ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

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AVA
ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

The mission of the Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA), an international membership organization, is to promote professionalism and strengthen leadership in volunteerism. 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.

Membership in AVA is open to salaried and non-salaried persons in all types of public, non-profit, and for-profit settings who choose to join with AVA to promote and support effective leadership in volunteerism.

AVA is an association run by its members. Active committees include: Public Information, Professional Development, Resource Development, Pluralism, Marketing, and Public Issues. 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.

Two major services that AVA provides, both for its members and for the field at large, are the Certification Program and the Educational Endorsement Program. Through the certification process that 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 informational newsletters and booklets and *THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION.*

**For further information about the ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION, contact us at P.O. Box 32092, Richmond, VA 23294, U.S.A.
Tel (804) 346-2266 • Fax (804) 346-3318
Email: avaintl@mindspring.com
Website: www.avaintl.org**

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Tel (804) 346-2266 • Fax (804) 346-3318
E-mail: avaintl@mindspring.com

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Editor's Note

This issue starts with an article on the meaning of the words we use to describe unpaid citizen participation. It is followed by others on the volunteer experience and ends with one on organizational support for the volunteer program. Here's a quick summary of each:

- There is confusion within the profession and among the public over the words "volunteerism" and "service." What are your views?
- A volunteer frankly talks about the criteria she uses to evaluate if she's found the right volunteer job.
- Knowledge-based organizations can benefit from the useful skills learned through volunteering. A study describes which skills they are.
- The nature of the commitment of volunteers in church-related services, the intangible exchanges that are most significant to this population of volunteers, and the questions that still need to be answered are explained.
- It is widely acknowledged that effective volunteer programs must be fully supported at the highest levels of an organization. Learn tips on how support from the top was achieved at a hospital in Canada.
- How does age influence the nature of volunteer participation? Is there age segregation in volunteer programs? These topics are discussed with suggestions for future study.

This is my last issue as editor-in-chief. My thanks to the editorial board and our copy editor for their invaluable contributions. From now on I will cheerlead from the sidelines and look forward to watching the publication grow and change. This is your professional journal. Support it and stay tuned!

Marjorie M. (Mitzi) Bhavnani
Editor-in-Chief
E-mail address: AVAjournal@aol.com

ABSTRACT

The Ohio Governor's Community Service Commission began a statewide planning process in late 1997 to develop Ohio's Unified State Plan for Service. A group of volunteer administrators were invited to participate in the planning process, representing the specific interests and perspectives of volunteer administration. There has been a continuing debate in the field of volunteer administration about the distinctions between volunteerism and service. These volunteer administrators expressed considerable concern about the use of "service" as an umbrella for all forms of civic participation. This article is an excerpt from a position paper written by the author as a part of Ohio's planning process.

The Volunteerism Versus Service Perspective: An Excerpt from a Position Paper Submitted for Ohio's Unified State Plan

Mary V. Merrill

WHERE WE ARE

Public attention has been focused upon volunteerism in ways that are almost unprecedented in the history of the United States. The 1997 Presidents' Summit for America's Future initiated a follow-up organization, America's Promise—The Alliance for Youth, that aimed to marshall resources to address the needs of 2 million young people by the year 2000. Respected leaders and the media have highlighted the need for American citizens to be actively engaged in their communities. As a result, the private, public, and independent sectors of our society are forming new alliances in a search for ways to improve the quality of life through citizen action.

While recognizing that volunteerism is alive, well and flourishing, as volunteer administrators engaged in developing a state plan for Ohio's citizens, we have identified several current concerns. First, there is increasing confusion around language. Volunteerism, community service, national service, and Learn and Serve are terms used to refer to varying activities and yet in the public arena there is no clear understanding of what is being discussed.

America has a long history of volunteerism and the word "volunteer" generally is used to refer to persons giving of their time and talents without concern for remuneration. "Service" has been discussed since the early 1900s, sometimes referred to as an army of youth required to perform some form of public service. This concept of service was reflected in the government-sponsored Civilian Conservation Corps of the 1930s and the Peace Corps and VISTA programs of the 1960s. In recent years there have been many proposals before Congress to promote and expand "national service." The debate over federal funding for service initiatives has done much to confuse the distinctions between volunteerism and service. Add court-mandated community service and school-based service-learning programs and the confusion grows, even among the professionals who work in the field of citizen participation.

To date, very little research and litera-

Mary V. Merrill, president of Merrill Associates, provides consultation and training internationally in volunteer administration, boardsmanship, and corporate employee volunteer program development. She is a frequent presenter at conferences and facilitates strategic planning and staff retreats for a wide range of organizations. A licensed social worker, Mary co-teaches the Institute for Community Leadership at The Ohio State University where she is adjunct faculty. As a consultant for The Points of Light Foundation, she worked to develop a volunteer center in Moscow, Russia. In 1998 she was invited to speak at both the Biennial World Volunteer Conference in Edmonton, Canada, and the Latin American Conference on Volunteerism in Venezuela.

ture exist to define these terms and the scope of each form of citizen participation. Volunteerism in the United States has traditionally been associated with the Judeo-Christian ethic of helping one's neighbor. The word itself has been linked to the Latin word *velle* meaning to wish or will and is defined as one who enters into or offers himself/herself of his/her own free will. Today the term "service" is most often linked with government-sponsored initiatives designed to foster an ethic of national civic service among youth.

As professionals in the field of volunteer administration who are helping develop a state plan for Ohio, we see similarities among service, service learning, and volunteerism but do not agree they are synonymous. We believe the continuing efforts to lump all forms of citizen engagement under a single generic term such as "service" confuses the public and the profession. Additionally, the word tends to create factions professionally and leads to a division of energies by not acknowledging the importance of the diverse forms of civic contribution made by citizens. We believe we are involved in an ongoing process of defining how citizens can be and are engaged in their communities and that the terms used to describe their activities should reflect that fact.

While we believe volunteerism is flourishing, the how, who, and when of volunteering must constantly evolve to meet the needs of a changing population. As professional volunteer administrators, we seek new strategies, methodologies, and venues to engage citizens in community action. To this end, we welcome the growth of programs like Learn and Serve and AmeriCorps because they offer new, alternative methods for citizens to become involved in solving social problems and contribute to the overall health of society. We welcome their addition for, indeed, we see these new programs as expanding the traditional form of service known as volunteerism. However, we do not wish to see volunteerism or the ideals it stands for, incorporated into a newer definition or program in an attempt to simplify, combine, or consolidate. While there are similarities between volunteerism, service-learning, and service, it is important to recognize that each is unique. Efforts to combine or consolidate our understanding of these various types of citizen involvement under one umbrella term would be limiting. However, government support for each should be maintained so that individuals and society may reap the benefits from all of them.

American citizens have a long-standing tradition of civic engagement. Women's suffrage, civil rights, and the anti-Vietnam war movement are examples of the collective actions of citizens who share a commitment to a common cause. While these are dramatic examples of the social impact citizens can have in a free society, all communities have countless stories and examples of the unselfish, heroic, meaningful contributions of individuals and groups who give their time, talents, and energies to making a difference. Each hospice volunteer, reading tutor, Meals on Wheels driver, Foster Grandparent, museum docent, theater usher, food pantry worker, Scout leader, Sunday school teacher, coach, or mentor contributes to the overall fabric of our communities, touching our lives in personal, often unacknowledged ways each day. We recognize and value the role of government in protecting and securing our rights to act individually and collectively as agents of social change.

WHERE DO WE WANT TO GO?

It is our belief that those involved in volunteerism and service need to collaborate. We view collaboration as a process, a formal, sustained commitment to work together with mutual respect to accomplish a common goal. We recognize that collaboration is always political with each of us bringing our own definitions, expectations, roles, and power to the table. To help us focus on a common mission, we suggest the following core values.

We believe that:

- Citizen participation is vital for healthy, caring communities and that the collective actions of those who share a commitment to a common cause are extremely powerful.
- Volunteerism, national and community service, and service-learning experiences are distinct forms of citizen participation by which people in a free society act on their beliefs and initiate/impact social change.
- Volunteerism, service, and service-learning experiences foster individual growth and self-esteem, build relationships, contribute to the quality of life in the community, and strengthen civil society.
- Government can play a role by strengthening and promoting volunteerism and service by encouraging its citizens to become engaged, by reducing obstacles and by creating an environment that enables individuals and groups to become involved.

It has been said by Noyes and Ellis (1990) that:

> *Volunteerism is both reactive and proactive. It is a response to current events, social problems, and community needs that volunteers are often the first to identify.... By creating or urging others to create programs, volunteering challenges the status quo. This is the inherent political side of volunteer work. The irony is that pressure in one direction elicits pressure in the other; whenever one group of volunteers works toward change, another group often reacts to preserve tradition or advocate yet another alternative. This is why volunteers will continue to be found on both sides of an issue—and at all points along the political spectrum.*

Because there is an inherent "political" nature to volunteerism, it is important for government service to be separate from volunteer service. Programs funded and promoted by the government provide wonderful opportunities for community and national service and help to promote a positive attitude toward public service. They address federally-identified issues and are funded through tax dollars and should remain distinct from "volunteer" actions that take shape at the grassroots in response to local events, problems, and issues. While we may view some individuals or groups as radical, negative, even destructive, we are a country founded on the principles of free speech and individualism. We must feel free to be involved on "both sides of an issue—at all points along the political spectrum," unhindered by funders or political ideology. Government may foster and even create opportunities for service, but its main role should be to create and foster the climate in which individuals may contribute to the quality of life in their own communities through freely given citizen participation.

HOW DO WE GET THERE?

As citizens of a free society we welcome support from government. We acknowledge its role in the creation of service opportunities, we support efforts to encourage all citizens to be engaged in the life of the community and we delight in the role it plays in promoting civic engagement through volunteerism. Fostering government and private support of tax incentives for mileage, flextime, corporate incentives, academic credit, liability protection, and strong infrastructures promotes participation from all sectors of society. We must be careful, however, that we do not focus all resources on formalized service opportunities such as AmeriCorps and Learn and Serve grants. These programs, while meaningful and productive, are not fully inclusive. They do not include corporate and/or government employee volunteers, traditional volunteers, or the vast potential reservoir of citizen activists who exist in our communities.

Government at the federal, state, and local levels can do more to strengthen the environment that enables citizens to be engaged. As major employers in this country, federal and state government can review their policies and attitudes toward volunteerism. They can promote, encourage, and perhaps offer incentives that allow employees the freedom to make a meaningful contribution of their time, talents, and energies. Government can serve as a leader in the promotion of "workplace volunteerism" by its employees.

Government—federal and state—can play a role in the dialogue with the business sector to encourage corporations to become civic partners through employee volunteerism. Resources should be devoted to incentives for corporate participation similar to the tax incentives given corporations to build in certain locations.

Government has a role in encouraging academic communities to continue to develop the research and body of knowledge to guide professionalism in volunteer administration and to develop interdisciplinary courses for managing volunteers in various settings, such as corporate, educational, non-profit, and government.

Government should designate financial resources to public relations campaigns to promote all forms of citizen participation such as volunteerism, national service, and service learning opportunities.

Government can provide financial resources and encourage the philanthropic community to support efforts in the non-profit community to build the infrastructure that allows citizen volunteers to contribute in meaningful, significant ways to the quality of life within their communities.

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ABSTRACT

Lessons about evaluations of volunteers and volunteer programs can be borrowed from the for-profit sector and reshaped to meet the needs of not-for-profit institutions. By assessing which situations would benefit from written, formal evaluations, then applying some of the same techniques corporations use to attract and retain valuable employees, the partnership between volunteers and institutions can be strengthened. This article focuses attention on the review of the organization from a volunteer's perspective.

Volunteer Evaluations — From a Volunteer's Perspective

Barbara Medaugh

INTRODUCTION

As part of my job as operations officer in a New York City bank, I wrote annual performance reviews for the three officers who were my direct subordinates and reviewed the evaluations of the 40 people who worked for them. I learned quickly this process was time-consuming, but could also be a very helpful tool for managers and staff people alike. The reviews allowed for reassessing the goals of the department and encouraged managers and staff to look for ways to enhance each person's contribution, according to that individual's strengths and skills. They also occasionally identified areas where procedures or personnel needed to be changed in order to revitalize the department. I was delighted to find that workers at all levels had valuable suggestions to make the department more efficient.

Since leaving the paid workforce 10 years ago, my volunteer work has included a wide variety of assignments, including blood donation units, field work involved in park cleanup and plant propagation, office administration, and assisting in the coordination of volunteer programs and special events. The longevity of these projects ranged from part of one day to a single assignment requiring several days each week for well over a year.

My years of volunteering have afforded me the many benefits that have been so well documented: opportunities to meet and work with some very talented people, to practice skills I already have and develop new ones, and feel that my work has made a measurable difference to the organization. It has also, at times, been frustrating because some of the organizations I have worked with, or thought about working with, didn't seem to take the donation of time as seriously as they would if the volunteers were paid. And there have been only a few instances when the volunteer administrator took the time to formally review my performance or give me the opportunity to review my assignment and the program in general.

This type of review may be even more important in the not-for-profit workplace than it is for corporations, since the nature of the relationship is that of a partnership between the institution and the volunteer. My objective here is to focus on the review of the organization from a personal perspective in the hope that it will encourage volunteer administrators to consider their policy of evaluations from a volunteer's point of view.

