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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAINING PROGRAM FOR COORDINATORS OF VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS

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As our society continually increases in complexity and becomes ever more pluralistic, organizations develop to act as a mediator between the individual and his society. The voluntary organization is one such mediator and participation in these associations is one way for individuals to relate more meaningfully to society. Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1971) state that "most volunteer activity not only represents a significant contribution of energy and skill and individual resources to the functioning of democracy, but also makes a significant contribution to the volunteer's own psychological health and self-actualization" (p. 15). Volunteers play an important part in our modern world.

Naylor (1967) emphasizes the importance of considering the volunteer as an individual. She states:

the people who direct volunteers can ensure that their decisions are relevant to today's volunteers if they validate their habits and assumptions anew against today's realities. Volunteers are made or broken by the practices of executives, program and service staff, volunteer officers, nominating committees, recruiters, and trainers" (p. 8).

This statement implores the coordinator of volunteer programs to get the necessary training to enable the effective use of the volunteers under his/her direction, providing both satisfaction of the volunteer's needs and attainment of the organization's goals.

The present study has two main objectives:

- (a) to determine the perceived training needs of the volunteer coordinators, and
- (b) to develop a training program from that information.

METHOD

Interviews were held with a sample of paid administrators of volunteer programs (N=13). Those individuals interviewed were asked in what

areas they required further training or conversely in what areas should all coordinators be trained. The same questions were asked of participants of an Institute of Volunteers (1972) who were either in this administrative position or in some way connected with an agency using volunteers

Two other sources were consulted (MacDonald, 1972; and Twidle, 1971) which had assessed training needs for volunteer coordinators.

RESULTS

Table 1 presents the results of the writer's two primary sources of information. These results indicate that there are two major need areas which require improvement. On the one hand, many coordinators appear to be lacking in administrative skills—particularly training, recruiting, and selection techniques, report preparation, and budgetary procedures. On the other hand, the coordinators expressed a need for training in human relations skills enabling them to deal more effectively with problems of the volunteers, facilitating better communication with superiors, other agencies, and the public.

TABLE 1
Frequency of Response to Training Needs

Perceived Needs	Institute N=34		Interviews N=13	
	# responses	%	# responses	%
Human relations skills	15	44.1	5	38.4
Actual training techniques	13	38.2	4	30.8
Publicity and use of media	2	5.9	—	—
Recruiting and selection techniques	5	14.7	5	38.4
Fund raising	3	8.8	—	—
Writing and presenting briefs	5	14.7	3	23.0
Budgeting and record keeping	2	5.9	6	46.1
Effective listening	2	5.9	—	—
Organization and its structure	2	5.9	1	7.7
Problem sessions	11	32.3	8	61.5

Although the volunteer coordinator may be a highly trained individual who understands what must be done to meet certain objectives, their lack of training in either elementary or advanced office skills limits their effectiveness in performing their job. In the selection of volunteers, for example, many coordinators would be better able to maximize the benefit of the volunteer to the agency and the community if their own skill in selection and evaluation techniques was more comprehensive. The development of administrative skills would free the volunteer coor-

dinator to deal more fully with the primary occupational areas in which he is trained, rather than becoming excessively involved with less important and time consuming procedures.

In many cases, the leadership style of the coordinator may also determine whether the success of a volunteer program is either mediocre or outstanding. Moreover, only if the coordinator is made fully aware of this fact will he be able to take corrective action. The coordinator is, by definition a communicator and must be able to relate to a large and diverse group of individuals, ranging from the new volunteer to the knowledgeable board of directors who head many of the community agencies. By implication, then, the coordinator should benefit from small group sessions, training in interpersonal relations, and increased understanding of their own impact upon others.

Table 2 depicts the perceived training needs across all four sources of data. This table again emphasizes the dichotomy between the human relations and administrative skills. In all cases, it was continually stated that a "how to" approach must be taken in offering any course.

TABLE 2
Training Needs Across Four Studies

Perceived Need	Twidle	MacDonald	Institute	Interviews
Human relations skills		x	x	x
—communication				
—motivation				
—leadership, etc.				
Actual training techniques	x		x	x
Publicity and use of media		x	x	
Recruiting and selection techniques	x		x	x
Fund raising			x	
Writing and presenting briefs			x	x
Budgeting and record keeping		x	x	x
Planning and use of volunteers	x			x
Organization and its structure	x	x	x	x

RECOMMENDED TRAINING PROGRAM

The purpose of this study is to provide additional training for employed coordinators. A range of alternatives are available which offer the type of training program that could be operated to meet the aforementioned needs of the coordinator. A full-time day program was considered in several forms but rejected because of the time constraints of the potential participants. Another alternative was to tap into extension and night school courses. This was rejected as although these courses may meet the upgrading requirements of one individual, it was doubtful that it

would be true of all coordinators. It was therefore decided that a course would be developed to be offered under the auspices of Community Education Services, a branch of the Vancouver School Board. This approach will, in a minimal amount of time, develop the desired "how to" skills in the individuals. The program would also only commit the participants to one night per week. One main advantage is that it allows the course to be run once, evaluated, and then run again in a modified form or dropped either because of lack of demand or enthusiasm. On the basis of the information available, a curriculum has been devised.

The training program should attempt to provide new and improved techniques for the volunteer coordinators, to enable them to function effectively in the agency position. The emphasis of the program will be on getting the student actively involved in the classroom situation. Discussion and questions will, at all times, be welcome. Volunteers will be encouraged to recount personal experiences in voluntarism, as a way of illustrating and relating classroom theory with real life situations.

The training program should be presented in an environment which is conducive to small group discussion and comfort. For example, the faculty lounge or seminar rooms would be the most likely rooms to be used in a high school. Chairs should be comfortable and moveable. At the same time, an auxiliary room should be available for certain class exercises (for instance, video taping).

Each three hour session should be broken up by at least one twenty minute break. Coffee should be made available at all times for course participants.

All student exercises should be evaluated quickly and in some detail. The marking of assignments should include constructive criticism at all times. Where gross errors have been made, the student should be encouraged to meet with the course coordinator for help.

At the completion of the course, each student will receive a Certificate of Achievement for completing the program. First class and second class designations on the certificate will indicate where the student stands on the basis of completed assignments and classroom participation.

The course must be evaluated by the students who will participate in it. A questionnaire would appear to make the most sense as the method of soliciting opinions about the program. A great deal of care must, however, be taken in the designing of the instrument so that biased responses would be minimized. A separate comment sheet should also be included with the evaluation so that members could describe their perceptions of the course in their own words.

It is recommended that the course coordinator meet with individual course participants for an informal discussion and interview at least once during the training period. Not only will the course coordinator get

feedback about the course, but he will be able to assess the students' progress and capabilities as well.

Finally, students do not have to attend all classes if they feel that certain topics are not of importance to them. However, everyone must register for the program in the first week.

JUSTIFICATION OF THE TRAINING PROGRAM

The information gathered from responses of participants in the Centre for Continuing Education's Institute on Volunteers and through personal interviews with volunteers indicates that certain needs must be fulfilled by the proposed training program. Chief among these topics for study are: human relations skills, actual training methods, recruitment and selection techniques, writing and presentation of briefs, budgeting and record keeping, and problem sessions. (Refer to Tables 1 and 2.)

The training program that has been designed, attempts to provide the present or potential volunteer coordinator with the basic skills to enable him to function effectively in his position. Initially, the recruitment process is examined with emphasis being placed on the definition and presentation of a job description¹, as well as certain recruiting methods. The following week continues to pursue this topic with a discussion of interviewing as the evening's main topic. A simulated interview situation has been included to confront the students with an experience much like that which occurs in real life. Inasmuch as a great deal of a volunteer coordinator's time is spent in recruiting, interviewing and placing a volunteer, the two weeks allocated to this subject are necessary.

After the volunteer has been recruited and interviewed, the coordinator will become responsible for the orientation of the individual within the agency and the job. Week 4, then, attempts to show the student how to place the individual in the job, as well as indicating specific problems that may be encountered. The need to continually review and to be prepared to re-assign the volunteer to an alternate position is also stressed.

Every volunteer coordinator will either supervise or actually participate in the training of volunteers. Actual training techniques are, therefore, examined in the two class weeks following the orientation topic. In particular, assessment of training needs as a way of planning actual training methods is emphasized. A discussion of the various techniques, their advantages and disadvantages, and timing is then initiated. Week 6 concentrates on one particular training method—role-playing—and allows students to actually experience its use. Under the supervision of a skilled human relations trainer, the students will be encouraged to participate in the episode and to describe their reactions to their involvement and the role-play.

¹While investigating the Volunteer Bureau and agencies the researchers found that job descriptions did not in fact exist for a great number of volunteer coordinators and staff personnel.

TABLE 3
The Training Program

Week Number Topic	Subject Matter	Handout	Assignment	Resource Person
1. Registration	Introduction and overview of the course	Binder to hold all distributed materials and orientation to course handout	Read material for next session	Program Coordinator
2. Recruiting Process	Objectives, manpower requirements, job descriptions, how and where to recruit	Two or three pages on major topic, with a "how to" approach	Each class member will be expected to write up a job description	Person skilled in recruiting at the professional or volunteer level with ability to relate theory with practical examples
3. Interviewing	Techniques, what the interview should accomplish; video tape of simulated interview; interview role play with use of video tape feedback; discussion of selection and placement	A paper on the do's and don'ts of the interview	From experience, each member will relate faults and biases inherent in interviewing	Specialist on interviewing procedures and use of video tape feedback
4. Orientation	Methods of orientation, problems encountered with new volunteers, reviewing and re-assigning the volunteer	Explanation of basic aims and methods of orientation	Develop a training program for the volunteers in your own agency	An individual who is involved in orienting and directing new volunteers
5. Actual Training Methods	How to assess training needs, an overview and discussion of advantages and disadvantages of the use of various training methods	Outline and description of each method with advantages and disadvantages	Concentrated research on one method	Training director or supervisor; teacher or professor

6. Human Relations I	Role playing episode developed from a case related to voluntarism; use of video tape feedback; tie in what this technique offers vis-a-vis communications within the organization and between people	Two or three pages on role playing; use, advantages and disadvantages	Each participant will be expected to submit their personal feelings about the role play, what they learned and how it can be applied to their organization	Skilled human relations trainer
7. Motivation	Basic motivational theory and how it relates to the volunteer, the problems of maintaining motivation without money as an incentive; the need for recognition	Two or three pages on motivational theory related to voluntarism	Rewrite a poorly presented brief for oral class presentation	College professor
8. Writing and Presentation of Briefs	Review of assignment; a "how to" approach to writing briefs; the need for salesmanship; effective listening	Notes on briefs	Prepare two press releases concerning their agencies current activities	Teacher of business English
9. Public Relations	How to use the media; how to prepare press releases; relations with the Board	A "how to" approach to contacting and using the media	No assignment	Public relations officer or news representative
10. Bookkeeping and Managerial Skills	Basic budgeting; keeping personnel and financial records; office supervision; delegation	Overview of budgeting techniques, and two pages on managerial skill and behavior in offices	Students are given a fixed amount of funds to budget and plan	An experienced office manager with a background in management information systems
11. Human Relations II	Communication, leadership, conflict and cooperation	Recommended reading list	Read in the area	College professor
12. Final Session	Evaluation, questions and discussion, social evening	Certificates of completion	Work effectively	Program coordinator

Up to this point in the program, the recruitment and selection techniques and the actual training techniques have been examined. The emphasis in following weeks will centre on human relations skills and a practical "how to" approach to presentation and writing of briefs, public relations, and managerial skills.

