order of importance: the individual's norms or the norms of his or her reference group, his or her sense of empathy, and the universal principles to which he or she personally subscribes. When attempting to attract specific volunteer types, stress the obligations to their peer group or community norms; appeal to their compassion, sympathy, or pity; and appeal to their universal concepts of justice and caring.

Bar-Tal (1976), in his discussion of altruism and pro-social behavior, reviews the literature of experiments on altruism in non-emergency situations. Not all the experiments were conclusive nor were they all conducted in "real life" settings. Some of the preliminary findings, however, are worth consideration. The following may be very useful when presenting certain needs to perspective volunteers:

1. Needs should be presented in specific and unambiguous terms, as a situation perceived as ambiguous often does not convey the urgency of the need.
2. Persons with a high need for approval, fearing disapproval for poor performance, tend not to volunteer in novel or ambiguous situations.
3. Women, more than men, tend not to volunteer in situations that are ambiguous or potentially embarrassing.
4. Some volunteer work is perceived as gender based. Gender preference should be made clear or care should be taken not to imply a preference if none exists.
5. Men more than women appear to be more aware of the social status of the recipient, helping those closer in status to themselves.
6. The race of the recipient may influence the race of the volunteer. If race may be an issue, the race of the recipient should be made clear to the prospective volunteer.

There have been experiments showing that people act differently alone than when others are present. With others present the need to act appears to diminish, as if the perceived need will be shouldered by the others. Rushton and Sorrentino (1981) and Bar-Tal (1976) indicate the probability of an individual helping in most situations decreases as the size of the observing group increases. When seeking volunteers, it may be more effective to approach them alone in a one-on-one situation rather than in groups. If that is not practical, the contact should be structured so that it appears directed solely toward each of them, so as to convey that in this specific instance, only they can make a difference.

Moods may affect altruistic behavior. The request for volunteer help should be timed to catch the prospective volunteer

at the least stressful time of day, the most appropriate day of the week, or during a festive season. The presentation should be structured toward altering any negative or neutral moods into strongly positive ones before asking for volunteer action. Rushton and Sorrentino (1981) imply that positive moods are linked to increased altruism. They point out, however, that the opposite is not always true. While feelings of "sadness, failure, or self-concern associated with negative moods may retard helping behavior, negative moods associated with feelings of guilt or shame may actually promote helping behavior."

People appear to be most likely to exhibit altruistic or helping behavior to those who look most like themselves. When the intended recipient of a voluntary act is presented to the potential volunteer, any characteristics they share in common should be highlighted.

Rushton and Sorrentino (1981), Bar-Tal (1976), Oliner and Oliner (1988), and Babcock (1986) all suggest that parental role modeling is important in promoting altruistic behavior. People tend to emulate the actions of their parents or attempt to recreate the warm feelings of reward given them previously by their parents or other significant adults when they behaved in an approved manner.

Role modeling has been shown to be an important motivator of Big Brother volunteers. When asked what they expected their little brothers would get from participating in the program, the most frequent response was "someone to look up to/a role model/an authority figure/a steady influence in their lives." When asked what they expected to get from the program as a volunteer, the most frequent response was "satisfaction/gratification—a good feeling from helping someone." The next most frequent response was "a sense of helping a child develop/guide." In this instance the volunteers projected that the child expected an adult role model and they wanted to be that role model (Shure 1988). In attracting volutneers, images should be projected that may recall parental (adult) role modeling or those special regards received for approved behavior.

CONCLUSION

Looking at just one potential motivator for volunteering, altruism, has led to several suggestions that in selected circumstances may yield a more comprehensive and successful campaign for volunteers. All such motivators should be studied to see what suggestions they may yield. As the definition of volunteering expands, additional, perhaps non-traditional, motivators of volunteering will be identified and become the subject of future research.

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Volunteerism Citation Index Covering Articles Appearing During 1990-1991

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

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