Barbara Medaugh is volunteer assistant for The Horticultural Society of New York. She holds degrees in accounting and business administration. She was a panelist at the program session entitled "Measuring the Immeasurable" at a meeting of the Mid-Atlantic Association for Museum Volunteers in Rochester, New York, in 1997. She participated in a follow-up panel discussing the same topic at a meeting of Volunteer Program Administrators in New York City Cultural Institutions in 1998.

RECIPROCAL NATURE OF EVALUATIONS

One of the differences between the corporate and the not-for-profit worlds is that evaluations in the not-for-profit sector are reciprocal. By this I mean that when I interviewed for a paid position, I needed the salary and I had only a few companies to interview. On the other hand, since the company probably had hundreds of candidates and they had the money, their power was far greater than mine to determine if I would be hired. Supply and demand factored into this equation and gave the corporation much greater influence over the outcome of the interview.

In the volunteer workforce the power is much more nearly equal because money isn't involved. This changes the whole spirit of the transaction. The assessments and evaluations become reciprocal whether or not both parties realize it on a conscious level. And while this may seem to make the relationship more precarious, it can make for a much deeper commitment than a salaried position would.

DECIDING WHERE TO VOLUNTEER

For me, the initial assessment begins when I realize I have some time to donate. The mental exercise of choosing an organization goes something like this: What do I know about the organization? What do they appear to be doing for the community? Would I feel proud being associated with it? Do I know someone who has had positive experiences with it? These initial questions address my perception of the image the institution presents to the community as well as my willingness to be associated with the ideals and goals of the work being performed.

My assessment continues through the application and interviewing process. By this time, the organization is evaluating me also. Does she have the skills and time and personality to contribute to our organization? Is the face that she's presenting likely to enhance our image within the community? Do we have a job that matches her time and abilities?

My decision whether or not to accept a volunteer position is made much easier when there is a discussion of the institution's mission, and a specific job description that identifies the task, the time requirement, and why the position is beneficial to the department. Occasionally there's even a volunteer handbook outlining the organization's policies and opportunities for volunteers. Volunteer handbooks are helpful because they give an idea of the corporate culture and policies as well as a broad overview of volunteer opportunities within the organization. But more importantly, job descriptions are a real indication that the department seeking volunteers has thought through the project, the time, materials, and space requirements, and the skills needed. In my opinion, where there are good job descriptions, the organization is more likely to value my time as a real donation. Fuzzy job descriptions worry me because I can't judge clearly if my skills are sufficient for the job, and I doubt that my interviewer can either. Additionally, there is a concern that if the project isn't clearly defined and organized at the outset, there may be wasted time when the project begins.

Once assigned to a project, whether it's part of a day or several months, the supervisor and I continue assessing the situation to see if it is meeting our needs. And at the end of the assignment, as before, both of us determine if the results are rewarding enough to try it again. What I'm really saying is that non-verbal evaluations are occurring on a regular and continuing basis. Formalizing the evaluation helps to ensure a positive outcome for the volunteer and the organization.

From experience within the corporate sector, I know performance evaluations can be complex and time consuming. There are so many considerations for the volunteer program administrator: the size of the volunteer corps, the scope and duration of the project, how many different departments an individual volunteer

reports to, how the volunteer feels about formal written evaluations, and how to get the cooperation of the direct supervisor in producing thoughtful, timely reviews.

I don't expect a formal, written evaluation after working on a short-term project. More often than not, the supervisor will check in periodically to make sure the work is progressing and the volunteers have the materials they need. At the end of each shift, there's usually a short discussion about any problems and general feelings about the work. At that time there is a sincere thank you for the help and the reciprocal evaluation continues. The supervisor decides whether or not to invite me back for this type of assignment and I decide whether to come back. This decision is based on whether the job was as described to me, whether the organization was prepared for my arrival with appropriate materials and adequate work space, whether I was comfortable with the behavior of the staff and other volunteers toward me, and if I understood the value of the work I've done for the group. In short, do I feel emotionally satisfied at the end of the shift? If the assignment finishes on a positive note for us both, then the partnership between us has been profitable for the organization.

FORMALIZED EVALUATIONS ARE HELPFUL

In longer assignments, I have found scheduled, formal evaluations—either written or verbal—to be very helpful. I have been privileged to work with two organizations that evaluated me on long-term projects. That the volunteer administrators took the time to review my work, talk to me about it and listen to my responses and then elicit my opinions, showed me they took my work seriously and we could measure the difference to the institution. In one instance, I was asked for a written report reviewing the project including my recommendations for making the event better in the future. With both these evaluations, I got a real sense of the partnership that's possible between the volunteer and the institution. I felt I was perceived as a valuable, contributing member of the team. Thinking specifically about ways in which my assignments might be done better, or more easily, increased my commitment and loyalty to both organizations. Additionally, the administrators' generosity in taking the time to evaluate my work and make suggestions for future projects further demonstrated the reciprocal nature of the relationship.

These evaluations were not performed using a pre-printed boilerplate type of format. They were both very job-specific, and were based on the job descriptions that had been given to me at the beginning of the assignments. A written format, rather than just a discussion, is useful not only with the current relationship, but also may be valuable to me and to the volunteer administrator in the future. It identifies for me which of my skills the organization values most highly and may encourage me to strengthen others. I can use it when I look for paid or unpaid positions. In addition, it gives the organization a written history when an administrator leaves and someone else takes the position.

To be most helpful, the evaluation should address several items. It should describe the project, and speak to the quality of the work, my respect for the time commitment I've made, my interactions with staff and other volunteers, any specific goals I achieved or helped the institution achieve, and suggestions for future growth. And it should allow the opportunity for me to evaluate myself and the program in the same manner. These are the same types of categories that many businesses use when evaluating staff people they wish to retain.

As important as I believe the written format to be, I'd interject a word of caution. I think that volunteer administrators need to treat written evaluations just as

they would any other personnel files, making sure they're held in confidence and don't include anything that would get either the institution or the individual in legal trouble if the confidentiality is broken.

CRITERIA FOR EVALUATING VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS

So far I've been discussing evaluations between individual volunteers and the organization. There is also an evaluation of the program as a whole. This becomes important because my experience with the program is going to be influenced by my perception of the importance of the program to the overall organization. If the organization doesn't respect the volunteer program, why would I want to be part of it?

Here are four criteria to help me measure the success of the volunteer program with respect to the volunteers.

1. *Demonstration of top management's commitment to the program.* A few examples of this commitment might be: Is the volunteer administrator an integral part of planning for events that will require volunteers? Does the director or CEO treat volunteers with the same courtesy as staff people are treated? Does the director or CEO volunteer and encourage staff people to volunteer also?

2. *Demonstration of financial commitment.* A budget sufficient to accomplish the goals of the program is essential. If, for example, the major means of communicating with the volunteers is through a monthly newsletter, but there's no budget for printing or postage, that says a lot about the importance of the program to the organization. At least one organization I've worked with required the volunteer administrator to develop an annual budget which was then submitted to the development office so funds could be raised through grants or donations specifically for this program. Two of the many messages in this policy were that: 1) the administrator needed to work closely with other departments to plan and fund projects for the upcoming year; and 2) the organization understood the value in spending money to get many times that amount in donated time.

3. *How are volunteers recruited, and retained?* If there is high turnover, either the volunteer administrator may not be a good manager or there are other obstacles that make the volunteers uncomfortable. Without long-term volunteers, as with employees in any other business, invaluable institutional memory may be lost.

4. *How effectively do the volunteers help the organization fulfill its mission? And how is this information conveyed to the organization, to the volunteers, and to the community?* The information may be statistical or anecdotal, but the important point is that volunteers actually help the organization serve its community and the organization recognizes the depth of that contribution.

Above are the four criteria a volunteer can easily use to evaluate a program's importance to the organization. Actually, there is a fifth, but much less visible one, for the volunteer. In an ideal world, candidates for staff positions would be asked if they have experience working with volunteers and then part of their performance evaluation would be linked to their success in training and supervising volunteers.

CONCLUSION

As in the corporate workplace, clearly thought-out projects, evaluations, and demonstrations of strong management commitment can enhance the value of the volunteer program to the organization in accomplishing its mission. I strongly believe that, in recognizing the partnership between volunteers and the institution, opportunities will present themselves for making a valuable relationship even better. My loyalty was increased when my strengths were recognized and I had a

partner in working for my growth as a volunteer within the organization.

The first challenge is to determine which projects and volunteers will benefit most from formal evaluation. Once this determination has been made, techniques used for the evaluation of paid employees can be borrowed and reshaped to be very effective tools for the volunteer corps. The same objective applies: attracting and retaining the best of the best. Without a salary increase as motivation, the volunteer administrator finds other ways of strengthening loyalty and commitment to the institution. In some cases, written, formalized evaluations can meet the objective.

ABSTRACT

The growing volunteer movement in America parallels a shift to "knowledge-based" companies. This shift increases the opportunity for people to gain knowledge-based job skills from non-traditional avenues such as volunteerism. This study investigates the link between gaining job skills through volunteering and career attainment. Results of a survey of recent college graduates indicate that volunteers gain a variety of job skills, especially managerial skills. Further, results show that career attainment as measured by one's interaction with data is positively related to job-related skills improved through volunteering. The study also found that while women volunteer at a higher rate than men and improve in similar job-related skills, there are no differential effects on career attainment between men and women from improving job skills through volunteering.

Doing Well by Doing Good: Career Attainment and Volunteerism

Lisa Klein Surdyk and Margaret A. D. Diddams

The April 1997 Presidents' Summit for America's Future, spearheaded by Colin Powell, President Clinton, and all living former presidents, thrust volunteerism into the limelight. The summit focused on the need for volunteerism, especially for partnerships between American corporations and their employees to volunteer to serve America's youth (Barnes, 1997). This was not just a passing media blip. Volunteer efforts in America have risen recently. In fact, Americans contributed 20.3 billion hours of their time in 1995, an increase of over one billion more hours than in 1993 (Gattuso, 1996).

Recent literature notes that corporate-sponsored volunteering has several beneficial side effects. While meeting local needs, it also enhances a corporation's standing in the community and it may lead to the development of leadership and management skills that can be utilized in the workplace (Ellis, 1993; Lee, 1995; Whitman, 1993). As a result, many American corporations, such as American Express, Equitable, Chevron and McGraw-Hill, actively encourage volunteering (Loeb, 1996). At IBM, 45 percent of its employees engage in volunteer work in their communities while Microsoft conducts an annual "day of sharing" so that employees may take the day with pay to do volunteer work.[1]

This growing interest in and appreciation of volunteerism parallels the increased importance of, and numbers of, "knowledge-based organizations" (Zuboff, 1988; Stewart, 1997). Stewart refers to knowledge-based organizations as firms "dependent on knowledge as a source of what attracts customers and clients and on information technology as a means of running the place." He adds that "in these firms, information replaces inventory and physical assets are replaced by intellectual assets (networks and databases)." In other words, compared to traditional companies primarily made up of tangible, or fixed, assets (buildings, machines, etc.), knowledge-based organizations have very few tangible assets.

Wall Street may actually value knowledge-based organizations more highly than other organizations. To illustrate, Stewart compares IBM Corporation, a more traditional firm, to Microsoft Corporation, a knowledge-based organization. As of November 1996, IBM's market capi-

Lisa Klein Surdyk is associate professor of economics at Seattle Pacific University in Seattle, Washington. To advance the cause of volunteering and community involvement, each quarter she recruits college students to volunteer with Junior Achievement to teach basic economic concepts in local elementary school classrooms. *Margaret A.D. Diddams* is an industrial/organizational psychologist and group program manager for metrics and measurement in Microsoft Corporation's information technology group in Redmond, Washington. Her research interests include identifying and facilitating intrinsic motivation associated with volunteer activities.

talization (stock price times the number of shares outstanding) had reached $70.7 billion compared to Microsoft's market capitalization of $85.5 billion. However, the two companies' tangible asset levels were strikingly different. While IBM owned fixed assets worth $16.6 billion, Microsoft's fixed assets were worth just $930 million (Stewart, 1997). As Mike Murray, Vice President for Human Resources at Microsoft Corporation, has stated, "our assets go home every night."[2]

Since employee knowledge replaces other fixed assets as a competitive advantage, the development of employee skills as an additional resource to be managed becomes increasingly important. A number of authors of popular press articles and academic researchers note that the maintenance and enhancement of important job-related skill sets may not only occur in traditional on-the-job training, but may also occur through volunteerism outside of the job (Lee, 1995; Whitman, 1993). Subsequently, while the corporate image is enhanced through employee community involvement, companies should not overlook the potential for individual career development through volunteerism, especially for employees who work for knowledge-based corporations where employee development is critical. As Howard Isenberg (1993), general manager of a manufacturing company, notes, certain volunteer experiences serve as an ideal training ground for promising managers in the corporate world, since non-profit organizations often provide volunteers the opportunity to put their skills to work immediately.

As a case in point, UPS developed a month-long off-site management development program that revolved around a community volunteer project. One of the program's goals was to help managers improve their motivational skills while increasing their understanding of people's sensitivities and individual needs—"soft skills" they were expected to integrate back into the workplace (Laabs, 1993). Perhaps the most dramatic example of the integration of volunteerism and career attainment is Arthur Fry, who in trying to solve a problem for his church choir—how to mark the day's hymns without damaging the hymnals—conceived the product that became 3M's Post-it notes (Stewart, 1997).