Every organization that exists through human interaction rests on its ability to motivate individuals to pursue the objectives and plans of the organization. The topic of motivation and, in particular, the way motivation and the volunteer must be approached is important. Week 7 examines some motivational theories and techniques as they relate to the volunteer's environment.

Weeks 8 and 9 have been planned around the objective of providing the volunteer coordinator with the skill to communicate effectively with other agencies, the Board of Directors of the agency, and the community. The writing and presentation of briefs is followed by a night on public relations. The way the media can be used to the agency's advantage is discussed, as is the correct form of presenting press or news releases. Inasmuch as the volunteer movement depends on good relations with the community, the need for effective communication techniques cannot be underestimated.

Each agency must also learn to operate within a specified budget allotted to it. The volunteer coordinator must function as an accountant and financier in spreading out the allotted funds over the agency's fiscal year. The ability to maintain proper books, to plan and estimate expenditures and other operating costs is also important. Also, the coordinator must know certain operating skills and be able to control the office staff of the agency. With respect to this latter requirement, delegation of responsibility and approaches to discipline are skills that should be acquired, if the coordinator is to be effective.

The final training week, Week 11, attempts to re-focus the student's attention on the human relations environment which encompasses the volunteer organization. The volunteer agency relies, for its existence, on people; people who are willing to donate their time and resources to helping others. The importance of human relations skills must be re-emphasized to the students as a way of sensitizing them to their organization's needs, aspirations and complexities.

CONCLUSION

A training program has been developed which is based upon the actual perceived needs of administrators of volunteer programs. For the most part individuals now filling these positions have moved from the professions—social work, nursing, teaching—to an administrative role. This program will provide them with the necessary "how to" skills in a minimum of time, and with a minimum cost. Hopefully, with better

educated coordinators, the quality of volunteer programs will increase and the volunteer will be more effectively used and receive the satisfaction from his/her volunteer work that is expected.

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A SURVEY OF CHICAGO AREA VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS

by
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and
JEAN E. BEDGER

BACKGROUND

This is a report of a survey conducted by the Council for Community Services in Metropolitan Chicago in the Spring of 1973. The purpose of the survey was to investigate the use of volunteers by Chicago area agencies so that the Council might have an informed basis for planning its own activities in the area of volunteer services.

In the Spring of 1972 staff and board members of the Voluntary Action Center, Council for Community Services in Metropolitan Chicago¹ began deliberations which ultimately resulted in the current investigation. These deliberations concerned the long-term role and direction of the Voluntary Action Center, and were prompted by certain imminent changes in funding and administration which would affect the Center's operations. It became increasingly clear that intelligent discussion of these matters would require an explicit and comprehensive picture of volunteering in the Metropolitan Chicago area. As one board member stated:

Many of those who have thought at length about the Council's possible longer term role (with respect to volunteerism) have come to the conclusion that such a role should—as in other fields—depend in substantial part upon what are the community's needs and opportunities for voluntary service, and what is the present form and range of fulfillment of these needs and opportunities. . . . There is little hard data on the subject and thus there is the need for research.

Discussion about what form this research should take was held in several further meetings of Voluntary Action Center staff and board, who, by this time, had formed an *ad Hoc* research committee. The initial proposal outline submitted to the committee by the Council's Research Department in November, 1972, called for three separate but related projects: 1) an internal evaluation of the Voluntary Action Center; 2) an assessment of the demographic characteristics and experience of volunteers; and 3) a survey of agencies which use volunteers to uncover trends and needs in volunteer service. In the face of limited time and resources,

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the Committee selected the third of these as the immediate task and tabled the other two.

METHODOLOGY

The Research Department adapted and modified a questionnaire developed by the Health and Welfare Council of Hennepin County (Minnesota)² for use in a similar investigation. The questionnaire covered the following areas:

1. Number of volunteers, age and sex characteristics of volunteers, in each agency
2. Sources of volunteers
3. Volunteer assignment
4. Volunteer training
5. Reward and recognition of volunteers
6. Evaluation
7. Turnover
8. Expansion and development of the agency's volunteer program
9. Strengths and weaknesses of the agency's volunteer program
10. Use of, and attitudes toward, the Voluntary Action Center
11. Advantages and disadvantages of volunteer service

The questionnaire was pilot tested in March, 1973. Respondents were taken from the Voluntary Action Center's mailing list, which included agencies in the Metropolitan Chicago area known to use volunteers. Twelve agency executives participated in face-to-face interviews, and an additional ten were requested to complete and return the questionnaire by mail. On the basis of pilot interviews, certain modifications were effected in the questionnaire. If sufficient staff, time, and financial resources had been available, it would have been preferable to conduct all the interviews in a face-to-face situation. Due to time and personnel limitations, and the encouraging results from the pilot testing, it was decided to conduct the survey by mail. In recognition of the two major problems of mail surveys—low returns and ambiguous responses—follow-up telephone calls were made as needed.

In April, 1973, questionnaires were sent to the remaining 457 agencies on the Voluntary Action Center's mailing list. If an agency was known to have a volunteer director, the questionnaire was addressed to that individual, otherwise, it was sent to the executive director. Each questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter explaining the purpose of the investigation, and a postpaid envelope for returning the questionnaire. The respondent was asked to complete and return the questionnaire within seven days.

SURVEY RETURNS

One hundred fourteen agencies responded by May 31, 1973, the cut-off date for accepting questionnaires. Agencies which had not responded

within 30 days were contacted by telephone, but this did little to improve the return rate. Through these telephone calls, however, it was discovered that some agencies had closed. Others had opened too recently to contribute meaningful information, and still others had discontinued their volunteer program. On the basis of this discovery, it is estimated that the 114 respondents constitute approximately $\frac{1}{3}$ of the Chicago area agencies that used volunteers in 1972. This compares favorably with the 20% return rate characteristic of mail surveys. One reason for this relative success is that a number of respondents (65, or 57%) are clients of the Voluntary Action Center, and thus more strongly motivated to cooperate in this investigation than would normally be expected.

There was conflicting evidence regarding the representativeness of the participating agencies. It may be inferred from the follow-up telephone calls that systematic differences exist between agencies that returned the questionnaire and those that did not. Among the latter are certain large agencies whose size and complexity would have made it difficult to assemble the information requested: certain small agencies that could not afford the staff and time to complete the questionnaire; and others that were not favorably inclined toward the Council. Moreover, there are probably additional agencies—especially those run by non-professionals—that were excluded from the study because they were not known to the Council. Considered together, these factors would tend to bias the sample in favor of established agencies, of moderate size, that have either neutral or favorable attitudes toward the Council.

On the other hand, when one shifts his attention from the characteristics of agencies as survey respondents to the characteristics of agencies as social and health care service institutions, a different picture emerges. When sample agencies are classified by the type of work they perform (Table 1 below) the resulting distribution is fairly representative of social service agencies in the metropolitan Chicago area. Moreover, this appears to be a *stable* distribution, insofar as it is almost identical to the one obtained on the basis of the first two-thirds of the responses, upon whose receipt a preliminary report was written. In addition to the distribution of agencies, the findings themselves almost uniformly proved reliable between the preliminary and final reports. When findings are reliable across successive subsamples, there is more reason to believe them valid.

To summarize these considerations, there is no clear answer to the question of whether the 114 agencies included in this study adequately represent the population of Chicago area agencies which use volunteers. For the Council's purposes—and considering that the normal client load of the Voluntary Action Center is approximately 125 agencies—the responses of 114 agencies are of interest in themselves, whether or not they represent a larger population. In view of the extremely limited number of research studies of volunteerism to date, they should also be of interest to the general social service community. Whether or not findings can be considered definitive, they can provide a general picture of

TABLE 1.
SURVEY RESPONDENTS BY TYPE, NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE

Type of Agency	No.	Percent
Health Care—Direct Service	35	30.7
Neighborhood Centers	16	14.0
Multi-Service Centers	9	7.9
Youth Services	8	7.0
Institutional Care—Children	8	7.0
Family Services	7	6.1
Day Care	5	4.4
Services for Handicapped	5	4.4
Education/Training	5	4.4
Health Care—Non-Direct Service	3	2.6
Vocational Services	3	2.6
Home Care/Aged	2	1.8
Prisoners' and Ex-Prisoners' Aid	2	1.8
Correctional Services	1	0.9
Legal Assistance	1	0.9
Model Cities—Chicago Com. on Urban Oppor. (22 delegate agencies)	1	0.9
Volunteer Coordinating Agency	1	0.9
Emergency Shelter	1	0.9
Referral	1	0.9
<u>TOTAL</u>	<u>114</u>	<u>100.1</u>

volunteering in the Chicago area, as well as generate hypotheses for further research in other communities.

A description of the 114 agencies which participated in this investigation is presented in Table 1.

FINDINGS

A complete description of the findings is beyond the scope of this article. Only the highlights will be presented here. Agencies were initially divided into three groups based on the size of their volunteer program in 1972. (Size was measured by number of volunteer hours given to the agency in 1972, a more valid measure than number of volunteers themselves.) It seemed likely that agencies with volunteer programs of different sizes would utilize volunteers in different ways, and report different experiences and problems. This turned out not to be the case. With only one major exception, which will be noted below, size of an agency's volunteer program was unrelated to other characteristics of the program or to attitudes about, or problems in, the use of volunteers. This is, itself, a significant finding, as will be clear in examining some of the tables below.

The questionnaire asked how many volunteers the agency had used in 1972 (excluding fund raisers and board members), as well as two and five years ago. Responses are summarized in Table 2.

TABLE 2. VOLUNTEERS OVER TIME

Response	No.	% Change Over Last Period
Volunteers in 1972	50,952	+23.2
Volunteers 2 Years Ago	41,372	+2.6
Volunteers 5 Years Ago	40,339	—

There has been an increase of 26% in the use of volunteers by sample agencies over the last five years. National and local emphasis on voluntary action and the required in-kind (non-federal share) may be partially responsible for this growth. The most spectacular growth has occurred in small agencies (those which received less than 2,500 hours of volunteer service in 1972) where the five-year growth rate has been over 500%.

In addition to the total number of volunteers used by sample agencies, the questionnaire inquired about the age and sex characteristics of the volunteers in 1972. These are as follows:

It should be noted that the total number of volunteers in 1972 given in Table 3 is almost 4,000 less than the number presented in Table 2. This is a common research finding, i.e., that estimates tend to shrink when precise information is requested. On account of this phenomenon, attention should be focused on the percentages, rather than the numbers of volunteers shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3. VOLUNTEER AGE AND SEX CHARACTERISTICS

Age Range	MEN		WOMEN		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Teen-agers	1,495	12.1	4,237	12.1	5,732	12.1
Young Adults (in their 20's)	2,877	23.4	10,275	29.5	13,152	27.9
Older Adults (30-60)	6,944	56.4	16,115	46.2	23,059	48.9
Senior Citizens (Over 60)	994	8.1	4,263	12.2	5,257	11.1
TOTAL	12,310	100.0	34,890	100.0	47,200	100.0

To deal with more substantive matters, it is significant, although hardly surprising, that women volunteers outnumber men by almost 3:1. However, the percentage of volunteers in each age groups is very similar in the two sexes. In both men and women volunteers the modal age category is Older Adults, 30-60. There is currently much talk about the new interest in volunteering among both the young and the elderly. It cannot be determined from these data whether or not there has been an increase in volunteering among these two groups over the last several years. But it is clear that the young and the elderly remain the least represented age groups among the volunteer population; and, it is still the case, as has often been noted, that the typical volunteer is a woman in her middle adult years.