Employees themselves also may be motivated to volunteer for their own career development. While people may volunteer to enhance the social good, Smith (1983) noted that volunteers generally are "engaging in unpaid, uncoerced activities for various kinds of tangible and intangible incentives." Gidron (1977) found that in addition to the opportunity to serve others, volunteers also expected their activities to be a learning experience for self-development. For example, Setterberg and Schulman (1985) noted that while volunteers work with interesting people, develop self-esteem, and accomplish an important mission, they also have an opportunity to learn new skills. Likewise, Kyle Harris (1997) of the American Cancer Society notes that volunteer jobs "give you an edge in job-hunting, in strengthening relationships and in bolstering your talents."

Other articles focusing particularly on women's career development have also touted that skills gained from volunteerism may enhance career development by developing knowledge, contacts, and skill sets outside of the work setting (Hybels, 1978; Johnson, 1990). Such activities may enhance work-related skills leading to an alternative avenue to career development (Baskerville, 1993; Lee, 1995). In addition, since work-related skills can depreciate when layoff, illness, or childbearing disrupt work experience, volunteering may, as Unger (1991) noted, "allow people to rebuild or maintain employment skills when they are not participating in the job market ...".

Human capital theory suggests that greater career attainment is a logical outcome related to employee investment in variables such as experience and work-related training and education (Becker,

1975; 1985). For example, Zemsky, Lynch and Cappelli (1995) found that, on average, a 10 percent increase in workforce education led to an 8.6 percent increase in output for all industries, other things being equal. This effect rises to 11 percent for the non-manufacturing sector. Consequently, people who develop work-related skills outside of work may increase their human capital investment which, in turn, should lead to greater opportunities for career development.

Despite the intuitive appeal of this noble line of reasoning linking volunteerism to enhancement of employee skill sets, few if any researchers have produced empirical evidence showing a positive relationship between skill development through volunteering and career attainment itself. Wandersman and Alderman (1993) lamented that "the research literature on the costs and benefits of volunteerism ... is remarkably sparse," while Schram (1985) noted that "research on job skills and volunteer work has been minimal."

Consequently, the purpose of this investigative study is to: 1) identify the types of volunteer activities people engage in; 2) identify the types of skills people improve through volunteering; 3) examine the relationship between skills improved through volunteering and current job skills; 4) examine the relationship between skills improved through volunteering and career attainment; and 5) identify demographic differences in volunteer activities and their effect on career attainment.

METHODOLOGY

Method

The authors of this study mailed a six-page survey, with a cover letter from the university's Provost and Vice President of University Advancement, to a random sample of 487 undergraduate alumni of a small Pacific Northwest university who graduated between 1985 and 1990. After two weeks the alumni received a reminder postcard. Two weeks later they received another survey, which was followed in two weeks by another postcard.

Materials

The survey included separate sections asking respondents to report their career history, volunteer history, skills they improved through volunteering, and skills they used on their job. The authors prepared five different versions of the survey where the ordering of the sections pertaining to career, volunteer, and skills information differed in each version. Thus, 20 percent of the sample received Version #1, 20 percent received Version #2, etc. This way, responses to the survey would not be biased based on the particular order in which the sections appeared. Finally, each participant provided his or her age, sex, race, and college major.

The authors measured career attainment using the Department of Labor's *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* guidelines. Comparisons across or even within occupations can be daunting without a common metric. In the late 1930s the Department of Labor developed the functional job analysis in response to the demand of an expanding public employment service for standardized occupational information to support job placement activities (Department of Labor, 1991). The functional job analysis recognizes that every job requires a worker to function to some degree in relation to *data, people,* and *things.* Consequently, the Department of Labor has assigned each job a three-digit code according to its level of sophistication of interaction with data, people, and things. Table I shows the data, people, things measures the Department of Labor uses to describe each job. In general, worker functions involving more complex responsibility and judgment are assigned lower numbers, while functions that are less complicated have higher numbers. For instance, "synthesizing" and "coordinating" data are more complex tasks than "copying" data; "instructing" people involves a broader responsibility than "taking instructions-

TABLE I

Data, People, Things Measures

Data	People	Things
0 Synthesizing	0 Mentoring	0 Setting Up
1 Coordinating	1 Negotiating	1 Precision Working
2 Analyzing	2 Instructing	2 Operating-Controlling
3 Compiling	3 Supervising	3 Driving-Operating
4 Computing	4 Diverting	4 Manipulating
5 Copying	5 Persuading	5 Tending
6 Comparing	6 Speaking-Signaling	6 Feeding-Offbearing*
	7 Serving	7 Handling
	8 Taking Instructions-Helping	

Source: *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, Department of Labor, 1991, p. xiii.

Worker functions involving more complex responsibility and judgment are assigned lower numbers, while functions that are less complicated have higher numbers.

* Feeding refers to loading raw materials or goods in process, and offbearing refers to unloading finished goods.

helping"; and "operating" things is a more complicated task than "handling" things (Department of Labor, 1991). For example, a tax accountant has a 162 data, people, things designation. A tax accountant *coordinates* data (1), *speaks to or signals* people (6), and *operates* or *controls* things (2). In short, s/he has a fairly sophisticated interaction with data and things, but a fairly low-level interaction with people.

Participant demographics

Completed surveys were returned by 185 alumni giving a response rate of 38 percent, which is expected for this type of survey methodology (Weisberg, Krosnick, and Bowen, 1996). Of the respondents, 69 percent were women and 97 percent were white. The respondents' average age was 32 years. To determine whether the percentages of men and women who responded to the survey differed significantly from the percentages of men and women in the entire population from which the sample came, the authors calculated a statistic called a chi-square statistic (chi is pronounced "kigh"). This statistic will be larger than a particular value (called a critical value) if the observed and expected frequencies are substantially different. The chi-square statistic in this case was lower than the relevant critical value, indicating no significant difference by gender between respondents and the population.[3] Thus, we can be fairly confident that any results of analysis based on gender generally would apply to the entire population from which our survey sample was drawn.

Table II shows that most subjects (88 percent) were employed at the time they were surveyed, primarily in professional, technical, or managerial positions. Of the survey respondents, 10 percent were homemakers. The authors consequently removed the homemakers from the sample before performing data analysis pertaining to improving job skills through volunteering and career attainment since they had voluntarily extracted themselves from the workforce and were not currently involved in a job search.

TABLE II

Occupational Status of Respondents

Occupational status	Frequency	%
Professional, technical, managerial	130	70.3
Sales, clerical	19	10.3
Homemaker	19	10.3
Sole proprietor	10	5.4
Unemployed, student	4	2.1
Service worker, skilled laborer	3	1.6
Totals	185	100.0

FINDINGS

1. Identify the types of volunteer activities people engage in. Of the subjects responding, 81 percent reported having volunteered for at least one organization in the previous five-year period for an average of 20.5 hours per month, implying a regular commitment to volunteering. This result was slightly higher than a recent national survey that showed the typical volunteer in America volunteered for 218 hours in 1995, or just over 18 hours per month (Gerson, 1997). Table III indicates that respondents primarily volunteered for religious, social service, and educational organizations.

TABLE III

Volunteer Organization Types

Type of voluntary organization	Frequency of mentions	%
Church or religious organization	163	45.2
Social Service/Relief	73	20.2
Educational/Athletic	66	18.3
Professional	13	3.6
Health-related	12	3.3
Youth services	10	2.8
Political	8	2.2
Fraternal	6	1.7
Cultural	4	1.1
Environmental	4	1.1
Civic	2	.6
Totals	361	100.0

2. Identify types of skills people improve through volunteering. Survey respondents indicated, from lists of 47 skills, a) which skills they use in their current jobs and b) which skills they have improved through volunteering. The list of skills was developed from previous studies related to classification of job skills (Livingstone, 1971; Mintzberg, 1973; Schram, 1985; Teach and Govahi, 1993; Waters, 1980). Table IV (on page 16) lists the 47 skills classified into five categories: financial, management, public relations, research, and technical/professional. It also includes the percentage of respondents who reported that they used the skill in their current job, improved the skill by volunteering, and the percentage of respondents who reported that they both used the skill on their job and improved it through volunteering.[4] Of those who volunteered, 86 percent reported that volunteering enhanced certain job-related skills, most commonly *communication, leadership* and *motivating others*, with 63 percent, 49 percent and 47 percent of the sample, respectively (see Table V on page 17).

3. Examine the relationship between skills improved through volunteering and current job skills. Table V (on page 17) shows the 10 skills respondents most commonly improved through volunteering.

An important question raised by these 10 skills is if respondents improved a skill through volunteering, did they also use it on the job? The results of this analysis were quite remarkable. As shown in the last column of Table V, in most cases, over two-thirds of those who improved in these specific skills also used the skill in their current jobs. In some cases, specifically with communication, creative problem solving, and creative thinking, 80 to 95 percent of respondents who improved the skill through volunteering also used it in their current jobs.

4. Examine the relationship between skills improved through volunteering and career attainment. For this part of the analysis, the authors calculated correlation coefficients between the occurrences of job-related skills improvement and the level of attainment of respondents' current jobs as measured by the Department of Labor's data, people and things classifications.[5] A correlation coefficient is a measure of the linear association between two variables, and its sign indicates whether the relationship is positive or negative. A correlation coefficient of +1 would indicate that two variables are perfectly positively correlated, and a coefficient of –1 indicates two variables are perfectly negatively correlated. A value of zero indi-

TABLE IV

Skill Inventory Results

Skills	% of sample who used skill in current job (n=166*)	% of sample who improved skill via volunteering (n=134**)	% of sample who used skill in current job and improved skill via volunteering (n=134**)
FINANCIAL SKILLS			
Accounting	34.3	7.5	3.0
Bookkeeping	30.1	11.9	4.5
Budgeting	45.8	13.4	6.0
Fund raising	14.5	25.4	5.2
Effective grant writing	14.5	5.2	0.0
MANAGERIAL SKILLS			
Creative problem solving	86.7	38.1	32.8
Communication	94.6	63.4	60.4
Team building	74.1	43.3	32.1
Delegating responsibility	72.3	24.6	16.4
Leadership	71.7	49.3	37.3
Organization	87.3	36.6	30.0
Program development	50.6	34.3	21.6
Directing others' work	63.9	26.1	17.2
Interviewing	50.0	10.4	4.5
Conflict resolution	74.1	36.6	29.1
Enforcing rules	59.6	25.4	13.4
Adapting to new tasks	76.5	28.4	21.6
Performance appraisal	51.2	10.4	4.5
Decision-making	86.1	34.3	30.0
Assessment of situations	78.3	32.8	28.4
Seeing the "big picture"	80.1	38.8	30.6
Prioritizing	89.8	26.9	22.4
Time management	88.6	27.6	23.1
Creative thinking	78.3	38.8	31.3
Reflective listening	69.9	38.8	29.1
Planning	84.9	32.8	26.1
Forming coalitions	33.1	15.7	9.0
Motivating others,	69.9	47.0	32.8
Scheduling and coordinating	75.3	34.3	26.9
Goal setting	76.5	31.3	25.4
Conceptualizing	52.4	17.9	12.7
Exerting influence	56.6	25.4	19.4
Managing stress	78.3	24.7	28.4
PUBLIC RELATIONS SKILLS			
Making presentations	60.2	44.0	26.9
Persuading	49.4	23.1	18.7
Writing/Editing	63.3	22.4	17.2
Advertising	22.9	13.4	3.7
Sales	20.5	5.2	3.0
RESEARCH SKILLS			
Information gathering	66.3	17.2	13.4
Data analysis	57.2	12.7	10.4
Evaluation	65.7	15.7	13.4
Writing effective reports	48.2	13.4	10.4
TECHNICAL, PROFESSIONAL SKILLS			
Forecasting	23.5	3.7	3.0
Computer programming	21.1	6.0	3.7
Counseling, advising, teaching	60.8	38.8	28.4
Drafting, engineering	3.6	0.8	0.0
Mathematics	23.5	4.5	2.2

* 166 = number of non-homemakers in sample.

** 134 = number of non-homemakers who volunteered.

TABLE V

Ten Most Common Job Skills Improved by Volunteering

Skill	% of Sample (n = 134*)	% of people who improved skill through volunteering who also used skill in current job
Communication	63.4	95.3
Leadership	49.3	75.8
Motivating others	47.0	69.8
Making presentations	44.0	61.0
Team building	43.3	74.1
Counseling, advising, teaching	38.8	73.1
Creative thinking	38.8	80.8
Seeing the "big picture"	38.8	78.8
Reflective listening	38.8	75.0
Creative problem solving	38.1	86.3

*134 = number of non-homemakers who volunteered

cates no linear relationship. Job-related skill improvement was measured using indexes based on the five skill categories. The indexes only included skills where a significant majority of respondents reported using the skill in their current jobs. The Appendix lists the specific skills included in each index. Table VI contains the resulting correlation matrix which displays the correlation coefficient variables. A correlation is deemed significant, meaning the two variables are related, when the significance level (noted by *p*) is "low." Low is typically considered to be less than 0.10 or 0.05. The probability that a coefficient of 0.15 is obtained when there is no linear association in the population between the two variables is less than 0.05. In general, results in Table VI show significant positive correlation between career attainment as measured by interaction with data and management, public relations, and, to a lesser extent, financial skills. Further, results indicate significant negative correlation between career attainment as measured by interaction with things and management and public relations skills. By contrast, the people measures were not significantly correlated with any categories of skill improvement.