A supplementary correlational analysis was conducted on the volunteer age and sex data. It was discovered that the number of volunteers in any age or sex group is highly related to the number of volunteers in any other such group (r ranges between .91 and .99). This implies, for example, that the more teen-age boys an agency has, the more senior citizen women; the more teen-age girls, the more older adult men. This finding is somewhat unexpected, as one would not intuitively assume that an agency which ranks high in the number of middle-aged women volunteers would also rank high in the number of teen-age boys, as one case in point.

The assignments which volunteers held in 1972 are presented in Table 4. Regular assignments are defined as those in which a volunteer reports

TABLE 4. VOLUNTEER STAFFING CHARACTERISTICS

Volunteer Position	REGULAR		ON-CALL		TOTAL	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Clerical and administrative	1,360	5.4	102	1.5	1,462	4.6
Education and child care	10,280	40.7	2,998	44.2	13,278	41.5
Legal services	260	1.0	12	0.2	272	0.8
Medical services	3,620	14.4	1,267	18.7	4,887	15.3
Psychotherapeutic services	86	0.3	10	0.2	96	0.3
Social services	2,717	10.8	754	11.1	3,471	10.8
Skilled and unskilled labor	417	1.7	177	2.6	594	1.8
Troop leader, scouting organizations	4,800	19.0	0	—	4,800	15.0
Other	1,701	6.7	1,460	21.5	3,161	9.9
TOTAL	25,241	100.0	6,780	100.0	32,021	100.0

on a definite schedule. On-call assignments are filled on an "as needed" basis. Data in Table 4 are based on the responses of 98 agencies, as the remaining 16 agencies were unwilling or unable to provide the information requested.

One would expect that data on volunteer assignments would be extremely sensitive to sampling error. One agency and its delegates alone, for example, account for 9,000 Education and Child Care volunteers; if this one agency were not included in the sample, a different picture of volunteer assignments might emerge. However, the distribution of volunteer assignments presented in Table 4 is similar to the one obtained in the preliminary report, before the agency in question had responded. In the latter, for example, Education and Child Care was also the leading category of volunteer service, although by a smaller margin. If one can generalize, the numbers of volunteers in different assignments are not reliable; numbers increase with each questionnaire received. The corresponding *percentages* do appear reliable, however, and an even more stable finding is probably the *ranking* of volunteer assignments, i.e., which type of work involves the largest number of volunteers, second largest, etc.

As mentioned, Education and Child Care is the largest area of volunteer service. Next largest—although at a considerably lower level—are Medical and Health Services, and Scout Work. Some of the differences between numbers of volunteers in various categories may be attributed to the differential generality of the categories themselves. Legal Services, for example, is a narrower service area than some of the others. It subsumes only three types of work, for example, as opposed to 14 for Education and Child Care. Differences in numbers of volunteers in these respective categories may rest partially on this fact. This point should be kept in mind in interpreting other differences in numbers of volunteers which appear in Table 4.

Another finding is that regular workers outnumber on-call workers by almost 4:1. Overall, there are few differences between the types of work the two groups respectively perform. Two exceptions are that scout leaders tend to be regular workers, and athletic instructors and aides, on-call workers. The reasons for these exceptions should be clear to anyone familiar with the types of work involved. The Hennepin County study, which was mentioned earlier, found systematic differences between regular and on-call workers. It discovered that on-call workers tend to hold clerical positions or to have special skills—especially professional skills—which are not needed on a regular basis. Clerical volunteers are often needed for one-time projects like annual meetings, and this accounts for the fact that they are frequently on-call workers.

Volunteer work and paid employment are traditionally regarded as separate domains, with little movement from one situation to the other. In order to determine the validity of this belief, agencies were asked if they have paid positions filled by former volunteers. Responses are given in Table 5.

TABLE 5. AGENCY EMPLOYMENT OF FORMER VOLUNTEERS

Response	TOTAL	
	No.	Percent
Agency has paid positions filled by former volunteers	66	57.9
Agency does not have paid positions filled by former volunteers	48	42.1
TOTAL	114	100.0

Almost 60% of the agencies report that some of their positions are filled by former volunteers. While the questionnaires, unfortunately, did not ask how many such positions are involved, it did inquire about the types of positions. It would appear that most paid positions filled by former volunteers are either clerical or medical assignments. In most cases, it was the position itself, and not the volunteer, that was upgraded. It was common to find that a former volunteer position had been changed to a paid position with no change in personnel. It was less common to find a volunteer who had actually changed assignments.

High turnover has often been cited as a major problem in volunteer service. Data on turnover among sample agencies are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 6 AVERAGE LENGTH OF VOLUNTEER SERVICE

Avg. Length of Volunteer Service	No.	Percent
1 Month—5 Months	3	2.6
6 Months, but less than 1 Year	12	10.5
1 Year, but less than 2	22	19.3
2 Years, but less than 3	20	17.6
3 Years, but less than 4	10	8.8
4 Years, but less than 5	3	2.6
5 Years and up	9	7.9
No response	35	30.7
TOTAL	114	100.0

The median length of volunteer service is approximately 2.5 years, according to these data, while the modal length of service is 1.5 years. In view of the high no response rate of 30.7 percent—which probably results from lack of agency records on this subject—these figures must be interpreted with caution. They do suggest, however, that the problem of volunteer turnover might be overemphasized. Indeed, 61.4% of the respondents stated that they were satisfied with the length of time volunteers serve in their agency, and only 10.5% identified turnover as a major difficulty in their program. The median length of volunteer ser-

vice, 2.5 years, would seem to compare favorably with length of service in paid positions.

When respondents were asked about important reasons for volunteer turnover, they cited the following:

TABLE 7. REASONS FOR VOLUNTEER TURNOVER

Reason	Agencies Which Consider Reason of Major Importance	
	Total	
	No.	Percent
Job completed	18	15.8
Time conflict	42	36.8
Returned to school	45	39.5
Moved out of town	57	50.0
Illness	30	26.3
Obtained paying job	45	39.5
Became disinterested	25	21.9
Family responsibilities	39	34.2
Not suited to job	11	9.6
Personality conflict	6	5.3
Other	13	11.4
Reason unknown	11	9.6

It is significant that respondents generally indicate "neutral" reasons for turnover which do not adversely reflect on themselves or the volunteer. For example, the most common reason they cite is *moved out of town*, and the least common, *personality conflict*. Findings from the Hennepin County study, in which volunteers themselves were interviewed, suggest that almost 30% of the volunteers who leave do so on account of dissatisfaction with their work, supervisor, and/or agency. It is likely that volunteer dissatisfaction is a more important reason for turnover than respondents in the current investigation suggest. If respondents do, indeed, underestimate the role of volunteer dissatisfaction, they may do so either on account of "social desirability" factors, or a genuine unfamiliarity with the volunteer's perspective. Since dissatisfied volunteers, unlike paid workers, can leave an agency without explanation, it is sometimes difficult to learn of their grievances.

Respondents were given a list of ten components of a volunteer program, and asked to choose two in which they were particularly successful, and two in which they need to make improvements. Results are presented in Table 8.

What is most significant here is that percentages are generally low; only 3 out of 20 are greater than 30%. The implication is that no component is

**TABLE 8. STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF
AGENCY'S VOLUNTEER PROGRAM**

Area	Successful		Needs Improvement	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Recruitment	35	30.7	37	32.5
Screening	15	13.2	13	11.4
Training	24	21.1	31	27.2
Supervision	19	16.7	13	11.4
Assignment	32	28.1	12	10.5
Evaluation	4	3.5	23	20.2
Turnover	5	4.4	12	10.5
Relations between volunteers and paid staff	43	37.7	16	14.0
Budget	5	4.4	10	8.8
Public Relations	15	13.2	13	11.4

inherently easy or difficult to handle; what is easy and what is difficult varies from agency to agency.

One question asked was whether respondents would like to expand their volunteer program. The overwhelming majority said yes, as Table 9 indicates.

**TABLE 9. AGENCY INTEREST IN
EXPANDING VOLUNTEER PROGRAM**

Response	Total	
	No.	Percent
Would like to expand program	95	83.3
Would not like to expand program	15	13.2
No response	14	3.5
TOTAL	114	100.0

It would be valuable to know if agencies were interested in expanding current services, adding new services, or both. Unfortunately, the questionnaire did not address this issue. Elsewhere, however, the questionnaire did ask respondents if they could think of possible volunteer assignments that go beyond the scope of their current activities. Most respondents listed assignments which were supportive to their current operations, and which did not involve their agencies in new areas of service. If this finding can be transposed to the current discussion, it is likely that most agencies, in expressing an interest in expanding their volunteer program, have in mind the expanding of current services, rather than the addition of new ones.

The barriers to expansion, as perceived by agency executives, are presented in Table 10.

The principal barrier is the supply of volunteers themselves. In the light of Table 8 responses, it is probable that the major difficulty here is recruitment, rather than retention. The next two most important barriers—supervision and space—concern agency management capability. The unwillingness of volunteers to work in the agency's neighborhood, although a distinct fourth in the list of barriers, is a problem that should not be underestimated. This barrier is perhaps the least amenable to agency control; and since changing neighborhoods are the rule, rather than the exception, in urban life, the problem might become more serious in future years. Almost no agencies claim not to need more volunteers.

A final matter of interest is how a central agency like the Council's Voluntary Action Center can best serve local volunteer programs. With regard to this point, respondents were asked which VAC services they had actually used (or benefitted from) and which services they might find helpful. Responses are given in Table 11.

While recruitment and referral of volunteers is the major VAC service used by sample agencies, there is apparently a market for other services. For each of the other services listed, at least 25% of the agencies stated that, although they had not used the service, they might find it helpful. The fact that agencies express interest in services which they do not use, even though the services are available, is a paradox which may be explained in one of two ways: either the agencies suffer from inertia, bureaucratic lethargy, etc., in which case more aggressive outreach is desirable; or their interest in other services, as expressed in the questionnaire, is not genuine. In support of the latter supposition is the fact that it is easy to express an interest when one is not forced to act on it. Which of these hypotheses is correct can only be determined through further discussion with the agencies.

The Voluntary Action Center sent 2,000 volunteers to various agencies in 1972. Survey data indicate that the 114 sample agencies alone took on 26,000 new volunteers during this period. There is clearly a role for the Voluntary Action Center in the area of recruitment and referral of volunteers, judging from agency responses. But the most effective utilization of the VAC's limited staff might involve consultation in this area, rather than direct service. One extremely profitable activity, in cost-benefit terms, is the design and implementation of general publicity campaigns on behalf of agencies which use volunteers.

The survey included information about the costs and financial benefits involved in operating volunteer programs. In the pilot test, as predicted, it was found to be very difficult to obtain hard figures on the costs of operating volunteer programs and their imputed values to the agencies.

**TABLE 10. OBSTACLES TO EXPANSION OF
VOLUNTEER PROGRAM**

Obstacle	No.	Percent
No need for more volunteers	7	6.1
Limited number of supervisory personnel	31	27.2
Limited space	31	27.2
Limited funds	22	19.3
Volunteers unwilling to work in agency's neighborhood	21	18.4
Difficulty in procuring and/or retaining volunteers (other than above)	32	28.1
Professional resistance	9	7.9
Other	25	21.9

**TABLE 11. AGENCY INTEREST IN AND USE OF SERVICES
OF VOLUNTARY ACTION CENTER**

VAC Service	Actually Used		Might Find Helpful	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Recruitment and referral of volunteers	60	52.6	31	27.2
Consultation concerning agency's volunteer program	9	7.9	34	29.8
Development of new areas of volunteer service	7	6.1	39	34.2
Encouragement of high standards for volunteers	8	7.0	36	31.6
Workshops, institutes, or seminars for agency staff	13	11.4	39	34.2
Personal follow-up of volunteers	9	7.9	28	24.6
Inter-agency training of volunteers	11	9.6	29	25.4

In a rough analysis of operating costs and imputed values, it was determined that it cost \$937,686 to operate fourteen volunteer programs (recruiting, training and placing 22,006 volunteers). Based on the imputed value (basic wage \$1.60 per hour) and the average of 100 hours per volunteer, a cost-value was derived. The total value to the fourteen agencies at \$1.60 per hour per volunteer would be \$3,520,960. Deducting the operating costs of \$937,686 leaves a \$2,583,274 benefit to the agencies.

One large agency in the sample conducted a cost-value study of its volunteer program and made the results available to the Council. This study

is of interest because it illustrates the techniques involved in a cost-value comparison. It cannot be generalized to other agencies, but illustrates the possibilities of cost analysis.

This agency had 242 volunteers in 1972, each volunteer contributed an average of 128 hours during the year. (The average for the 114 sample agencies was 100 hours.) A time study indicated that the volunteers spent approximately $\frac{1}{3}$ of their time on paraprofessional counseling, and the remaining $\frac{2}{3}$, on miscellaneous tasks including secretarial work, fund-raising, and providing basic information to clients. In terms of hours of service, the 128 volunteers contributed a total of 30,976 hours, equivalent to approximately 18 full-time staff, based on a work-year of 1,750 hours. Of the total volunteer hours, 10,325 were given to counseling and 20,650 to miscellaneous tasks. If one assumes that a paraprofessional salary is \$5.00 per hour (\$8,750 per year) and a secretarial salary is \$3.50 per hour (\$6,125 per year), the imputed value of the volunteer service is approximately \$125,000. It varies depending on whether calculations are based on hours or number of staff, since the latter was rounded to the nearest whole number.

$$10,326 \text{ hours} \times \$5.00/\text{hour} = \$ 51,625$$

$$20,650 \text{ hours} \times \$3.50/\text{hour} = \$ 72,275$$

OR

$$6 \text{ full-time staff @ } \$8,750/\text{year} = \$ 52,500$$

$$12 \text{ full-time staff @ } \$6,125/\text{year} = 73,500$$

$$\underline{\$126,000}$$

In addition to time contributed, volunteers were responsible for raising \$15,000 in contributions for the agency, bringing the imputed value of their service up to \$140,000. If the agency wished to replace the volunteers with paid workers, it would require another 15% of \$125,000, or \$18,750 for fringe benefits.

The expenses charged against the volunteer program in 1972 were \$22,436. The net value of the volunteer program was \$140,000 — \$22,436, or \$117,564. This works out to \$486 per volunteer. Volunteers were responsible for handling 50,217 clients in 1972, either directly or indirectly. Excluding the \$15,000 which resulted from fund-raising efforts from the net imputed value of volunteer service, it may be concluded that volunteers made service contributions equivalent to \$2.04 per client.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This article reports the results of a survey conducted by the Council for Community Services in Metropolitan Chicago in the Spring of 1973. The purpose of the survey was to investigate the use of volunteers by Chicago area agencies in order to decide on future programs and directions for the Council's Voluntary Action Center. The survey found that:

1. There has been a 26% increase in the number of volunteers used by sample agencies over the last 5 years, with a 500% increase in small agencies.
2. Whatever the trends have been, the young, the elderly, and men in general remain minority groups in the volunteer population. The typical (modal) volunteer is still a woman in her middle adult years.
3. Within a given agency, the number of volunteers in any age or sex group is highly related to the number of volunteers in any other such group.
4. The most common area of volunteer service is Education and Child Care.
5. It is not uncommon for an agency to hire its volunteers as paid workers, most often by converting the volunteer position itself to a paid position.
6. Volunteer turnover might not be as critical a problem as is commonly believed.
7. The kinds of problems and successes which agencies report in administering their volunteer programs are probably not "epidemic", but vary from agency to agency.
8. Most agencies are interested in expanding their volunteer program, but perceive the supply of volunteers and their management capability as significant barriers.
9. A central agency, such as the Voluntary Action Center, does appear to have a legitimate role in the volunteer community. In cost-benefit terms, the most effective role involves consultation rather than direct service.
10. A cost-value comparison in one agency indicated that each of 242 volunteers contributed an average of \$486 in service in 1972 or \$2.04 per client.

FOOTNOTES

¹The Council for Community Services in Metropolitan Chicago is the health and welfare council for the metropolitan Chicago area. The Council's Voluntary Action Center assists other agencies by recruiting and training volunteers, as well as providing consultation on establishing, expanding, or improving volunteer programs.

²Volunteer Service Bureau Evaluation Committee: *Evaluation of the Volunteer Service Bureau*. Minneapolis: Community Health and Welfare Council of Hennepin County, Inc., 1972. Irreg. pp.

VOLUNTEERS IN ENGLAND

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INTRODUCTION

Living in London during the first six months of 1972 afforded me the opportunity to learn something of the exciting world of volunteerism in England. Volunteers and voluntary agencies are much in evidence. While volunteering is an old English custom, there has evolved since the establishment of National Health in 1948 a new, creative partnership between voluntary organizations and government health and social service agencies. These government agencies, usually referred to as statutory agencies, are constantly increasing their investment in the organized utilization of volunteers. A booklet, "Opportunities for Voluntary Service in London," published by the London Council of Social Services lists 200 organizations seeking voluntary help.

An American should not be surprised that the tradition of people helping people through voluntary action is one he shares with his English cousins. One recalls that Jane Addams, volunteer and pioneer social worker, went in the late 1800's to London's Toynbee Hall, the first settlement house, in order to prepare herself for her later work at Hull House. While the English expect their government to provide basic health service and social security, the hundreds of voluntary organizations and the thousands of volunteers are strong testimony to the value they place on individual and group initiative in improving and enriching the welfare of all.

In my six months visit I could only scratch the surface in learning about volunteer programs. Thanks to the generosity of my English colleagues, I visited about a dozen hospitals and community psychiatric agencies. I talked with many organizers of voluntary services as coordinators are called in England. I visited with volunteers, directors of volunteer bureaus and with officials of several voluntary agencies. I attended several lectures and conferences, and I participated in a short course for new coordinators of voluntary service. Some excellent books and reports, along with regular reading of the LONDON TIMES or MANCHESTER GUARDIAN continually broadened my awareness of the scope of the volunteer movement.

THE ROLE OF VOLUNTEERS

Volunteers in England, as in the United States, come in all ages and find expression for their desire to help through essentially the same

avenues—clubs, churches, schools, specialized agencies, and social and political action groups. There, as here, many volunteers prefer to work as individuals rather than through organizations. The voluntary agencies and organizations range from the traditional, non-controversial type to the militant and radical. As in the U.S. there is increasing involvement of the less affluent and of clients themselves as in such organizations as the Claimants Unions which work to make sure that all who are entitled to the benefits of the welfare system do indeed receive them. Volunteers are found in general and psychiatric hospitals, schools and child care facilities, information bureaus, emergency services, courts, correctional facilities and housing associations. In these they usually work in fairly traditional positions but some volunteers are pioneering more experimental and unconventional roles.

GOVERNMENT-VOLUNTEER COOPERATION

Today the attitude of government is one of encouragement and support, but this represents a change which has come about gradually since the establishment of the National Health Service in 1948. Then, with the socialization of medical services, it was widely held that professionals could meet all patient needs. In 1948 the word "volunteer" carried unhappy connotations as it was often associated with charity hospitals and with upper class women of the lady bountiful type. In 1948 hospital staff members were forbidden to participate in the organization of volunteer activity. But organizations, such as the Leagues of Friends, continued to do important work in hospitals, and individuals from the community kept asking to play meaningful roles. By the 1950'ties the Department of Health and Social Security began to recognize that the community did belong in the hospitals, that patients had needs which staff alone could not meet. By 1962 the Department gave positive direction to hospitals to involve volunteers. The employment of voluntary help organizers was urged a few years later. A recent directive, January 1972, details the organization of volunteer programs within hospitals and sets forth the primary objective of seeking voluntary help "sustaining a humane and total service to patients and providing an extra link between hospital and community." As National Health moves toward major changes involving unification of hospital with local authority services in the mid-1970'ties, the Department of Health and Social Security urges that channels for the delivery of integrated volunteer services to clients both in and out of hospital settings be developed, and in some communities real progress has been made toward this goal.

Prime Minister Edward Heath in a recent speech to the National Council of Social Service demonstrated that the partnership between government health and welfare services and volunteers is to be further strengthened by promising increased allocation of government funds to aid in the establishment of a National Voluntary Center, more volunteer bureaus, more involvement of volunteers in community relations pro-

jects, prisons and borstals (schools for older delinquents), and more funding of service by young people. The National Center to which Mr. Heath refers, also will have sizable private funding so as to keep it from being subservient to government.

Initially the Center's aims will be to collect and disseminate information about the recruitment, use and preparation of volunteers in statutory and voluntary agencies, the training of organizers of voluntary help and other staff who use volunteers, and the promotion of research and development of work done by volunteers.

An example of the relationship of government to a voluntary agency is the partial funding of the National Association of Mental Health by government grants. These grants are never so large as to jeopardize one of the functions of the Association which is to serve as constructive critic of state mental health services.

THE ORGANIZER OF VOLUNTARY SERVICES

Within the statutory agencies the organizer, coordinator, is seen as the key to effective volunteer utilization. Slowly a new professional is emerging—personnel who are selected and trained to administer volunteer programs. The high point of all my experiences was attending a week's residential course for new coordinators sponsored by the King Edward's Hospital Fund, a private agency, and the South West Metropolitan Regional Hospital Board, a government agency responsible for the administration of 200 hospitals. The King's Fund, long a stimulator of new ideas and programs in hospitals, includes among its many consultative and educational services, a volunteer information office. Mrs. Chrystal King, the director of this office, was the first professional voluntary help organizer ever employed by a psychiatric hospital in England, Fulbourne Hospital in Cambridge in 1963. Mrs. King, whose knowledge of volunteer programs and agencies in England is encyclopedic, is the chief organizer of these residential courses which are held three to four times a year. She works closely with hospital management boards, university social science and psychology departments, local authority social service departments and voluntary agencies in planning and implementing the objectives for the courses. Instructors come from all of these sources.

The residential course is offered regularly to make possible an integrated induction process for all new coordinators who, incidentally, tend to come from the fields of nursing, social work, voluntary agency administration and the ministry. Funding is from the King's Fund; transportation costs are borne by the employing agency.