5. *Identify demographic differences in volunteer activities and their effect on career attainment.*

TABLE VI

Correlation Among Job-Related Skill Improvement and Data, People, Things Measures

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Data	—							
2. People	-.10	—						
3. Things	-.06	.23**	—					
4. Financial Skills	.15*	-.12	-.14	—				
5. Management Skills	.25***	-.12	-.21**	.37***	—			
6. Public Relations Skills	.22**	-.04	-.18*	.33***	.65***	—		
7. Research Skills	.12	-.03	.00	.29***	.40***	.40***	—	
8. Technical/Professional Skills	.09	-.01	.09	.04	.11	.17*	.31***	—

Significance levels: *$p \leq .05$ **$p \leq .01$ ***$p \leq .001$

(The *significance level* (noted by *p*) is the probability that the hypothesis being tested is actually true when it is rejected. The probability typically is considered "low" when it is less than 0.10 or 0.05.)

Gender

Of the women, 87 percent indicated they had volunteered. Of the men, 72 percent indicated they had volunteered. A chi-square test indicated that women's participation rate exceeded that of the men.[6] Table VII reports the 10 most common skills respondents reported having improved through volunteering. Chi-square test results indicated little or no significant difference between men and women in terms of which job-related skills they improve through volunteering. Further, to determine whether women and men had improved in the same number of skills, on average, the authors performed *t*-tests for independent samples of gender. *T*-tests can be used to test whether two population means (averages) are equal. The hypothesis tested in this case is whether the number of skills improved is the same for men as for women. If the resulting *t*-statistic is greater than a particular critical value, then the hypothesis can be rejected. In this case, the *t*-test indicated that the hypothesis cannot be rejected, so we can infer on average that women and men had improved in the same number of skills.[7] However, another *t*-test indicated that men had a significantly higher degree of career attainment as measured by data than did women.[8]

To summarize to this point, analysis of the survey data indicates a significant positive correlation between career attainment as measured by interaction with data and management, public relations, and, to a lesser extent, financial skills. Further, women and men had improved in the same number of skills on average, but men had a significantly higher degree of career attainment as measured by interaction with data than did women. Given these findings, the authors set out to determine whether women were more likely than men to have the managerial and public relations skills gained through volunteering affect their career attainment. The authors used step-wise regression analysis to make this determination. This technique provided the opportunity to investigate three relationships: 1) the unique influence that gender has on career attainment measures; 2) the unique influence that job-related skill improvement through volunteering has on career attainment measures; and 3) the combined influence of gender and job-related skill improvement over and above their unique influences. Table VIII (on page 19)

TABLE VII

Chi-Square Test Results of Gender Differences Across the Ten Most Common Job Skills Improved by Volunteering

Skill	X^2	d.f.	Significance level
Communication	.010	1	.922
Leadership	.124	1	.724
Motivating others	1.810	1	.178
Making presentations	3.360	1	.067
Team building	.187	1	.666
Counseling, advising, teaching	2.140	1	.143
Creative thinking	.579	1	.447
Seeing the "big picture"	.168	1	.682
Reflective listening	.579	1	.447
Creative problem solving	.004	1	.949

Notes to Table VII:

A *chi-square test* tests the hypothesis that there is no difference between the observed frequency of a particular sample and what one would expect. It can be used when one has knowledge about the population from which a sample is drawn. The chi-square test statistic will be large (greater than a particular critical value) if the observed and expected frequencies are substantially different. The *critical value* depends on the *degrees of freedom* (d.f.), the number of linearly independent sample observations used in the calculation of a statistic, and the *level of significance* the researcher uses. The significance level is the probability that the hypothesis being tested is actually true when it is rejected. The probability typically is considered "low" when it is less than 0.10 or 0.05.

TABLE VIII

Step-wise Regression Results

Part 1: Dependent Variable: Career Attainment—Data

Independent Variables	R^2	ΔR^2	ß	Standard Error
1. Gender	.033	—	.181*	.159
2. Management Skills	.096	.063	.253**	.178
3. Gender x Management Skills	.096	.000	.023	.386
1. Gender	.033	—	.181*	.159
2. Public Relations Skills	.074	.041	.204**	.127
3. Gender x Public Relations Skills	.079	.005	.145	.260

Part 2: Dependent Variable: Career Attainment—Things

Independent Variables	R^2	ΔR^2	ß	Standard Error
1. Gender	.021	—	.144	.383
2. Management Skills	.065	.044	-.212**	.434
3. Gender x Management Skills	.066	.001	.090	.939
1. Gender	.021	—	.144	.383
2. Public Relations Skills	.048	.027	-.166*	.309
3. Gender x Public Relations Skills	.048	.000	-.014	.635

Significance levels: * $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$

(The *significance level* (noted by *p*) is the probability that the hypothesis being tested is actually true when it is rejected. The probability typically is considered "low" when it is less than 0.10 or 0.05.)

Notes to Table VIII:

Regression analysis is used to analyze the linear relationship between a dependent variable (career attainment here) and one or more independent (or explanatory) variables (gender and skills here). The resulting value of ß is the slope of the line that best fits the data. *Betas* are indicators of the relative importance of explanatory variables. If the beta values are significantly different than zero (indicated in the table above with the asterisks), then we infer that the associated independent variables help explain the variation in the dependent variable.

Step-wise regression involves regressing the dependent variable on each independent variable separately and keeping the regression with the highest R-square (see below). After the first variable is examined to see whether or not it should be removed, variables not in the equation are examined for entry. After each step, variables already in the equation are examined for removal. Variables are removed until none remain that meet the removal criterion.

The four equations used in the regression analysis are as follows:

Part 1:

Data measure of career attainment = $\partial + ß_1$(Gender) + $ß_2$(Management Skills Index) + $ß_3$(Gender x Management Skills Index),

Data measure of career attainment = $\partial + ß_1$(Gender) + $ß_2$(Public Relations Skills Index) + $ß_3$(Gender x Public Relations Skills Index),

Part 2:

Things measure of career attainment = $\partial + ß_1$(Gender) + $ß_2$(Management Skills Index) + $ß_3$(Gender x Management Skills Index)

Things measure of career attainment = $\partial + ß_1$(Gender) + $ß_2$(Public Relations Skills Index) + $ß_3$(Gender x Public Relations Skills Index)

R^2, or *R-squared,* is a measure of goodness of fit of a regression model. Its value can range between 0 and 1. An R-squared of 1 (or 100%) indicates that the independent variables explain 100% of the variation in the dependent variable. The R-squared values in the table are quite low, indicating that other variables (not considered in this article's analysis) likely also help explain the variation in career attainment. Such variables might include education level, prior work experience, etc.

ΔR^2, or *Adjusted R-squared,* takes into account how many explanatory variables are used in the regression model. Thus, it does not necessarily increase as additional variables are added, as R-squared often does, and is the preferred measure of goodness of fit.

Standard errors are a measure of the difference between observed values of the dependent variable and the values predicted by the regression equation. Thus, they are a measure of goodness of fit of the model. The lower the standard error, the better the model's predictive power.

contains the regression analysis results. The notes to the table include a more detailed explanation of step-wise regression. Results indicate that career attainment as measured by data is significantly affected by gender (higher for men) and by the improvement of management and public relations skills, but they indicate no combined effects over and above these individual effects. Further, career attainment as measured by things is significantly affected by the improvement of management and public relations skills, but not by gender, nor by the interaction of skills improvement and gender.

Occupational status

Table IX lists volunteer participation rates by occupational status. Work by Holland (1973) suggests that people whose career orientations are more social in nature, such as teachers, nurses, and social service workers, may be more drawn to volunteer activities than would people in other occupations. However, chi-square tests showed that volunteer participation rates do not differ significantly by occupational status.[9]

TABLE IX

Volunteer Participation Rates by Occupational Status

Occupational status	Percent who volunteered
Sales, clerical	90
Professional, technical, managerial	81
Sole proprietor	80
Service worker, skilled laborer	67
Unemployed, student	50

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

The aims of this investigative study of recent college graduates were five-fold. First, it identified the types of volunteer activities people engage in and found that survey respondents volunteered most often for religious, social service, and educational organizations.

Second, it identified the types of job skills people gain through volunteering. Of those who volunteered, 86 percent reported that volunteering enhanced certain job-related skills, especially managerial skills. The most common skills improved were communication, leadership and motivating others. Respondents also reported they used many of the skills gained through volunteering in their current jobs. Therefore, if volunteers can gain such a broad range of skills through their volunteer efforts, they likely can transfer some if not most of these skills to their jobs. These results corroborate those of Schram (1985) who concluded, "it seems reasonable to assume any volunteer job has the potential to allow a volunteer to develop several salaried jobs skills."

Third, this study examined the relationship between improving skills through volunteer activities and current job skills. Results indicated a frequent overlap between improving in specific skills and using the skills in one's current job. For instance, with communication, creative problem solving, and creative thinking skills, 80 to 95 percent of people who improved the skill through volunteering also used the skill in their current jobs. These findings give credence to the work of authors cited in the introduction of this article such as Smith (1983), Gidron (1977), and Setterberg and Schulman (1985). These authors have noted that while people may volunteer to enhance the social good, they also may tend to volunteer to gain skills that can be transferred back into the workplace. Therefore, as people decide how and where to devote their volunteer time, they should be aware of job-related skills they want to develop. Further, volunteer administrators should facilitate skill development among their volunteers.

The fourth aim of this study was to examine the relationship between skills gained through volunteering and career attainment. The analysis here revealed positive significant correlation between career attainment as measured by interaction with data and improvement of managerial, public relations, and financial

skills. This result did not hold for people and things measures, however. In fact, results indicated significant negative correlation between things and management and public relations skills, and the people measures were not significantly correlated with any categories of skill improvement. A possible explanation may be that data and things tend to be opposites in the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles* designations. That is, people in careers with high interaction with data may have concomitantly low interaction with things. Conversely, one may conclude that people in jobs with a higher level of interaction with data are more likely to seek volunteer opportunities where they can gain job-related skills. An example of an occupation with a high level of interaction with data and a low level of interaction with things is a manager. In the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles*, most managerial jobs have a data designation of level 1—"coordinating"—and a things designation of level 7—"handling" (see Table I). Most managers, then, work at a sophisticated level with data (financial, personnel, customer, etc.) and at a simple level with things (phones, merchandise, etc.). By contrast, a driver has a data designation of level 6—"comparing"—and a things designation of level 3—"driving, operating."

Finally, this study set out to identify demographic differences in volunteer activities and their effect on career attainment. Results showed that while women volunteered more often than men did, volunteer participation rates did not differ significantly by occupation. Further, the study indicated that even though women volunteered at a higher rate than men and improved in similar job-related skill areas through volunteering, there appears to be no effect of the interaction between gender and skill improvement on career attainment. In short, this study found no evidence that volunteering provided women any special benefits in terms of career attainment.

In summary, this article describes a positive correlation between acquiring job-related skills through volunteer activities and career attainment as measured by interaction with data. One may conclude, then, that improving in management, public relations, research and technical/professional skills through volunteer work may enhance one's level of interaction with data in his or her job. If so, then this study gives partial support to human capital theory which, as explained in the introduction, suggests that greater career attainment is a logical outcome related to employee investment in work-related training and education (Becker, 1975; 1985). This notion has interesting implications for knowledge-based companies that rely primarily on the use of data. Specifically, life-long learning—a necessity for employees in these types of organizations—may occur through volunteer activities outside one's job.

This descriptive study adds to the existing literature on volunteerism and career development in that it inquired about specific volunteer activities and specific job skills improved through volunteering. However, a limitation of this type of study is its reliance on self-reporting to get a single snapshot of information from a small subset of the general population. Consequently, future research could utilize longitudinal data and possibly compare data from knowledge-based organizations such as Microsoft or other software development firms, and those that are more traditional, such as manufacturing companies (Boeing, General Motors, etc.), to see if the skill transfer from volunteerism affects people's career attainment differently, depending on the type of organization they work for. Future research could also identify which specific types of volunteer activities transfer to skill sets and analyze their subsequent effect on both organizational and individual improvement, focusing more specifically on differential effects for men and women. This study begins to lay the framework for future research on the benefits of volunteerism for the workplace.

APPENDIX

Skill Indexes Used in Correlation and Regression Analyses

Skill Index	Skills Included in Index
Financial Skills	Budgeting
Managerial Skills	Creative problem solving Communication Team building Delegating responsibility Leadership Organization Directing others' work Conflict resolution Enforcing rules Adapting to new tasks Decision-making Assessment of situations Seeing the "big picture" Prioritizing Time management Creative thinking Reflective listening Planning Motivating others Scheduling and coordinating Goal setting Exerting influence Managing stress
Public Relations Skills	Making presentations Writing/editing
Research Skills	Information gathering Data analysis Evaluation
Technical/Professional Skills	Counseling, advising, teaching

ENDNOTES

[1]Corporate policy supplied by second author.