Course participants number between eight and fifteen. The small size assures meaningful participation. Prior to attending the residential course, all in the group have taken part in a one day initial orientation

session sometime during the first three months they were in their new positions. This initial orientation which precedes the week's residential course by three to six months gives the members of the group an opportunity to meet each other and to formulate their questions, and it enables the course instructors to get acquainted with the individual participants so that the residential course can then be designed to meet the specific needs of this particular group of organizers. Mrs. King and other instructors feel that it is essential that the participants have enough experience in their new positions before taking the residential course so that they are familiar with their agencies and aware of local resources. Participants in the course I attended came from pediatric, general, psychiatric, and subnormality hospitals as well as from a local authority social service department and from a nursing home. Several hospitals in Scotland were represented including Dingleton where Maxwell Jones pioneered the therapeutic community approach.

The participants worked hard. With lectures, discussions and a variety of problem solving techniques eight to ten hours a day were spent dealing with such topics as working with voluntary agencies, the structure of hospital management, the function of social service, recruiting, interviewing and supporting volunteers, working with volunteer bureaus, and the utilization of young volunteers. Instructors were highly qualified, discussions were on a very advanced level.

THE STANDING CONFERENCE OF VOLUNTARY HELP ORGANIZERS

The importance of membership in their professional organization, The Standing Conference, is emphasized throughout the residential course. Somewhat comparable to the American Association of Volunteer Services Coordinators, the Standing Conference is open to all organizers who have completed the residential course and who spend at least fifty per cent of their working time administering a volunteer program. Through it new organizers are paired with experienced ones who work with them as "tutor colleagues." In addition to publishing a newsletter, the Standing Conference issues policy guidelines from time to time on such subjects as how to organize volunteer programs, how hospitals can plan for the appointment of an organizer, qualifications and training for organizers, appropriate salary schedules, and the payment of expenses for volunteers. It seeks constantly to help agencies and organizers raise the standards for volunteer services. Conferences are held three times a year, two in London and one in the provinces, which provide continuing education for its members. I was fortunate to attend one of the London conferences where the focus was on the implications for volunteer services of the changes in National Health scheduled for 1974. The Department of Health and Social Security recommends that no statutory agency set up a volunteer program without consulting the Standing Conference.

VOLUNTEERS IN PSYCHIATRIC SERVICES

In my visits to hospitals and community facilities I found volunteers doing very much the sort of thing we find them doing in psychiatric agencies in America. English mental hospitals tend to be much larger than those I know in my home state of Nebraska. Many have as many as 800 to 1500 patients, and a large number of these patients are elderly. Consequently volunteers are heavily involved in all sorts of projects with geriatric patients. Others work in industrial therapy shops, occupational therapy, canteens, on wards, and in many social-recreational projects. Visits to Croydon, one of the large industrialized boroughs of London, and to the university city of Cambridge gave me a chance to see some of the ways volunteers are being involved in a number of supportive programs in well integrated systems of hospital and community care. In Croydon in-patient and community programs are closely coordinated with the local authority health department. Croydon Voluntary Services, which headquarters in one of the community facilities, is responsible for the delivery of volunteer services to a psychiatric hospital of 800 beds, four day hospitals, several work centers for the handicapped, and a number of former hospitalized patients now living in the community. A staff of four coordinates this large program which includes about fifty volunteers assigned as "befrienders" to individuals needing long-term supportive relationships. An index of the extent of community involvement is the fact that over 4,000 volunteers were mobilized last December in a borough-wide survey to locate handicapped people who might not be aware of various services to which they are entitled.

Orientation or briefing is designed to help volunteers carry out their particular assignments. Support is a word generally preferred to supervision. And in the Croydon program the closest and most frequent support is given by psychiatric social workers to volunteers who work in one-to-one relationships with former patients. In reference to volunteers the term "training" was rejected by many people as it seems to imply an attempt to turn volunteers into poorly prepared professionals. And, it is argued, an attempt to "train" volunteers results in the loss of their spontaneity, enthusiasm and community point of view which are among their most important contributions to the hospital or social agency.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STATUTORY AND VOLUNTEER AGENCIES

The delivery of supportive services to former patients in both Croydon and Cambridge illustrates the close working relationship between a voluntary agency, local chapters of the National Association for Mental Health, and government mental hospitals. In both of these communities, as well as in many others, mental health association volunteers sponsor a variety of social clubs and living situations for former patients. In Cambridge I visited several group homes which are defined, in contrast

to hostels, as permanent living situations for four to eight individuals who usually have been hospitalized for rather long periods of time. Some group homes offer a family-like setting while others provide bed-sitting arrangements where each person lives quite independently. Volunteers often manage the financial and maintenance aspects of running the homes as well as providing transportation and sometimes help with gardening. No residential staff is employed but the mental health association or the mental hospital, or sometimes the two together employ a social worker who makes weekly visits. While volunteers supply all sorts of social support, in true English fashion every effort is made to protect the residents' right to privacy.

The creative role volunteers are playing in after-care for psychiatric patients was abundantly evident at a conference I attended on "establishing and running group homes." Sponsored by the National Association for Mental Health, it was a down-to-earth practical meeting where volunteers and mental hospital staff shared ideas designed to make them go back to their communities and join forces in meeting the needs of many former patients for independent but sheltered living.

Another example of the partnership between statutory and voluntary agencies is the St. Columba-Emmanuel Center in Cambridge. Here two nurses provided by the Fulbourn Hospital Management Committee and a number of volunteers with the financial support of two churches, the mental health association, and another voluntary agency operate a day program for people with psychiatric problems, a creche where mothers can leave their babies when they shop or go to the mental health clinic, and a number of discussion groups including one for "anxious moms," one designed for women whose children have recently moved out of the family nest, and another for "men and women over 21 who may be isolated and anxious because of homosexuality."

YOUNG VOLUNTEERS

Teens and young adults are a most important part of England's volunteer force. I found a number of high school age youth manning canteens, visiting on wards and engaged in a variety of social and recreation activities in psychiatric hospitals. Some schools allow students to volunteer during a certain amount of school time. Voluntary agencies such as the Hospital Center and Community Service Volunteers provide consultation to educators on appropriate volunteer work for youth. In some respects Community Service Volunteers might be described as the English counter-part of VISTA. Organized in 1962, funded largely by private foundations, CSV offers volunteer placements, ranging from four to twelve months to young people between the ages of sixteen and twenty-two. At any one time between 800 and 1,000 young people are working as CSV volunteers in hospitals and social agencies. Others are teaching English to immigrants, assisting in schools for delinquents, working on

environmental improvement projects, and designing and building those wonderful institutions for English children called adventure playgrounds. In my visit with a young staff member at CSV headquarters in Toynbee Hall I was impressed with the flexibility of its program and the dedication of its young staff. CSV believes it has the responsibility to find the right project for every young volunteer who really wants to help the community. Some potential volunteers may select out but no serious volunteer is rejected.

Last year about 168 of CSV volunteers were police cadets who were allowed to serve as volunteers as part of their police training. Many police officials see that learning to understand social problems at first hand and learning to function without benefit of uniform is an invaluable experience for the neighborhood policeman. A recent CSV project has been the successful involvement of young offenders who are paroled to CSV from borstals to work in selected volunteer programs.

VOLUNTEER ORGANIZATIONS OLD AND NEW

The more traditional type of volunteer organizations like the Red Cross function very much as they do in the U.S. The Red Cross and St. John's Ambulance Brigade supply services needed in emergencies and disasters. Several St. John volunteers were usually present at theaters ready to provide first aid should it be needed. I spent a most interesting afternoon learning about the work of the Women's Royal Voluntary Service. Growing out of the work of women during the Battle of Britain, WRVS now has thousands of volunteers assisting in a wide range of projects from meals-on-wheels (where the volunteers assist in local authority projects), clubs for the elderly, play centers for young children, emergency clothing centers, and hospital canteens. WRVS also operates 25 residential homes for the elderly.

One volunteer organization's work so caught the imagination of the people that it was the subject of a series of dramas entitled "The Befrienders" which were presented on BBC TV while I was in England. These dramas illustrated the work of the Samaritans whose primary function is to help the suicidal and the despairing. Founded in 1952, the Samaritans has its headquarters in the beautiful Christopher Wren Church of St. Stephen Walbrook built in 1672. It now has 14,000 volunteers functioning in branches throughout Britain. The effect of the TV series, at least in the short term, was to double the number of requests for help and to greatly expand the number of potential volunteers. Careful interviewing, screening and preparation have been vital in the success of this now well-established program.

There are a number of other emergency services utilizing both volunteer and professional help designed to assist with all sorts of problems—drugs, legal aid, and housing. One called Task Force is run by young people to give practical help to the elderly and lonely. Many of these

voluntary organizations are listed in the various guides to London so tourists may also call on them for help.

Volunteers are much involved in work with prisoners and in prison reform. The latter is handled through the more conventional means of educating the public and Members of Parliament to direct action such as picketing. Volunteers working with released prisoners have been well studied and reported on in a book called **VOLUNTEERS IN PRISON AFTER-CARE** by Hugh Barr. From a former warden of Wandsworth Prison I learned about a self-help group called Recidivists Anonymous which has been helpful with some chronic criminals. This group had been used in one prison to introduce and make more acceptable "straight" volunteers. I visited with a volunteer from a group called Prisoners' Wives Service which offers an array of practical but non-monetary helps to the families of prisoners. Volunteers who are carefully screened serve in a kind of advocacy role for prisoners' wives. One local of this organization in Birmingham, just across from Winston Green Prison, runs a counseling and baby-sitting center where the wives of prisoners may safely leave small children and return after their visits with their husbands for a cup of tea and help with practical problems. Staffed entirely by volunteers this center operates for \$1250 a year!

The borough of Camden boasts the oldest volunteer bureau in London, and since its founding five years ago by the Council of Social Service volunteer bureaus are springing up all over London and in some places in provincial England. One of the most stimulating, grass-roots-type meeting I attended was called by the Volunteer Bureau of Hammersmith for the purpose of bringing agency representatives together for the purpose of determining ways to more effectively utilize volunteer skills.

WHY VOLUNTEERS

Volunteers are taken seriously in England. While the limitations of funds for both statutory and voluntary agencies encourages the utilization of volunteers, everyone I talked to recognized even more important reasons for volunteer involvement than supplementing staff services. Volunteers are seen as helping to normalize hospital and social service environments. They can share experiences with clients in ways not allowed to professionals. An English psychiatrist said, "The patient has to come to terms with the community again so the more contact he has with ordinary human beings the better." They can interpret need to the community often more effectively than professionals. They are needed to help shape the policies of the agencies. A speaker at one meeting of volunteer bureau organizers said, "Volunteers should be able to take on the role of critic of the local authority. They should not be tamed by their users but be independent figures acting as a ventilation of the bureaucratic system." Jeff Smith, a young social worker and member of the prestigious Aves Committee set up to evaluate the role of volunteers put it this way, "Volunteers at best are people coming in meddling, saying what are you doing it this way for?"

SOME REALISTIC APPROACHES TO COUNSELING FOR THE VOLUNTEER PROBATION OFFICER

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Numerous counseling and treatment approaches have been used by probation officers and others in the criminal justice and social work professions in an attempt to change the behavior of the youthful offender. Most of these counseling methods are based on theoretical orientations which contain certain assumptions about human behavior in general and deviant behavior in specific. For the most part every approach to counseling the youthful offender attempts in one way or another to alter those conditions (social and/or psychological) considered to be important in the genesis and perpetuation of delinquent and adult criminal behavior. Therefore, before selecting a particular treatment or counseling approach, it is imperative that the Volunteer Probation Officer closely examine his own assumptions and attitudes concerning the causes and nature of delinquency and criminality. Before choosing a particular approach to counseling, the V.P.O. should seriously confront the following questions about crime and delinquency:

1. Is criminal behavior learned, or are most delinquents and criminals emotionally disturbed or mentally ill?
2. Are criminal acts reasoned and rational, or non-utilitarian, irrational, and "senseless?"
3. Does the delinquent or criminal know the difference between right and wrong? Do delinquents and criminals experience guilt or anxiety?
4. Should the delinquent or criminal be viewed as responsible for his behavior, or like "billiard balls," as wholly passive subjects controlled by external agents?

Let us now briefly examine each of the above issues. If the V.P.O. believes that most criminal behavior is the result of mental illness or extreme emotional instability, it would appear that there would be little that he could expect to accomplish in terms of counseling. What would seem to be indicated is an extended period of psychotherapy or other form of intensive *professional* intervention. We have found,

on the other hand, that most experienced V.P.O.'s believe that the norm-violating behavior of their probationers is usually a "normal" response within a particular cultural context or environment for the purpose of satisfying certain needs. Needs and desires such as love, security, wealth, status, power, belongingness and positive feelings of individual worth are extremely important for everyone. Such needs provide the motivation for *legitimate as well as illegitimate* behavior. Ways of satisfying these needs take many forms. Often, the particular behavior utilized by the probationer for satisfying these needs is denied validity by the larger society and considered deviant. However, within the unique social and psychological environment of the probationer, this behavior often has been learned as a "normal" response for satisfying relevant needs. If this behavior is learned, then perhaps it can be unlearned. Therefore, most V.P.O.'s have as one goal of counseling to provide the probationer with more legitimate and socially acceptable means of fulfilling his needs and values.

Question Number Two points out the tendency for many middle-class and upper-middle-class people to view certain criminal behaviors (especially the malicious and destructive behavior of certain probationers) as senseless and irrational. Often the Volunteer Probation Officer will be confronted with such "seemingly senseless" behavior on the part of his probationer. The V.P.O. who is set to believe that there is no logical basis for such behavior will usually fail to look for the *real* motives or needs upon which the behavior is based. The V.P.O. must remember that all behavior should be judged within its cultural context. The V.P.O. must ask himself; "What are the underlying motives?" "What needs are being satisfied by this behavior?" The answers to these questions will lead to productive problem solving approaches to counseling or therapy. To view such behavior of the probationer as senseless, non-utilitarian, or irrational will in most cases lead the V.P.O. himself to react emotionally thus preventing the implementation of any logical or rational counseling approach.

Everyone is familiar with the so-called "psychopath"; the hardened, calculated, emotionless criminal who does not seem to experience guilt or anxiety for his wrong doings and is seen as incapable of distinguishing between right and wrong. Most V.P.O.'s, however, believe that the majority of delinquents and youthful offenders *do* understand the conventional moral code and what is expected of it by way of conformity. They know right from wrong! They experience some guilt and anxiety, especially in the beginning stages of criminal activity. They accord respect to lawful persons. They distinguish between categories of victims and objects that should and should not be attacked. Many youthful offenders have, however, over a period of time developed a system of rationalizations in order to relieve themselves of experiencing this guilt and anxiety and at the same time continue to satisfy their needs and maintain positive feelings of individual worth. Therefore, many probationers come across, at least in the beginning stages of counseling, with a "hard nosed" attitude often expressing great satisfaction with their present

state of affairs and indicating little desire or motivation for change. The V.P.O. who accepts this myth "that it is virtually impossible to rehabilitate a criminal who does not want to be helped" will seriously diminish his chances for successful counseling.

Occasionally while counseling his probationer, the V.P.O. will be confronted with conditions and situations which are personally distasteful. Many probationers are, for example, the products of slum conditions, broken homes, drunk parents, divorce, minority group prejudice, and many other damaging, degrading and stigmatizing conditions. These conditions make it extremely easy for the V.P.O. to say to himself and to his probationer, "I am here to help you . . . it isn't your fault . . . you are the victim of evil forces." In other words, the V.P.O. may find it simple to rationalize, "If I had to live under those circumstances, I'd probably get into trouble too." Often times the probationer is aware of these feelings on the part of the V.P.O. and will attempt to manipulate him for the purpose of removing from himself the responsibility for his behavior. However, if the probationer is viewed by the V.P.O. as a totally passive entity, subject to the capricious control of external forces, the approach to counseling will inevitably be equally vague and fatalistic in nature. While negative and stigmatizing conditions may have existed in the present or past life of the probationer, most V.P.O.s believe that the probationer himself must ultimately be held responsible for his own behavior. For, in spite of these adverse conditions, it is the probationer who will ultimately suffer or be punished for his behavior in the eyes of society and the law. The V.P.O. who is willing to displace this responsibility upon other agencies in the society will be doing his probationer a profound disservice in the long run as well as minimizing the potential effectiveness of his counseling efforts.

Thus, delinquency and adult criminal behavior is viewed by most experienced V.P.O.s as being selective, ordered and socio-cultural in nature; not unselective, random and individualistic. It is wrong to describe crimes as senseless when they are often malicious and vicious. Just because the V.P.O. may be repulsed by a particular act, he should not describe it as the result of a compulsion or irresistible impulse. Most criminal behavior is learned in the process of attempting to satisfy individual needs, values, and desires. The delinquent and youthful offender engage in deliberate action accompanied by reasoning and they are, therefore, rational and should in most situations be held responsible for their behavior. Often while building a rather complicated network of rationalizations to neutralize guilt and anxiety connected with illegal behavior, most delinquents and youthful offenders do know the difference between right and wrong and would rather satisfy their needs in more productive ways. With this broad view of deviant behavior in mind, let us now turn to the task of building for the V.P.O. an approach to counseling or therapy which fits such a view.

One of the primary goals of the Volunteer Probation Counselor should be an accurate assessment of the needs and values which the probationer

has been attempting to satisfy through non-productive and socially unacceptable means. In order to accomplish this, the V.P.O. must be able to establish a counseling environment or climate which contains the safety, warmth, and trust necessary for the probationer to feel capable of expressing his *true* needs and values to the counselor. In attempting to establish such a climate, most experienced V.P.O.s have found the Client Centered Counseling concepts formulated by Dr. Carl Rogers to be extremely helpful. According to Dr. Rogers' definition of a "helping relationship," the Volunteer Probation Officer should have the intent of "promoting the growth, development, maturity, improved functioning, and improved coping with life" of the probationer.² According to Dr. Rogers, if the V.P.O. can provide this type of relationship, the probationer will discover within himself the capacity to use that relationship for growth, and change, and as a result, personal development will occur. The important parts of Carl Rogers' Client Centered Counseling approach are presented below in the form of a series of questions. Most experienced V.P.O.s have found it extremely helpful both before and during their relationship with their probationers to continually confront themselves with these questions:

1. Can I as a V.P.O. be acceptant of each facet of my probationer which he presents to me? Can I receive him as he is? Can I communicate this attitude or can I only receive him conditionally acceptant of some aspects of his feelings and silently or openly disapprove other aspects? To establish a "helping relationship" the V.P.O. must have a warm regard for his probationer as a person of unconditional self-worth; of value no matter what his condition, his behavior, or his feelings.³ The Counselor should have a genuine willingness to allow the probationer to express whatever his feelings are at the particular moment; fear, confusion, pain, pride, anger, hatred, love, courage, awe. The V.P.O. should try to be as accepting and open toward his probationer as possible. This attitude is extremely important if there is to be any change in the probationer's behavior. It provides a safety, a freedom in which the probationer can experience and relate each and every one of his feelings. The only way to build a good relationship with the probationer is to begin to allow him to let some of these pent up feelings out without fear. Very often offenders will lock out part of their experience because of expectations or limitations of acceptability imposed by the V.P.O. This unconditional positive regard on the part of the V.P.O. can be viewed as even more important when one considers the initial distrust of the probationer as the result of the V.P.O.'s connection with the criminal justice system. Usually if the V.P.O. is not able to fully receive his probationer, and accept him in every respect, it is because he has been frightened or threatened by some aspect of the probationer's behavior, or his feelings about that behavior.

2. Can I as a V.P.O. experience positive attitudes for my probationer; attitudes of warmth, caring, liking, interest, respect? Very often this is not easy. Many V.P.O.s experience a certain amount of fear of these

feelings. Often the V.P.O. may be afraid that if he lets himself freely experience these types of positive feelings towards his probationer, that he will be trapped by them. The V.P.O. may feel that these feelings may lead to demands upon him, or that he may be disappointed in his trust. As a reaction to this, it may be easier for the V.P.O. to build up a distance between himself and his probationer; an aloofness, a "professional attitude" which can only lead to a very impersonal relationship.

3. Can I as a V.P.O. let myself enter fully into the world of my probationer's feelings and personal meaning so that I can see and understand them as *he* does? Can I step into his private world so completely that I lose all desire to evaluate or judge it? Can I enter it so sensitively that I can move about in it freely, without trampling on meanings which are precious to him? The characteristic of *understanding* is extremely important in developing a "helping relationship." This means an empathy for the probationer's feelings and communications as expressed at the moment.⁴ It is sensing the feelings and personal meaning of the probationer at each moment. The V.P.O. must be able to perceive or sense the inner feelings of his probationer, and communicate something of this understanding to him. This attitude, like acceptance, should be non-judgmental. There should be an effort on the part of the V.P.O. to understand what it feels like to be the "me" of the probationer without analysis. Evaluation could be threatening and prevent the probationer from safely becoming aware of what he is feeling. The clarification of feelings which this attitude will help the V.P.O. to gain, will provide the probationer with the freedom to explore and become aware of aspects of himself which have been hidden or blocked and which may have been greatly influential in the past in causing his non-productive behaviors. The V.P.O. can utilize these techniques simply by indicating to his probationer an empathy or understanding for statements such as, "I am depressed," or "I am down." The V.P.O. for example might reply, "That must really feel rotten," or "You sound very unhappy today." The V.P.O. should let his probationer know that he understands his feelings, and that he cares. The V.P.O. should not be afraid to express similar experiences and feelings that *he* has had. This projects still another type of understanding to the probationer.

4. Can I as a V.P.O. be perceived by my probationer as trustworthy, as dependable, and consistent?⁵ This question implies more than simply the fulfillment of all outward conditions of trustworthiness; keeping appointments, and respecting the confidential nature of interviews. This question gets to the idea of the genuineness of the counselor. It is a willingness to express the actual feelings and thoughts that the V.P.O. has at the moment. It is the idea of a congruency between the V.P.O.'s true feelings at a deep level and his presentation of those feelings on the surface. The counselor who is genuine will be aware of his own feelings and able to live them and communicate them if appropriate. This genuineness is extremely necessary if the counseling relationship is to be an effective one. If the V.P.O. counselor can explain himself as he is, and as

he feels, the probationer will be more ready to seek and express *his own* real feelings. The playing of a role or the presenting of a facade which hides true feelings on the part of the V.P.O. will only lead to a similar response on the part of the probationer. In other words, the V.P.O. must be himself! He should not try to be fake or phoney to a probationer who will almost always surely sense it. If you are sad, depressed, or angry, let the probationer see it, and be honest with him, if he asks you about it. The more honest you are in presenting yourself, the more honest the probationer is likely to be to you.