[2]Personal communication to second author, September 30, 1996.

[3]Results of chi-square test: $X^2 = 1.73$, d.f. = 1, $p > .10$.

[4]Respondents could write in skills not included on the list of 47. Thirty-two skills were so added. Of those, only two (music notation and sequencing and computer data entry) could not be categorized among the 47 skills listed.

[5]The authors converted the data, people, things measures so that a higher number indicates a higher level of interaction with the data, people, or things items in order to clarify the correlation matrix.

[6]Results of chi-square test:
$X^2 = 18.64$, d.f. = 10, $p < .05$.

[7]Results of *t*-test:
$t = -.101$, d.f. = 113, $p = .920$.

[8]Results of *t*-test:
$t = 2.55$, d.f. = 144, $p = .012$.

[9]Results of chi-square test:
$X^2 = 8.50$, d.f. = 5, $p = .13$.

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ABSTRACT

In order for a volunteer program to be an integral component of an organization, it requires the strong endorsement of the administration. This article describes how one organization acquired that endorsement through a process of collaboration and compromise. A Statement of Commitment was produced and ratified. The statement identifies the organization's commitment to its volunteer community and staff's role and responsibility toward volunteers. The process is one that can be replicated in other organizations.

Building Commitment for the Volunteer Program: A Replicable Model

Terry Valeriote

INTRODUCTION

There are many initiatives being taken throughout the United States and Canada to further excellence in volunteer management. The discipline is growing in importance, increased responsibility, and professionalism. At the Alberta Children's Hospital in Calgary, Alberta, a Statement of Commitment has been adopted which it is hoped will serve as one more contribution toward the development of excellence in volunteerism.

BACKGROUND

Volunteers have been part of the Alberta Children's Hospital since its founding in 1922, but it was not until the early 1980s that a full-time volunteer resources department was formed. Its main focus was on the recruitment, training, placement, evaluation, and recognition of volunteers.

Experience revealed that a good volunteer program needed capable volunteers and efficient management support of them on a daily basis. Equally important, the volunteer program needed the support of the staff with whom the volunteers were regularly interacting.

A major initiative of the department focused on the staff/volunteer relationship, keeping staff up-to-date on the needs of volunteers, and showing them how they could more effectively relate to the volunteer community.

It was always understood that a truly successful volunteer program required a strong, unified organizational commitment and that this commitment needed to be made visible. Susan Ellis, (1986) in her book, *From the Top Down: The Executive Role in Volunteer Program Success,* stated: "After years of training and consulting with so many leaders of volunteers, I have become convinced that many of their concerns stem directly from a lack of substantive support from their agencies' top administrators." In concrete terms, she explains how the CEO and the board of directors should be directly and actively involved in promoting and making the volunteer program visible.

At our hospital, the administration had always been very supportive of the volunteer program, but more needed to be done. Why? Because there were inconsistencies. Not everyone had the same commitment to volunteers. While some staff felt that volunteers played an invaluable role in the hospital, others were quite indifferent. It was often said that volunteers were appreciated for what they did, but the lack of follow-up, such as a simple thank-you or even small tokens of appreciation, were sometimes lacking or given as afterthoughts. At times, volunteers

Terry Valeriote is one of the volunteer coordinators at the Alberta Children's Hospital in Calgary, Alberta, Canada. A former teacher, he has worked with volunteer coaches and sports administrators at the national level in Canada to develop coaching programs for all sports from entry to Olympic level. He has written on sport for children and was invited to Washington, DC, by the American Youth Sport Coaches Association to help develop standards for youth sports in the United States.

were taken for granted and asked to perform menial tasks with no effort taken to know their names or their backgrounds. The volunteer program also was seen as an appendage to the mainstream activities at the hospital, not an integral component in assisting the hospital fulfill its mission. Volunteer resources staff and volunteers were sometimes not given the opportunity to provide input into decision-making in the hospital that could affect them. It was even a struggle to have the volunteer voice presented at new staff orientation sessions.

A TURNING POINT

In 1997, the Volunteer Centre of Calgary hosted a workshop entitled "Training Busy Staff to Succeed With Volunteers." The facilitator, Betty Stallings from the United States, said that a successful volunteer program needed formal commitment and support from the top of the organization. Without genuine support from the administration, the volunteer program lacked credibility. The premise of the workshop provided the impetus to pursue stronger organizational support for the volunteer program at the Alberta Children's Hospital.

THE PROCESS

The process of gaining meaningful support for the volunteer program throughout the organization involved both collaboration and compromise. Many staff members were enthusiastic about the initiative. In fact, one said that given the valuable contribution volunteers had been making over the years, it was time the organization made this formal commitment to them. The process is outlined here.

Development of the Draft Statement

The concept was first discussed as part of the annual planning day of the volunteer resources department. A draft of a Policy of Commitment was presented and discussed at the meeting. The manager and staff of the department were very supportive of the concept. Over the next few months, the initial draft was refined by the volunteer resources department staff.

Sharing the Draft with Hospital Opinion Leaders

It was felt that the administration would not accept the concept unless there was support from all hospital staff. Consequently, it was decided to share the draft with several key people in the organization whose opinions were well respected. These individuals were selected from all areas of the hospital: inpatient, ambulatory, and human resources.

Revision of the Draft

The feedback received was thoughtfully presented and constructive. Two major changes were made. The term "supervision" was removed and replaced by the term "direct." Under the union contract, nurses who might be working with volunteers do not play a supervisory role.

Secondly, a clause specifying that staff directing volunteers would have this task formally included in their job descriptions was removed. With the many changes occurring in the regionalization of acute care facilities in Calgary, and with staff cutbacks, it was felt that the organization was not ready to implement this procedure. Rather than stall the process, or have the entire draft rejected, the clause was removed.

Presentation of the Draft to Administration

The two administrators of the hospital were invited to a luncheon meeting in the hospital hosted by the volunteer resources department. The purpose of the meeting was to update them about the volunteer program in general, the department's annual plan, and the draft Policy of Commitment. The agenda for the meeting was sent out beforehand along with the draft. After some discussion and clarification, the administrators agreed to sign it. There was only one change. Because of the administrative procedures that would have been necessary to have

something accepted as policy, the document was renamed a Statement of Commitment (see Appendix). The draft was subsequently presented to the two regional senior operating officers responsible for the hospital and its volunteer program and they too agreed to sign the document.

THE PURPOSE OF THE STATEMENT OF COMMITMENT

The statement serves to promote:

- A formal institutional/community philosophy toward volunteers rather than the volunteer resources department's or an individual's personal philosophy.
- A clear, consistent, comprehensive and cohesive standard in the organization's approach to volunteers that should be nurtured and maintained.
- The acknowledgement that volunteers are integral to fulfilling the mission of the hospital.
- A strengthening of the staff/volunteer relationship.

From the perspective of the volunteer administrator, the Statement of Commitment assists in facilitating his job. If there is difficulty regarding the staff's approach or attitude toward volunteers, the statement gives the volunteer administrator a strong organizational position on which to stand. No longer is there a struggle to have the volunteer voice presented at new staff orientations. Volunteer resources staff are now included in these orientations and each new staff person receives both an explanation and a personal copy of the statement.

INTRODUCTION OF THE STATEMENT

The Statement of Commitment was presented by the administrators of the hospital to the volunteer community of the Alberta Children's Hospital at the annual volunteer recognition evening in 1998. The statement on a bronze plaque was placed in the main foyer of the hospital for all visitors, guests, and staff to see. It was also displayed in the volunteer lounge.

A memo, along with the Statement of Commitment, was sent by the administrators of the hospital to all paid staff clearly stating the hospital's commitment to its volunteers. In part, it said:

> *It must be emphasized that the volunteers participating in over 28 areas of the hospital are not primarily volunteers of Volunteer Resources. They are the volunteers of the respective areas in which they are volunteering. As staff, we have a responsibility to our volunteers and we hope that this has been clearly identified in the "Statement of Commitment."*

Several departments have requested individual copies of the statement to frame and have placed them in their working areas.

OTHER DEVELOPMENTS

The Chief Operating Officer for all of the acute care hospitals in Calgary received a copy of the statement and sent this memo to the administrators of the Alberta Children's Hospital:

> *I wish to commend and congratulate you on the development of the statement of commitment to volunteers who work at the Alberta Children's Hospital. This fits in with the CRHA* [Calgary Regional Health Authority] *vision statement about working with communities for the development of excellence in health. The volunteers are members of our community and certainly give a very big commitment of hours to support us in the care of children and their families.*
>
> *I like this Statement of Commitment and would certainly encourage all other sites to develop a similar statement. The volunteers provide a tremendous support and service to all of us in providing quality acute care services in our facilities. Thank you*

for working with the volunteers at ACH and for getting staff to support the commitment to working with volunteers.

All acute care sites in Calgary are now developing similar Statements of Commitment.

CONCLUSION

Everything takes time and it's never too late to try something new. When a concept is right, it pays to have a plan and be persistently patient. Being aggressive or just simply dropping an idea that is not accepted are not productive choices. At the Alberta Children's Hospital patience paid off in increased commitment to the volunteer program throughout our organization and throughout the region.

The Statement of Commitment is the culmination of much that had gone on before and is also a new beginning. Much remains to be done to implement its goals throughout the entire organization, but the statement now provides a strong foundation to strengthen a valued volunteer program, forge meaningful volunteer/staff relationships and enhance the partnership between the organization and its volunteer community toward advancing its mission.

It is hoped that other volunteer resource departments who wish to further excellence in volunteerism by "taking it to the top" will benefit from the experience at the Alberta Children's Hospital.

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APPENDIX

STATEMENT OF COMMITMENT TO THE VOLUNTEER

The Alberta Children's Hospital recognizes the contribution of volunteers in assisting staff fulfill the mission of the hospital.

Towards the continued pursuit of excellence in volunteerism and in support of volunteers as valued members of the ACH team, the hospital's administration makes the following commitment to the volunteer community at ACH.

1. *The hospital will support a Volunteer Resources Department providing appropriate staffing to manage the volunteer program.*

2. *Hospital staff, both professional and support, who are directing volunteers will be oriented to the needs of volunteers. In specific terms, all new staff, as part of their orientation, will receive instruction from Volunteer Resources. All staff working with volunteers will receive ongoing education from Volunteer Resources as required.*

3. *Hospital staff will play a role in the orientation, directing, evaluation and recognition of volunteers working in their areas.*

4. *Staff will facilitate a positive environment for volunteers working in their areas. This will involve welcoming them, assisting them, mentoring them when necessary and thanking them regularly for their contribution.*

5. *Staff working with volunteers will be recognized for this contribution.*

Signed in March 1998 by the Administrative Leaders of the Alberta Children's Hospital and the Regional Senior Operating Officers responsible for the hospital and its volunteer program.

ABSTRACT

To study factors that contribute to volunteer commitment, questionnaires were sent to members of Baptist congregations who were, or recently had been, involved in volunteering. In this setting, how well the volunteer's position utilized her/his talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's/church's mission, a person's satisfaction in volunteering, and the religious and altruistic reasons for volunteering far outweighed material rewards and the desire to have personal needs met. This article adds to the limited literature on church-affiliated volunteers and suggests areas for further study.

Why Do They Do It? A Study of Volunteer Commitment in the Parish Setting

Marilyn C. Nelson

Jean is a 60-year-old woman who lives in the Maryland suburbs and comes from a middle class family. For the past three years, she has driven past blighted neighborhoods and drug deals in process in order to teach quilting to senior adults in an economically depressed neighborhood of Washington, DC. After years of working with people like Jean, I ask myself, "Why do they do it?"

Margaret and Glenn, a spirited retired couple, live among extended family on a beautiful hillside in North Carolina. They frequently leave this idyllic lifestyle to help people in settings ranging from a small Indian reservation in New Mexico to a small town in upstate New York. Again, I ask, "Why do they do it?"

After more than 20 years of work among Baptist churches and agencies, I have become increasingly conscious of the important role the lay person plays in the local church as well as in denominational agencies. As the director of a Baptist neighborhood center in Washington, DC, I depended heavily upon volunteers for service provision. This experience raised questions about the factors that contributed to volunteer commitment.

Earlier in my professional career I worked with volunteers who gave large blocks of time solely to ministry projects under the auspices of the Baptist denomination, often requiring them to relocate for a period of weeks to years. I became profoundly aware of the important contribution of church members. Most of the programs could not function without the volunteer, the lay minister. In noting the decline in volunteer commitment in some churches and the strong commitment in others, I began to question what made the difference. Why were some committed, while others were not?

The research reported in this article examined the relationship between volunteer commitment and the costs and rewards in volunteering. Volunteer commitment (the dependent variable) was defined as the value of volunteering and the probability of fulfilling that value. The hypothesis was that, when controlling for income, age, marital status, race, education, gender, and length of time as a volunteer, there would be a direct positive relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the rewards for the volunteers. It was also predicted there would be a direct negative relationship between the level of volunteer commit-

Marilyn C. Nelson trained, coordinated, and supervised volunteers throughout the United States from 1970 to 1983 as missionary consultant with the Baptist Home Mission Board. Under her leadership as director of Johenning Baptist Center and of Christian Social Ministries for the Washington, DC Baptist Convention from 1983 to 1993, over 50 volunteers committed weekly time to ministry activities. Another 150 contributed significant blocks of time annually. As professor of Christian ministry for the Baptist Theological Seminary at Richmond, she involves students in volunteer activities. Throughout her adult life she has been a volunteer lay minister in her denomination, filling a wide variety of roles.

ment and the cost in volunteering (factors related to personal and family concerns).