For the volunteer probation officer the Client Centered Counseling Concepts of Dr. Carl Rogers certainly provides an excellent beginning for the understanding of the basics of a good helping relationship with the probationer. Such a relationship is indispensable if changes in the probationer's behavior are ultimately to occur. However, there are some pitfalls of which the V.P.O. should be aware as he attempts to apply Regerian principles. Many V.P.O.s have found that in the process of attempting to form a "helping relationship" by providing a climate of un-conditional acceptance and positive regard, they have frequently been manipulated or "conned" by their clients. Very often the probationer is an expert at evading responsibility for his behavior or his feelings. Many probationers will attempt to use whatever tools are at their disposal for displacing blame. In the eyes of the probationer, "unconditional acceptance" or "understanding" are often perceived (at least in the beginning of the relationship) as tools for avoiding responsibility for unacceptable behavior. The counselor who is completely non-judgmental may leave the probationer to interpret this attitude as "anything I do is O.K.K.," or "my counselor will understand that I am a victim of circumstances, and it is not really my fault." The probationer often evades responsibility by treating himself as the "passive billiard ball," described in our introductory passages. It is possible that the exclusive utilization of Client Centered approaches could encourage this attitude.

It should be pointed out at this point, however, that in no way are we minimizing the potential fruitfulness of the Client Centered approach in the establishment of a helping relationship. On the contrary, we are simply stating that while such a relationship is being solidified, it is possible for the V.P.O. to become more judgmental and directive in his counseling approach, without threatening or sabotaging that helping relationship. With this in mind, the V.P.O. counselor should be aware of another very relevant counseling approach, that of Reality Therapy of William Glasser.

Unlike Client Centered Therapy, Reality Therapy *is* judgmental. It attempts to challenge the probationer rather than merely understand or improvise with him. It pushes the probationer to define what is responsible and irresponsible behavior, and challenges him or her to behave more responsibly.

In utilizing the Reality Therapy approach to counseling the V.P.O. attempts to discuss *specific problem areas* with his probationer. Rather

than dwelling on past reasons for these problems, the V.P.O. should attempt to get his probationer to deal with them "in the now" as best he can. Frequently, the V.P.O. should attempt to develop *with* his probationer, a realistic plan of action (usually written out on paper) that the probationer can follow. As each goal incorporated into this plan is met, another slightly more demanding plan or goal should be developed. These goals must be realistic and non-threatening to the probationer. Should the probationer fail to achieve these goals, the V.P.O. should not dwell on this failure, but immediately work to set new and more realistic goals. Obviously, the idea behind all this is to get the probationer to begin to face up to his problems, and realistically cope with them. During the process, the V.P.O. Counselor can continue to utilize Client Centered approaches by being supportive, warm, and friendly to his probationer, and continually encouraging him to succeed. The best Reality Therapy *never* excuses any conduct past or present, directly, or indirectly by asking why or by seeking an answer from the probationer's unconscious or past experiences. With a Reality Therapy approach, the probationer works only with the conscious and present situation. In this way he forces the probationer to take responsibility for his own behavior.

Dr. Leonard Zunin, Director of the Institute of Reality Therapy in Los Angeles, California has well summarized Reality Therapy. He has isolated six basic principles of Reality Therapy.⁶ Most experienced V.P.O.s have found these principles to be extremely helpful in dealing with their probationers.

(1) *Personal*—The probationer must communicate that he cares, that he is warm and friendly. Aloofness and cool attachments are not therapeutic. Understanding and realistic concern are the cornerstones of effective treatment. When a probationer describes a problem area, the V.P.O. should be sure to communicate his genuine concern. He should be a friend, not a detached scientist in the process of observing. Basically, Zunin is saying what we have already stressed. The volunteer probation counselor should combine Reality Therapy with the Client Centered concepts of Carl Rogers. In other words, he should "get involved with the probationer, try to understand him or her, and let him know he cares and wants to help."

(2) *Focus on behavior rather than feelings*—There is a basic social fallacy in the notion that when I feel better, I will do more. This is a cyclical phenomenon in that when people feel better, they usually do more constructive things and when they do more, they feel better. When we complete work that we have been procrastinating, or avoiding, we do feel better, and then we do more work. It is far easier to enter this cycle at the *doing* rather than the feeling level. The V.P.O. should keep this in mind, for example, when the probationer mentions that he is depressed or anxious. Rather than trying to analyze the very often complex reasons for his depression and anxiety, it may be easier to see what the person has been doing to make him feel this way, and then attempt to get him to change some of his behavior; e.g. go out with a friend if he feels lonely. Concen-

trate on your probationers' recent experiences. This will give you a major clue as to how he is adjusting and feeling. It is much easier to change his behavior than to enter into the problem of *why* he feels a certain way at a certain time.

(3) *Focus on the present*—In Reality Therapy, we deal with what the individual is doing today, yesterday, or perhaps last week, and on his present attempts to succeed. This is based upon a conviction that whatever we are today is the sum total of everything that has happened to us in our lives thus far, and that the past is fixed, and cannot be changed. All that can be changed is the immediate present and future. Though the past is discussed, incidents are never left as entities in themselves. They are always related to current behavior. For example, if a probationer describes a crisis experience that occurred several years ago, the V.P.O. counselor must always ask him what he learned from it, and how it is related to his present behavior and attempts to succeed in life. The V.P.O. should encourage his probationer to learn from past mistakes by looking at them and understanding them. These mistakes should not be gloated over or over-emphasized, but the probationer should be able to learn from them so that he will not be doomed to repeat them again. If a young offender becomes involved in another offense, the V.P.O. should try to get him to see exactly where he is headed, and how a similar violation could be prevented in the future. Use the past to help with the present!

(4) *Value judgments*—Each individual must make a value judgment as to what he is doing to contribute to his own failure before he can be helped to change. Only *he* can decide what his goals are, and if they are worthy enough to be worked for. The V.P.O. counselor cannot impose his own special judgments on the probationer since this would relieve him of the responsibility for his own behavior. This is important for the V.P.O. who frequently deals with individuals with greatly varying backgrounds from his own. These individuals must make sound judgments if they are to develop social standards. But, they themselves must make them! These values cannot be imposed upon by the V.P.O., and if they were, they would be of very little effect anyhow.

(5) *Planning*—One of the continual problems in the counseling relationship as in all aspects of life is that once a good plan is made, the probationer or any individual for that matter, must develop the strength or responsibility to carry it through. A significant portion of the counseling involvement encompasses making plans that are reasonable and realistic within the motivations and abilities of the probationer. It is far better to err on the side of making plans that are simple and easily implemented, than those that are complex, and stand a greater risk of failure. Probationers gain a success identity only through successes and not through failures. The V.P.O. can use this principle extensively! He could for example, develop with his probationer a reasonably simple plan for greater success on the job or at school. The plan need not have much more than a few easily obtainable goals, such as attempting to be nicer to

the boss at work, studying a little more, etc. Presenting a few simple, easily obtainable goals at first and, after these goals are achieved, presenting a few slightly higher goals can be an effective way of getting a probationer to change his behavior. Often times putting these goals into writing is a very useful adjunct technique.

(6) *Commitment*—After the probationer has made a value judgment about a portion of his behavior, and has been assisted in developing a plan to achieve that behavior, in accordance with his value judgment, he must make a commitment to carry out the plan. The commitment may also be oral in writing or both. In short, your probationer must express some kind of commitment toward the goal. The plan is not going to be effective unless *he* genuinely says that he wants to achieve it and actively works toward it. Again, a written commitment is the best kind.

(7) *Excuses*—The plans that you have developed with your probationer may fail, but it is the obligation of the V.P.O. Reality Therapist to make clear to his probationer that no excuses for failure are accepted. Far more therapeutic benefit will come from the probationer re-working of the plan, than discussing the reason for the plan's failure. Should the plan fail, the V.P.O. need not harp on it, but work with the probationer in developing a more realistic and perhaps simpler plan. Goals should be developed that are realistic and appropriate for the particular probationer. If for example, a young probationer cannot get "B's" on his report card, but appears to be trying very hard, perhaps a "C" average for the moment would be a more realistic goal. After that, perhaps the goal can be increased to a "C+" or a "B-." The point is that the probationer must gradually work up toward the goal. Perhaps 100% attendance at work or school is unfeasible at the moment, but 90% or even 50% may be more realistic.

(8) *Eliminate punishment*—Punishment as a way of changing behavior has rarely worked. It has worked most poorly on those with a failure identity. Therefore, never punish your probationer with ridicule or sarcasm or with hostile statements such as "see you failed again—I expected you just don't have what it takes." This principle states the unwritten dictum of Reality Therapy, *be positive!* A positive and rewarding attitude will bring about positive behavior even if not immediately. Stick with it! Change is often slow to occur, but a continually positive and encouraging attitude may well bring it about in the long run. Remember, many of your probationers have not seen much of this attitude previously at home, at work, or anywhere for that matter, and it may take a while to respond to it. Give it and them a chance! The V.P.O. can make good use of the above principals in dealing with his probationers if he keeps just one important point in mind. These techniques can be employed effectively only after the V.P.O. has established a good, trusting relationship with his client. To push or challenge the young offender too much, too soon, can seriously set back or destroy any possibility of future communication. The V.P.O. must be sure of his relationship before the techniques of Reality Therapy can or should be applied. This is

the importance of personal involvement which Dr. Zunin discusses under principal #1 above. This is also why we presented Client Centered techniques first—to emphasize the importance of the basics of a good “helping relationship” before Reality Therapy techniques should be tried. In summary, be sure of your relationship with your probationer first before trying new techniques. When in doubt, don’t over-push, or challenge your probationer. Remember that many probationers have had great difficulty in the past in having normal, healthy relationships with peers and/or family. They are naturally suspicious and untrusting. They need few excuses for ending their relationship with you. So, go gently!

A final counseling approach which we consider especially applicable to the V.P.O.-probationer relationship applies the techniques of behavior therapy or behavior modification. Behavior modification is a form of counseling or therapy based upon learning principals. In a nut-shell in utilizing behavior modification techniques, the volunteer probation officer attempts to reward or reinforce certain positive or socially acceptable behaviors on the one hand, while ignoring, not reinforcing, or extinguishing undesirable behavior on the other. One form of behavior therapy particularly applicable to the V.P.O. is called *behavior contracting*. Through the behavior contract, there is a scheduling or exchange of positive reinforcements between the V.P.O. and his probationer. The idea of behavior contracting is similar in many ways to the plan developed between the V.P.O. and the probationer which was suggested in the section above on Reality Therapy. Using the behavior contract, the V.P.O. and probationer set down on paper, reasonable goals capable of being met. In the contract, this plan and the behaviors involved are spelled out in great detail for the V.P.O. and probationer. There are built in rewards and punishments in the contract. Usually in the behavioral contract, the rewards are more concrete and material in nature.

Basically, what a good behavior contract attempts to do is deal with a specific problem area in the young offender’s life (e.g. poor school attendance, poor job performance, etc.) by offering the probationer a reward or series of rewards for improving in this area. For example, if a twenty-two year old probationer can maintain steady attendance at his job for two weeks, a contract might be set up where the probationer’s wife would agree to do those chores around the home which he has been neglecting, or cook his favorite dinner for him, or both. If a seventeen-year old probationer can attend night school classes regularly, his parents might promise him extra spending money. If either party should fail in his part of the contract, there would be specific sanctions called for in the contract. These sanctions should be reasonable. They should be agreed upon by both parties along with the rest of the contract. If they are too harsh, there would be no further benefit for the person involved in the contract. The punishment or negative sanctions would then outweigh any positive reinforcements that he or she could receive. In the above examples, a reasonable sanction for failure to meet contract obligations for the twenty-two year old to improve work attendance might be having

him do the household chores himself, or going without his favorite dinner. Failure of the seventeen-year old to attend classes would mean no extra spending money from his parents. But the sanctions should be consistent with the possible rewards otherwise your probationer will most likely not abide by the contract.