Independent variables included rewards to the volunteer and costs to the volunteer. Rewards to the volunteer included: trans-personal (religious and altruistic reasons for volunteering); social interaction (a person's need to be around people); material (the desire to have personal needs met); personal fulfillment (a person's satisfaction in volunteering); self-role congruence (how well the volunteer's position utilized her or his talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's/church's mission); relations with staff (satisfaction of the volunteer with her/his staff at the church/agency); relationships with clients (satisfaction of the volunteer with her/his relations with the people to whom he or she ministered); relationships with other volunteers (the level of involvement of the volunteer with other volunteers in the setting); and climate (the attitude of the church/agency toward the volunteer).

Costs to the volunteer included personal costs (personal or family concerns in volunteering), and environmental costs (costs concerning safety and availability of transportation).

THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework for the study was social exchange theory. Initiated by Homans (1961) and further developed by Blau (1968), exchange theory is concerned with exchanges between people. It focuses on the costs and rewards inherent in all social relations and attempts to explain why people enter into specific social transactions. Things exchanged involve not only money, but other commodities including approval, esteem, compliance, love, and affection. Blau's work recognized fairness in exchanges, the varying value of rewards, a person's multiple goals and preferences, and the social commitments that limit alternatives.

This theoretical perspective suggests why people volunteer when, in fact, there are limited or no economic returns. Social exchange theory was used in this study to determine what rewards contributed to volunteer commitment. It was also utilized to help determine what sustained the volunteers in continuing to donate their time and talents without economic returns.

THE STUDY DESIGN

A 15-page self-administered mail questionnaire was developed for the study. The questionnaire requested information about the respondent such as age, gender, marital status, and work experience. It also asked questions concerning the person's past and present volunteer involvement such as setting, length of time volunteered, and people served. A few open-ended items were included which sought additional data, such as recommendations for preparation for this volunteer position, the most difficult aspect of the volunteer work, and the greatest advantage of the volunteer work. The remainder of the questionnaire contained descriptive items concerning rewards and costs in volunteering. The purpose of this design was to examine the relationships between the independent variables (costs and rewards) and the dependent variable (volunteer commitment).

THE STUDY POPULATION

The study population included Baptist church volunteers from Northern Virginia and the Richmond, Virginia, areas. These Baptist church volunteers were persons whom the pastor or staff member believed were currently or had recently been involved in volunteer activities within the church or in church-related agencies outside the church. A total of 47 pastors or church staff members submitted 1,108 names. Questionnaires were sent to all of these individuals. Of these, 628 were returned for an overall response rate of 56.7 percent. Of the 628 questionnaires, 66 were unusable resulting in a usable response rate of 50.7 percent.

STUDY FINDINGS

Most of the volunteers in this study were white, largely from an affluent population, had attended college, were middle-aged and married. They ranged in age from 19 to 84 years, with a median age of 54 years. Of the respondents, 16 percent were under age 40, and 18 percent were above age 69, which suggests that churches should target younger as well as older people for volunteer work. The ethnic background of almost the entire study population was white with an over-representation of white women in the study population when compared with women in all Baptist churches and in the nation as a whole. More than two-thirds of the respondents were women, as compared to just over one-half nationwide and churchwide. Of the respondents, 95 percent were white, as compared to approximately 80 percent nationwide and 77 percent in Virginia (Scan/US, 1995). More than 80 percent were married. Close to 60 percent had partial college or a college degree, whereas 16 percent had never attended college, and 25 percent had done postgraduate work. Incomes ranged from $20,000 to $79,999, while close to one-third had incomes over $80,000. Only 6.0 percent had incomes under $20,000.

Most volunteers became engaged in volunteering because they were asked to volunteer. This points up the importance of actively approaching people concerning volunteer needs. Most of the volunteers did not have job descriptions, nor did they have contracts, an area which should be given consideration by volunteer coordinators or directors in church-related volunteer programs.

Although most of the respondents had no special preparation for their volunteer positions, they found their background experiences extremely helpful. In addition, they reported they received adequate training on the job. They served mainly middle and upper-middle class persons. Few received reimbursement. If they did, it was generally for supplies. This points out that reimbursement or monetary gain is not a factor in volunteering with this population. It also points out that life experiences help in preparation for volunteering, as does on-the-job training.

VOLUNTEER PROFILE

According to the study data, the typical volunteer was a white woman between the ages of 40 and 59. She had some college training and was married. Her household income was approximately $65,000. She was a church member and probably also related to religious organizations on the associational or state level. She had been a member of various committees in her church and most likely held an office in the church. She was employed full-time in a white collar professional job.

The primary setting of her volunteer activity was the church. She had volunteered 15-20 years, her primary activity being that of educator or commission member. She initially became involved in volunteering because she was asked to do so. Her volunteer position provided no job description or written contract, and she came without training. Her previous education and work experience proved helpful, and she did feel that she received adequate training during her volunteer experience. The people she served in her volunteer position were middle, upper-middle, or mixed class in a suburban locality. Except for occasional supplies, she received no reimbursement for her volunteering. She did not participate in volunteering for any monetary gain.

FINDINGS RELATED TO THE STUDY HYPOTHESIS

Among the study participants, volunteer commitment was high and they were committed to religious and altruistic ideals. They also experienced high levels of self-role congruence (a feeling that one's volunteer position utilized one's talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's mission), positive relationships with those to whom they ministered, and a positive organizational climate.

The data show that respondents did not gain material rewards from their volunteering. These data suggest that church volunteers are often willing to accept any costs associated with volunteering as part of their commitment to the church and to God.

The study findings related to the hypotheses showed that the major variables positively correlated with volunteer commitment were self-role congruence, personal fulfillment, and altruistic and religious rewards. Personal or family costs in volunteering were not notable. Social interaction, relationships with clients, staff, and volunteers, and climate were not significantly correlated with volunteer commitments either. There was no support for the sub-hypothesis that the higher the personal material rewards, the higher the volunteer commitment. In fact, the opposite influence was found to be true.

Those who felt the most strongly committed to their volunteer involvement and to volunteerism in general had a strong sense of self-role congruence. They found their skills valuable to the agency and their interests congruent with agency goals. Volunteering lived up to their expectations and was well suited to their talents. They planned to continue to volunteer and to encourage others to do so.

Personal fulfillment was also significant in influencing volunteer commitment. Those who found in volunteering an opportunity for self-expression and personal growth felt strongly committed to volunteering. The volunteers in this study found that through engaging in meaningful work they broadened their knowledge and developed their creative potential.

According to the data, these Baptist church volunteers consider it a favorable exchange to give their time and energy to activities that use their skills and talents through which they experience personal growth and the release of creativity. These findings have important implications for church-related agencies. They need to find challenging jobs for this population of volunteers, not merely routine activities such as stuffing envelopes or answering the phone. Church-related agencies may find diminishing volunteer commitment if the talents and skills of the study group of volunteers are not used for meaningful roles rather than exclusively for menial tasks.

Volunteers who defined rewards as being beyond one's self and connectedness with God and humankind experienced high levels of volunteer commitment. The volunteers in this study volunteered to meet the needs of others and to provide a service for someone else and for the purpose of serving God by helping others. They were following the leadership of God in sharing their spiritual gifts with others and they wished to bring joy into the lives of others and make their world better.

In this study, personal material rewards were negatively correlated to volunteer commitment. Those who volunteered in order to meet influential people, to get practical experience, to learn new skills, to get ahead in a career, or to investigate new career possibilities had low volunteer commitment. In fact, the more important these material rewards were to them, the lower their level of volunteer commitment.

Social interaction rewards did not have statistically significant influence on volunteer commitment. The respondents were less likely to volunteer to make new friends, to have meaningful social contacts, or to be in a stimulating social environment. They were less likely to volunteer in order to feel accepted and valued by others, to be around interesting people, or to be with people they knew and enjoyed. According to the demographic findings of this study, the people who responded to this survey were well educated and well socialized and had well established social networks which may have influenced these findings. They possibly were not seeking the volunteer context for social interaction rewards.

In the overall study results, the need to feel affirmed, appreciated, and respected by the people the volunteers helped did not significantly influence their commitment. Nor did their relationship with staff or other volunteers. The volunteers in this study did not have a great need for affirmation. That does not necessarily mean they would continue to volunteer if their relationships were negative or if they were treated shabbily. The need for positive relationships may not be driving this group of volunteers, but this finding does not address the effects of negative relationships.

Climate, or the prevailing attitude of the agency toward the volunteer, was not a significant influential factor on volunteer commitment in this study. The amount of emphasis on and respect toward the volunteer was not significant in volunteer commitment. How volunteers are treated may not be as big a factor as the sense of satisfaction from their volunteer contributions. Their commitment may be high enough that minor irritants would not cause them to quit. However, it is still reasonable to believe that a highly negative environment would drive volunteers away. While they may not demand a strongly affirming climate, it is unlikely they would have a high level of commitment if the atmosphere of the agency or church were highly negative. This needs to be addressed in future studies.

Costs, or factors which could deter a person from volunteering, were not significant in volunteer commitment. Environmental costs included driving through a dangerous neighborhood, difficulty in commuting, and commuting after dark. Given the fact that most of the respondents volunteered in suburban neighborhoods with middle or upper-middle class individuals, it is not surprising that environmental costs were not high. They probably did not encounter dangerous neighborhoods as a part of their volunteer involvement. Also, given the affluence of the volunteers, they probably had access to safe and dependable transportation. Yet, it is somewhat surprising that personal costs were not a deterrent to volunteering. These costs included caring for children and/or senior adults, feeling overwhelmed by the needs presented to the volunteer, and lack of confidence in their own skills and talents. These were insignificant to volunteer commitment.

Of all the control variables (income, age, marital status, education, race, gender, and length of time as a volunteer) only length of time as a volunteer had any influence on volunteer commitment, and it was slight. The longer the period of service as a volunteer, the higher the volunteer commitment.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was limited in its focus to volunteers from Baptist churches. Care should therefore be taken in generalizing to a wider population. Most of the volunteer activity of participants took place in their local church. This has only limited generalizability to other than church-related agencies. In addition, names of these volunteers were obtained form church staff. Although criteria for including volunteers in this study were given to staff, the opinions of the staff were relied upon in determining whether or not these were active volunteers.

Members of non-Anglo groups were under-represented in this study. Therefore, their unique perspectives and experiences were not examined.

The study also was limited by the drawbacks of self-reported data. While there is ample evidence to support the use of this form of data collection, the content of this study was derived from the perceptions of the volunteers. It was not deemed feasible to elicit the comparative perceptions of others in the setting or to use participant observations. However, use of these alternative methods of data collection might have strengthened objectivity.

Utilization of mail-questionnaires without a supportive method of data collection, such as representative interview samples, was another limitation of this

study. This procedure would have provided additional qualitative information for more in-depth study in selected areas.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ACTION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

Recommendations are based on the present research. They are organized around three major content areas: methodological concerns, contribution to social exchange theory, and contribution to the knowledge base about volunteers. Rationales specific to each recommendation are included with this presentation of the recommendations.

METHODOLOGICAL CONCERNS

Sample Base

As noted in the study findings, two-thirds of the respondents in this survey were women, while only 51 percent of the national population and of the church population is female. Research findings show that both men and women provide valuable volunteer services. Research also indicates that there are more women than men in the volunteer force. Future studies need to be conducted to determine why women volunteer in larger numbers than do men. Factors which motivate men to volunteer also need to be investigated.

There are very few studies concerning ethnic involvement in volunteering. Efforts need to be made to determine the involvement of minorities and people from non-Anglo groups in church-related volunteer activity. Motivational factors for greater involvement in volunteering need to be determined. This study could be replicated or a similar study conducted in other communities.

Predictors of Volunteer Commitment

This study was conducted with Baptist church members and contains the biases of that population. Valuable contrasts could be obtained through replicating the study with a secular population or with other religious groups. Other independent variables which influence volunteer commitment might emerge. It would be especially interesting to find out whether or not religious and altruistic rewards are significant for volunteers in the secular community.

Because the independent variables in this study only explained approximately one-third of the variation (or influence on) volunteer commitment, studies should be conducted that seek to identify other predictors of volunteer commitment, such as the types of positive and negative influences related to middle-aged or older volunteers. This has important implications for volunteer satisfaction and retention.

Most of the volunteers in this study were of the middle and upper class and volunteered with a similar client group where safety was not an issue. This study could be replicated with a sample drawn from a lower socioeconomic status who provide services in poorer neighborhoods. Would environmental costs become a significant factor?

In this study, personal costs were not significant predictors of volunteer commitment. Including items in future studies concerning family situations such as number and ages of children, single heads of households, and care-givers for parents would reveal whether or not these factors influence volunteer commitment or the ability to volunteer.

Although the study respondents were satisfied with their preparation for their volunteer positions, studies to determine the type and effectiveness of training for volunteer positions need to be conducted. The difference training makes on the volunteer's ability to function well and independently needs to be determined. It would also be helpful to know the relationship of training to length of service. Knowledge concerning types and duration of training for optimum effectiveness for the volunteer is needed.

Only 15 percent of those in this study had written job descriptions and contracts. Studies need to be conducted to determine why these administrative tools are not used more widely with volunteers

in these settings and if they are widely used in non-church related settings. Contracts clarify roles and responsibilities and formalize the relationship with the volunteer, thus potentially strengthening volunteer commitment. It would be useful to examine the utility of contracts and to determine what might motivate agencies, particularly religious organizations, to implement the utilization of written contracts. The importance of contracting needs to be considered by those who recruit and supervise volunteers in church-related settings.

Climate (the attitude of the church-based agency toward the volunteer) was not significant in this study. It would be useful to examine other aspects of organizational climate that might be associated with volunteer commitment.

CONTRIBUTION TO EXCHANGE THEORY

This study extended the use of social exchange theory to the volunteer population. It showed the types of exchanges that were meaningful to volunteers. Findings in this study helped to clarify the types of exchanges in volunteer work in the study population and those that were associated with volunteer commitment.

This study showed that intangible rewards (such as utilization of a person's talents and skills and the ability to provide a needed service) can be more significant than tangible exchanges (such as payment for service) in commitment to a job. Rather than expecting material rewards or considering the costs in exchanges, the volunteers in this study were concerned with the fit between their interests and the church or agency goals. These intangible exchanges were the most significant to the volunteer.

The study findings highlight the usefulness of exchange theory in understanding volunteer commitment. Further studies need to be done to examine the significance of non-tangible exchanges in non-church-related settings as well as in other organizational structures.

CONTRIBUTION TO THE KNOWLEDGE BASE CONCERNING VOLUNTEERS

Since no empirical studies in the past two decades could be located on volunteer commitment in the church setting, this fills a gap in the literature on volunteers. The results of this study point to the types of exchange relationships involved in the commitment of the church volunteer. It provides information about the nature of the commitment of the church volunteer and suggests significant predictors of volunteer commitment.

With reductions in funding and the increases in needs of the community, churches and church-based agencies should give greater consideration to the development of volunteer programs. Knowledge of the importance of intangible rewards to the volunteer could help church-based agencies incorporate such rewards into their program designs. The agency needs to be aware of the skills and interests of the volunteers and seek to match these with their volunteer tasks. Those intangible rewards the agency should offer can enhance volunteer commitment.

CONCLUSION

Volunteerism has been strongly woven into the fabric of American society. The contribution of volunteers has become increasingly important through the development of the team concept where social workers work with representatives in other fields to provide the most comprehensive plan of care for the client, and because of personnel shortages in the independent sector. Traditionally, volunteers have been involved in church-related services and in recent years social workers have developed social service programs (social ministries) in congregational and parish structures. The purpose of this study was to examine selected factors that influence volunteer commitment in church-related services. More recently, the contributions of the volunteer have become critical in the delivery of services,

as needs are greater than can be met by the paid professional.

Similarly, the volunteer, or lay minister, in the parish setting is of central importance in the ongoing ministries of the church. Knowledge of the factors that contribute to the committed parish volunteer should aid in the successful development of programs that are dependent on volunteers.

From a theoretical perspective, this research extended the use of social exchange theory and showed the significance of intangible exchanges in social interaction. The data generated by this study add to the knowledge base of volunteering and should be useful to social work practitioners and volunteer coordinators, as well as to those conducting volunteer programs in church-related settings.

AUTHOR'S NOTE

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences was the computer program utilized to analyze the data. The demographic and volunteer related information was analyzed by simple frequencies and percentages and through measures of central tendency and variability. Pearson's product moment correlation and stepwise multiple regression analysis were also utilized.

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ABSTRACT

This study examined age differences in the volunteer experience, frequency of participation, and motivation for serving among a sample of volunteers ranging in age from 18 to 87. Age differences emerged regarding the type of volunteer experience and frequency of service. Older volunteers were more likely than younger ones to report performing clerical duties and interacting primarily with people their own age. Altruistic motives propel volunteers of all ages to serve, but older adults emphasized the need to stay active or fill their days.

Age Differences in Volunteer Participation

Beverly Black and Ronald L. Jirovic

Numerous studies in the literature address aspects related to the motivations of volunteers, descriptions of volunteer experiences and activities, and frequency of volunteer service (Clary, Snyder, and Stukas, 1996; O'Reilly and Caro, 1994; Thomas and Finch, 1990). Many studies examine them among older adults especially those over 65 (Caro and Bass, 1995; Chambré, 1984, 1993; Stevens, 1991). However, few studies discuss these aspects of the volunteer experience in relationship to age differences among volunteers (Herzog, *et al.*, 1989). This study examines age differences in the type of volunteer experience, frequency of volunteer service, and motivations for volunteering.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Type of Volunteer Experience

Generally, adults of all ages perform similar volunteer activities and contribute most of their time working directly with other people (O'Reilly and Caro, 1994). However, there is some growing evidence that the volunteer experience may differ somewhat for older and younger adults. Older adults may focus more of their volunteer activities on clerical tasks and fund raising than younger adults (Black and Kovacs, in press, 1998; Lee and Burden, 1991). Older women are more likely to perform activities related to traditional gender roles, such as preparing for or cleaning up after a social event (Fischer, Mueller, and Cooper, 1991). Low-income older adults tend to carry out a limited range of volunteer roles concentrating in areas such as delivery of meals, helping with personal care, or providing support services such as telephone reassurance (Jirovec and Hyduk, in press). Additionally, older adults spend the largest number of their volunteer hours in church-related service (Fischer, *et al.*, 1991; O'Reilly and Caro, 1994).

The nature of the interpersonal contact involved in the volunteer experience may also vary by age. Older adults are more likely to be segregated into activities involving other older adults (Fischer, *et al.*, 1991; O'Reilly and Caro, 1994) which may lead to lower levels of contentment with their volunteer experience (Jirovec and Hyduk, in press; Strom and Strom, 1994).

Frequency and Regularity of Volunteer Service

Older adults have historically volunteered in smaller percentages than adults in youth to middle age (Caro and Bass, 1995; Clary, Snyder and Stukas, 1996). However, Chambré (1993) suggests that

Beverly Black's doctoral dissertation and much of her subsequent research focuses upon volunteerism. She served as a member of the faculty at Texas Christian University and Florida International University and currently teaches in the area of human behavior in the School of Social Work at Wayne State University in Detroit, Michigan. *Ronald L. Jirovec* is an associate professor within the School of Social Work and a faculty associate of the Institute of Gerontology at Wayne State University in Detroit. His research interests include welfare reform, political and senior center participation among the elderly, and formal volunteerism. His most recent work focuses on volunteerism and health among older adults.

senior volunteering is on the rise. Chambré estimates that approximately 40 percent of seniors volunteer today compared to only 10-20 percent in the 1960s and 1970s and partially attributes this increase to the rising affluence and educational levels of the aged.

Although more older adults are volunteering and may be donating time to more than one agency or organization, they may not be volunteering large amounts of time (Fischer, *et al.*, 1991). A study examining the volunteer activities of older Minnesotans found that the mean amount of time spent in volunteering was about three hours weekly. Fewer than 10 percent contributed as many as 10 hours per week (Fischer, *et al.*, 1991). Other studies also suggest that older adults may be volunteering only 70-80 hours of their time annually, or approximately six hours per month (Herzog, *et al.*, 1989; Herzog and Morgan, 1993).

Motivations

Volunteers most often cite altruism when asked their reason for volunteering. Researchers, however, concur that multiple motives propel people to volunteer (Smith, 1982). Literature investigating volunteer motivation classifies motives into models ranging from two to six categories (Clary, Synder, and Stukas, 1996; Gidron, 1984; Morrow-Howell and Mui, 1989).

One prominent two-category model of volunteer motivations distinguishes between egoistic and altruistic motives (Horton-Smith, 1981). Three category models of motivation (Morrow-Howell and Mui, 1989) often add a social motive category (e.g., feeling lonely). Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen (1991) contend that none of the category models of volunteer motivation sufficiently explain the reasons why people volunteer. They argue that motives for volunteering constitute an unidimensional phenomenon—a phenomenon which possesses only one basic concept or experience. The phenomenon encompasses both altruism and egoism; it does not distinguish between them. Cnaan and Goldberg-Glen state that volunteers act not from a single motive or a category of motives but from a combination of motives that can be described overall as a "rewarding experience."

Although the desire to help may be a prevalent motivation of volunteers for all ages (Fischer and Schaffer, 1993, Smith, 1982), Morrow-Howe and Mui (1989) suggested that it may be even more common among older volunteers. Several studies (Cohen-Mansfield, 1989; Kuehne and Sears, 1993; O'Reilly and Caro, 1994) have identified altruism as one of the primary reasons that older adults seek out volunteer activities. Gillespie and King's (1985) study of Red Cross volunteers found that nearly twice as many volunteers over the age of 65, compared to those aged 18-25, reported "helping others" as a motivation for volunteering. In contrast to this finding, only 1.3 percent of those over age 65 compared to 31 percent of the 18-25 year olds reported "to obtain job training and skills" as a motivation to volunteer.

The literature consistently identifies one important difference between the motivations of older and younger volunteers on the issue of time. Older volunteers are more likely than younger volunteers to see volunteering as filling a need for activity and they are more likely to report that they volunteer because they have time or want to keep busy and active (Fischer, *et al.*, 1991). Lee and Burden's (1991) study of the volunteering activities of seniors found that the greatest percentage of volunteers (36.7 percent) reported that they were motivated to serve because they needed "something to do."

In summary, there is little literature addressing aspects of the volunteer experience in relationship to age differences among volunteers. Preliminary findings on age differences among volunteers suggest that older and younger adults may differ in the type of volunteer experience they have, frequency of their service, and in some of their expressed motivations for serving.

THE STUDY

Our review of the general volunteer literature and, more specifically, the literature on volunteerism among older adults and age differences among volunteers, led us to pose the following research questions. How does the volunteer experience differ for younger and older adults? How does the frequency of volunteer service differ for younger and older adults? And how do the motivations to serve as volunteers differ for younger and older adults?

Sample

With the cooperation of the respective executive directors, participants were drawn from the volunteer lists of Community Services of Oakland (CSO) and Oakland County Mobile Meals (OCMM). Both agencies are located in the Detroit metropolitan areas of southeastern Michigan. CSO is similar to a settlement house, serving the concrete and counseling needs of primarily low-income clientele. CSO has approximately 20 staff persons and 75-90 volunteers. OCMM primarily delivers food boxes to low-income families and serves as a congregate nutrition site for older adults. It operates with a small staff of two to three full-time employees and relies heavily on its 100-150 volunteers to assemble, serve, and transport meals.

Of the 54 volunteers from OCMM asked to participate in the study, 51 agreed and were personally interviewed about their volunteer experience at OCMM. Due to the difficulty of having personal access to volunteers at CSO, 83 volunteers at CSO were mailed a survey version of questions about their volunteer experience. Questionnaires were returned by 43 of these volunteers for a response rate of 52 percent. Verbal and/or written informed consent was secured from all subjects.

The 94 participants in the sample ranged from 18-87 years of age. Participants were primarily female (57 percent/94 percent), white (91 percent/94 percent), high school graduates (mean years of education=14.5), married (53 percent/94 percent) and reported a wide range of income levels. Moreover, sample participants were in sound physical and emotional health.

Measurement

The questionnaire was based on a protocol developed and pre-tested by Jirovec and Hyduk (in press). Formal volunteer activities were assessed via 21 "yes-no" items designed to tap the qualitative (e.g., motivation, previous experiences, type of volunteer activity) as well as the quantitative aspects of volunteer participation (e.g., frequency of volunteer participation, number of hours donated, number of organizations for which the respondent volunteered). In total, the protocol contained 40 items and required approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Eleven demographic questions assessed age, gender, race, marital status, education, work status, living arrangements, home ownership, transportation, income, and level of social interaction. Level of social interaction was measured by determining the number of close friends or relatives living in one's neighborhood who could be considered confidants. Physical health was measured in terms of illness (e.g., number of housebound days, number of days spent in the hospital in the past year), as well as functional capacity (e.g., number of neighborhood walks taken per week). The short version of Bloom and Blenkner's (1970) contentment scale was utilized to measure psychological well-being among our respondents. Findings related to the physical and psychological well-being are reported in Jirovec and Hyduck (in press).

RESULTS

Analyses examined age differences among volunteers. *T*-tests, a common statistical test used to compare the averages (means) of two groups, were used to analyze mean age differences in type of volunteer experience, regularity of volunteer

service, and motivations for serving. Results of the *t*-tests reveal how likely the differences in the averages (means) between the two groups could have occurred by chance. One-way ANOVA and post-hoc analyses were used to determine if the mean ages differed among volunteers performing various frequencies of volunteer service. ANOVA is a statistical test used to compare the averages (means) of three or more groups. Post-hoc analyses is a statistical procedure used following an ANOVA to determine which of the group averages (means) differed from one another. The number of responses varies among analyses due to participant omission on specific items

Type of Volunteer Experience

Aspects of the volunteer experience varied significantly by age. Table I describes the number and mean age of volunteers who reported that certain activities were or were not a part of their volunteer experience. Older volunteers were more likely to report that their volunteer experience entailed office or clerical work. Volunteers who reported that their activities usually involved clerical work had a mean age of 68.9 compared to

TABLE I

Age Differences in Type of Volunteer Experience

Volunteer Responses (n=94)

	YES			NO		
Volunteer Experience	mean age	number	standard deviation**	mean age	number	standard deviation**
Efforts were recognized by the organization	62.2	81	17.0	56.5	10	19.1
Volunteering was what expected it to be	60.9	87	17.1	77.7	3	6.7
Activities usually involve office or clerical work	68.9*	24	10.2	58.4*	67	18.6
Activities typically involve personal contact with people	60.9	90	17.3	57.5	2	20.5
Work involves personal contact with people of own age	69.7*	45	14.8	52.7*	46	15.6
Work involves personal contact with people from different generations	56.6*	66	16.4	71.9*	26	14.8
Reimbursed for expenses associated with volunteer work	64.4	16	16.4	60.4	77	17.5
Provide own transportation for volunteer work	60.9	88	7.3	65.0	5	18.9

*$p<.05$ (There is only a 5% probability that findings of significant differences could be explained by chance.)

**Standard deviation measures how widely or narrowly the numbers are spread out around the average.

a mean age of 58.4 for volunteers reporting that their volunteer work did not usually involve clerical work. Age differences were significant.

Volunteers did not differ by age in their assessment that their volunteer experience typically involved personal contact with people. All but two volunteers stated that their volunteer activities involved contact with people. However, volunteers reported differences by age in the nature of the personal contact with people. Age differences were significant among volunteers responding to two items on the questionnaire related to the intergenerational nature of their volunteer experience. Volunteers responding to a question asking if their volunteer activities involved personal contact with people of their own age were significantly older than those stating this was not the case. When asked if "work involves personal contact with people younger or older than yourselves (people from different generations)," volunteers who agreed with this statement were significantly younger than volunteers who disagreed with the statement.

No age differences emerged among volunteers in regard to their expectations of the volunteer work, the recognition they received from the organization, reimbursements for expenses, or provision of their own transportation.

Frequency and Regularity of Volunteer Experience

Volunteers differed by age when assessing if they volunteered "just occasionally, whenever they had spare time." Volunteers stating they volunteered just occasionally had a mean age of 48.5. Volunteers stating that they did not volunteer just occasionally, whenever they had spare time, had a mean age of 63.7. This age difference was significant

Table II reports frequency of volunteer service by age differences. Volunteers who stated they served on a regular basis had a mean age of 62.2 compared to a mean age of 36.8 for those who did not serve on a regular basis. Although this is a large age difference, the small number of persons stating they did not volunteer on

TABLE II

Mean Age in Volunteer Responses for Frequency of Service

Volunteer Responses (n=94)

	YES			NO		
Volunteer Experience	mean age	number	standard deviation**	mean age	number	standard deviation**
Volunteer just occasionally, whenever have spare time	48.5*	16	22.6	63.7*	77	15.0
Volunteer on a regular basis, requiring an ongoing commitment throughout the year	62.2	89	16.5	36.8	4	20.8
Volunteered for two or more organizations in the past 12 months	61.0	65	17.2	61.4	28	17.9

*$p<.05$ (There is only a 5% probability that findings of significant differences could be explained by chance.)

**Standard deviation measures how widely or narrowly the numbers are spread out around the average.

a regular basis most likely precluded a finding of significant differences. No age differences were found among volunteers who volunteered for two or more organizations in the previous 12 months.

Volunteers also estimated the number of volunteer hours they gave each month over the previous year (see Table III). Volunteers differed significantly by age. The post-hoc statistical analysis used to compare the mean ages indicated that only volunteers who performed 1-5 hours of service each month were significantly younger than volunteers who performed over 20 hours of service each month.

TABLE III

Mean Ages in Hours of Volunteer Service Performed per Month in Previous Year

Volunteer Age (n=94)

Hours of Service Performed	mean age	number	standard deviation**
1-5	49.0*	20	18.2
6-10	58.8	18	19.7
11-15	62.5	16	13.8
16-20	56.9	10	16.9
over 20	71.6*	29	10.2

*$p<.01$ (There is only a 1% probability that findings of significant differences could be explained by chance.)

**Standard deviation measures how widely or narrowly the numbers are spread out around the average.

Expressed Motivations for Volunteering

Table IV (on page 44) reports mean ages for the various expressed motivations (i.e., reasons) for volunteering. The expressed motives for volunteering were similar. Similarity in motivations spanned both altruistic and egoistic motives. The greatest number of volunteers (n=88) cited the altruistic reason (a way of giving back to community) as influencing their decision to volunteer. Fewer numbers of volunteers reported the egoistic motive (in order to learn something new) as influencing their decision to volunteer. This less influential motive was comparable across ages.

Volunteers significantly differed by age with regard to an item that assessed volunteering as a way "to keep busy or stay active." Older adults expressed this motive for volunteering more frequently than younger adults in our study.

DISCUSSION

The findings of this study suggest that the volunteer experiences of older adults and younger adults vary in important ways. Age appears to influence not only the type of volunteer activity performed, but also the nature of the personal contact experienced while volunteering. Older volunteers in this study were more likely to report performing activities that involved clerical duties. They were also more likely to report interacting with people of their own age. These findings support previous research suggesting older volunteers are more apt to perform nondirect client services than younger volunteers (Black and Kovacs, 1998) and are more likely to experience age segregation in their volunteer service than younger volunteers (Fischer, *et al.*, 1991; O'Reilly and Caro, 1994).

The finding that the volunteer experience differs by age should not necessarily be viewed as harmful or undesirable. Interests of volunteers differ. Some volunteers find personal benefit in seemingly routine tasks. For some volunteers the balance between routine and meaningful tasks is critical to their satisfaction level. Research (Fisher and Cole, 1993; Ilsley, 1990) suggests that volunteers' satisfaction relates to tasks they perform, yet the exact relationship is different for each individual. Black and Kovacs (1996) also found that variation in the hospice volunteer experience (including the performance of routine clerical tasks versus direct client contact) did not necessarily associate with varying levels of volunteer satisfaction or volunteer retention.

The finding that age appeared to influence the type of experience a volunteer encountered suggests several questions for future study. Do older and younger adults choose different volunteer experiences? If so, what factors influence them

TABLE IV

Mean Ages in Volunteer Responses for Expressed Motivations

Volunteer Responses (n=94)

	YES			NO		
Reasons/ Motivations	mean age	number	standard deviation**	mean age	number	standard deviation**
A way of giving back to community	60.8	88	17.4	69.0	4	18.4
An expression of religious faith	61.4	52	16.7	60.7	40	18.5
In order to keep busy or stay active	66.4*	60	16.2	51.5*	33	15.2
In order to learn something new	58.2	43	17.5	63.6	50	16.9
Someone asked me to help out	61.2	42	19.9	61.2	50	17.9
Volunteered when younger	59.9	62	18.0	63.4	30	16.2

*$p<.05$ (There is only a 5% probability that findings of significant differences could be explained by chance.)

**Standard deviation measures how widely or narrowly the numbers are spread out around the average.

to make different choices? Do more older volunteers prefer routine tasks than younger volunteers? How does the relationship between task performed and level of volunteer satisfaction differ for older and younger volunteers? Perhaps, most importantly, we may need to ask if the differences in volunteer experiences are freely chosen or if the volunteer options available to older adults differ from those available to younger adults? Jirovec and Hyduk (in press) suggest that volunteer options may differ for adults of varying incomes, with few meaningful volunteer roles available to low-income adults. Do volunteer options also differ by age? How might the type of agency setting influence the volunteer options and experiences of younger and older persons? Further research will allow us to explore these important questions.

Older volunteers in this study were significantly more likely to have their contact limited to others of the same age than younger volunteers. The segregation of older volunteers into activities that involve other older adults is supported in other studies (Fischer, *et al.*, 1991; O'Reilly and Caro, 1994). Research (Jirovec and Hyduk, in press) suggests that the nature of the contact volunteers experience with others while serving as volunteers may be even more influential on their level of satisfaction than the nature of the task. Thus, volunteer administrators may be well served by offering volunteers input into the nature of the personal contact desired while serving. If volunteers express a desire for a more age-diversified experience, mentorship programs linking older and younger volunteers or volunteer support groups could be offered to create more opportunities for increased contact across age spans.

The findings of the study relating to age difference in the regularity and frequency of volunteer service partially support previous research (Fischer, *et al*, 1991; Jivorec and Hyduk, in press). Although no age differences emerged in the percep-

tion of the regularity of service and the amounts of time devoted to service, age differences emerged in the estimated number of volunteer hours served. Volunteer administrators may want to consider the relationship between hours served and the age of the volunteer when placing him or her. Further research can extend our knowledge about how the age of the volunteer interacts with organizational structure or organizational setting and how the volunteer's employment status influences his or her regularity and frequency of service.

Findings from this study also support previous studies (Fischer and Schaffer, 1993) suggesting that expressed motives are generally similar across volunteers of all ages, with one important exception. The desire to keep busy and active serves as a stronger motivator for volunteer service among older adults than younger adults (Fischer, *et al.*, 1991; Lee and Burden, 1991).

The findings in this study that altruistic motives espoused by volunteers similarly influenced those of all ages supports research suggesting that altruistic motives vary little by age (Independent Sector, 1990; Rouse and Clawson, 1992). One implication of this finding implies that volunteers of all ages want to feel that their experience is valuable and makes a contribution. The importance of this fact should be remembered when assigning tasks to volunteers across the life span. Recruitment efforts would be best served exploring altruistic motives with all potential audiences. When recruiting among older adults, emphasis also could be placed on the volunteer experience as an important way to keep active in the community. When recruiting among younger adults, emphasis could be placed on the volunteer experience as an important mechanism to gain work experience (Isley, 1990; Lee and Burden, 1991; O'Reilly and Caro, 1994).

One limitation of the study is the unequal numbers of younger and older volunteers who participated in the study. The non-random sample was disproportionately white, female, and drawn from a most active subset of volunteers. The researchers did not analyze the volunteers not participating in the study and are unable to estimate the effect responses from non-participants could have had on the results. Therefore, caution should be exercised in generalizing from the findings. In future studies addressing age variations, the sample should be stratified based on age. Another limitation of the study relates to the nature of the data collected. Volunteers reported "yes" and "no" responses to questions. In reality, many answers may have fallen somewhere in-between. Future research allowing for varying degrees of response may provide more information on motivations, types of volunteer activities performed, and the nature of the interpersonal contact experienced while volunteering.

Despite the limitations of this study, the findings provide further insight into the age differences of the volunteer experience. As traditional pools of volunteers continue to diminish, the importance of older adults as volunteers will continue to grow. Although increasing numbers of adult persons are volunteering today (Chambré, 1993), a substantial number discontinue serving within one year (Stevens, 1991). In order to gain more insight into this phenomenon, we need to better understand how age influences the nature of volunteer participation.

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THE JOURNAL
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Tel (804) 346-2266 • Fax (804) 346-3318 • E-mail: avaintl@mindspring.com • Website: www.avaintl.org

GUIDELINES FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS

I. CONTENT

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

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

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

volunteerism: Anything related to volunteers, volunteer programs, or volunteer management, regardless of funding base (including government-related volunteers).

voluntarism: Anything voluntary in society, including religion. The term basically refers to *voluntary agencies* (with volunteer boards and private funding) that do not always involve volunteers.

If this distinction is still unclear, feel free to inquire further and we will attempt to categorize your article for you.

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F. Copyright for all published articles is retained by the Association for Volunteer Administration. After publication in THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION, authors have the right to use articles they wrote in any way they wish subject to their acknowledging original publication in THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION, a publication of the Association for Volunteer Administration. No reproduction allowed without a complete credit line that also includes the author(s) name(s), exact title as published, issue, and year of publication. Written permission from the Editor-in-Chief is needed to post to the World Wide Web.

III. STYLE

A. Manuscripts should be 10 to 30 *pages* in length, with some exceptions.

B. Manuscripts should be typed, double-spaced, on 8 1/2" x 11" paper.

C. Authors will be asked to submit the final version of a publishable article on a 3 1/2" high-density disk formatted in WordPerfect 5.2 or Microsoft Word 5.0 for Windows, or any text-based program for Macintosh since this publication is produced in QuarkXpress 3.32 on Macintosh.

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E. Endnotes, acknowledgments, and appendices should appear at the end of the manuscript, followed by references and/or a bibliography completed in an accepted form and style.

F. Author is advised to use non-sexist language. Pluralize or use "s/he."

G. THE JOURNAL prefers authors use language accessible to the lay reader.

H. First person articles may be acceptable, especially if the content of the article draws heavily upon the experiences of the author.

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

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

K. Figures and charts should be submitted only when absolutely necessary to the text of the manuscript.

L. General format for THE JOURNAL is in accordance with the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th ed.), American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, 1995.

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When submitting a training design for publication in THE JOURNAL, please structure your material in the following way:

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

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

TIME REQUIRED: Approximate time frame.

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

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

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

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

If possible, include references showing other available resources.

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Further questions may be directed in writing to the editor-in-chief at the Association for Volunteer Administration or via E-mail (avaintl@mindspring.com).

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