Dr. Richard Stuart of the University of Michigan has outlined four elements of a good behavior contract.⁷ First, contracts must detail the privileges which each party expects to gain after fulfilling his responsibility. For example, free time, spending money, or choice of dress style. Second, a good contract must detail the responsibility essential to securing each privilege. For example, school or job attendance, maintenance of agreed upon curfew hours, completion of household chores, etc. Privileges should be kept to reasonable pro-social limits; responsibility is kept to a minimum, or there might not be sufficient reward in the privileges to justify the effort of a positive response. Third, a good behavior contract will contain a system of sanctions for failure to meet contractual responsibilities. Earlier agreed upon sanctions are most likely to be followed when needed and they provide the aggrieved party a means of expressing displeasure without going outside the contract. Finally, the fourth element of a good behavioral contract is a bonus clause, which insures positive reinforcements for compliance with the terms of the contract. In the above examples, the youngster who increases his school attendance to a specified level will get extra spending money. The man who increases work attendance will receive better treatment by his wife, possibly including greater sexual activity with her.

Behavior contracting is a relatively new and expanding area of treatment for the youthful offender. The V.P.O. can attempt to set up a contract between himself and his probationer in which the two specifically set down those goals commented upon earlier in the section on Reality Therapy. Or the V.P.O. can attempt to mediate such a contract between his probationer and members of the probationer's family. Very often a probationer's problem stems from inadequate relationships and communication patterns with certain family members. The V.P.O. might find it extremely fruitful to initiate a contract between the probationer and the appropriate family members, and then stand by as the mediator or impartial enforcer of the contract.

When properly utilized, the behavioral contract approach has shown excellent results where other treatment methods have often failed. A particular advantage of this method to the V.P.O. is that it can be used in cases where the V.P.O. has been unable to establish much of a relationship with his youthful offender. This technique, therefore, should be kept in mind especially in those cases where the V.P.O. is having a great deal of difficulty in establishing a close relationship with his client. Client Centered Therapy or Reality Therapy pre-supposes the establishment of such a relationship, where Behavioral Contracting necessarily does not. It should be pointed out, however, that behavior contracting will usually be much more effective if a "helping relationship" has been established.

In summary, what we have attempted to do in this chapter is present three of the most relevant forms of counseling or therapy for the Volunteer Probation Officer to use in developing a change producing relationship with his probationer. We have simplified in some cases to bring these therapeutic variations down to earth. But basically we see no reason why some or all of these techniques often used by professional therapists cannot also be used effectively by the intelligent and concerned V.P.O. Remember too, that these are just three of numerous other counseling approaches, some of which could also be helpful to the V.P.O. Interested V.P.O.s might take the time to review the literature on Rational Emotive Therapy, Gestalt Therapy or Transactional Analysis.

In conclusion, the V.P.O. should keep in mind that each of the techniques presented here is not equally suited for each probationer or each V.P.O. for that matter. Each has its strong and weak points. The V.P.O. should not feel compelled to use these techniques in any particular order or even to use all of the techniques mentioned. For example, Behavioral Contracting is probably the best tool available when the V.P.O. is not able to establish a meaningful relationship with a probationer. Client Centered techniques may well be best for the offender who appears in great need of acceptance and just someone to talk to. Reality Therapy techniques might best be used on a young offender with whom the V.P.O. has developed a reasonably good relationship, and who is in need of help in specific problem areas, (e.g. work or school attendance). On the other hand, many experienced V.P.O.s have found that using a little bit of each method has been extremely helpful. It will soon be your task as a new V.P.O. to implement a counseling approach which you feel will be most appropriate for you and your assigned probationer. We have tried to lay the ground work, but the real challenge is now up to you!

FOOTNOTES

1. pp. 55-60, *Crime, Law and Society*, Frank Hartung, Wayne University Press, Detroit, 1966.
2. Carl Rogers, "The characteristics of a helping relationship," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, Vol. 37, no. 1. p. 6.
3. Excerpt from an address by Carl Rogers at the Conference of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, April 3, 1958. Reprinted in *Human Effectiveness Training*, Thomas Gordon, Effectiveness Training Associates, Pasadena Calif. 1972.
4. *Ibid*,
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6. Excerpts from an address by Dr. Leonard Zunin, Director, Institute for Reality Therapy, Los Angeles, California, at a Juvenile Court worker's seminar, Midland, Michigan, Aug. 24, 1971.
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MOTIVATING THE VOLUNTEER WORKER

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Work is a psychological contract between the employee and the organization. In this contract the employee exchanges his *contributions* (in the form of work behavior) for *inducements* which satisfy his need or wants. Money is exchanged for time at work, loyalty is exchanged for security, opportunities for challenging work are exchanged for high productivity and creative effort in service of organizational goals, acceptance of responsibility is exchanged for status, as well as combinations of these factors and others. It is essential that organizations understand those factors that motivate people and act as behavioral engineers in constructing opportunities within the organization that will insure the contributions of their workers. This analysis is especially important in the motivation of volunteer workers.

Most organizations mistakenly view the volunteer worker in a similar manner as they do their paid workers. They forget that organizations and businesses use utilitarian forms of inducements as the primary basis for motivation. The worker exchanges his contributions primarily for the inducements of salary, medical care, and pension benefits. The organization's approach to the worker, or the structure of the work experience, is based on the fact that the worker's loyalty and productivity can, to a great extent, be controlled by monetary inducements provided by management. The utilitarian basis for work motivation is not applicable to volunteer workers. They are paid no money and receive no pension. Organizations will fail to attract volunteers, or they will fail to get much effort from volunteers, if they persist in structuring the work experience in the same ways as they have traditionally done for their paid employees. To effectively use volunteer workers the organization must rethink its traditional practices and redesign them in line with the type of inducements that are applicable to volunteer workers.

The basis of the motivation of volunteers is not utilitarian but it is normative or moralistic or idealistic. Volunteer workers want to confirm their self-image of being a "good person", or "contributing to a worthy cause", or "helping others". This is why the volunteer comes to the organization initially to volunteer his services, and this will provide his motivation for staying with the organization. The organization must provide work experiences, as well as emphasize at every point in the operation, the importance of the volunteer's contributions to the goals of the organization. The volunteer must be made to feel in the work that he is doing, and in his general treatment by the organization, that his contributions are important. The most frequent complaint of volunteers is that they are seen as "extras" and relegated to short-term menial tasks. If this complaint is

valid then it is clear that organizations have not taken into account the inducements that motivate volunteers and that they have been unwilling to create work opportunities which provide these inducements.

An essential first step in the use of volunteer workers is careful planning on the part of the organization. Too many organizations claim to need volunteer workers but when they get them they don't know what to do with them. The staff should first decide where volunteers can make contributions to the organization. Next, design jobs in these areas. Make sure these jobs are such that the worker can feel he is making an important contribution. While organizational needs and jobs vary considerably there are a variety of principles that can be used as helpful guides.

The job itself is a very important determiner of motivation. One factor found to be very important is how broad or narrow the job design is. This is usually referred to as *job enlargement* or *job simplification* (or whole versus parts). The typical assembly line in the factory has simplified the job design of each worker to its minimum such that each worker puts a part on the product. These jobs are not very motivating and are not to be recommended for the volunteers. Jobs should be enlarged so they encompass some whole unit, preferably with each worker making some whole or finished product. For example, one service organization wanted to run a publicity campaign for a program they were sponsoring. They wanted volunteers to put hand bills in the mail boxes in the target neighborhood. The response of the volunteers was not too encouraging and so they redesigned the job by asking a group of volunteers to plan the total publicity for this event. The volunteers responded by planning and executing a successful campaign which included the distribution of hand bills. Doing a part of the campaign (particularly the boring part) was not motivating. Handling the whole campaign, including the boring parts, was interesting and challenging.

It is sometimes difficult to know exactly how far a job should be expanded to maximize motivation. It is somewhat easier in jobs in which some easily observable product is produced. For example, putting together an entire carburetor is whole unit while putting in one screw on a carburetor (as it passes on the assembly line) is not a whole unit. A worker can have pride in workmanship in assembling an entire carburetor but not for putting in one screw. In organizations that deal in human services the definition of a whole unit of work is not as evident. Perhaps the best rule of thumb is to look at the work itself and to try and separate it into some logical units that have a starting point and a completion point. These units should be broad enough such that the worker can feel that he has made a meaningful contribution to whatever is the organization's goal. Volunteer workers very much want to make a meaningful contribution to the organization and the jobs should be structured so that they feel they are doing such.

The *value of the work* to the organization should be emphasized. The worker should be made to feel he is contributing. In many cases this

simply involves telling the worker how his work fits in with the organization's goals. For example, one school uses volunteers to run a mimeograph machine. Initially they simply handed the volunteer a stack of stencils and told her how many copies were to be run. Motivation increased when they explained to the worker that these stencils were lesson assignments for the students. They explained how important it was for the education of the children to have daily work papers on which the children could learn writing and arithmetic. The value of the mimeographing was enhanced because the worker now felt that she was performing an important task that was contributing to the education of the children.

There are many recent studies in industry that show the importance of *shared decision-making*. Workers who share in decisions that are relevant to the jobs tend to become more committed to these decisions. The decisions become their decisions and not something that is forced upon them. Some organizations have small units of workers meet and discuss their problems, and plan their work. The technique seems to be effective in that they develop into a more cohesive work unit; they seem to take more pride in their work as it is their own plan or design; and they are more committed to the job and the decision. This can be used with volunteers by meeting with them, telling them the problem or the goal to be accomplished, and eliciting their decisions as to how the goal can be accomplished.

Novelty, or frequent rotation in jobs, tends to be an effective inducement particularly if many of the tasks are boring. This was first noticed on assembly lines in which workers would frequently exchange jobs with other workers apparently to combat the boredom of performing a simple repetitious task. Novelty is now used more extensively as a planned part of the job design. One corporation organized some of their units into six person groups and had the groups meet each morning to decide which tasks each person would perform that day. This combined shared decision making with novelty and over the last 14 months productivity has steadily climbed and absenteeism has decreased to almost zero. Similar results were found in a organization that makes extensive use of volunteers for typing, reproducing documents, and filing. A group of volunteers would meet and decide who would do what that day. They frequently rotated jobs during the day and maintained a high level of motivation and interest in the organization.

Rotation is not always effective. For example some jobs may necessitate sustained effort at the same task. Two organizations that use volunteer tutors for slow learners found that the tutor has to stick with the same child over long periods of time. The rotation of tutors caused a high degree of frustration for both tutors and children. The same was found for an organization who used volunteer "companion therapists" for autistic children. Novelty, in terms of changing tutors and children, was not effective here. However one of these organizations found that if the tutor-child pair changed activities occasionally they both become less bored.

One of the most powerful inducements to work is its *social rewards* (or *affiliative rewards*) and the work situation should be constructed so as to maximize these. A task done with others seems to be better than doing the task alone. A organization that used a volunteer (usually an elderly woman) to sort mail and collate daily reports had some difficulty getting the woman to show up on a regular basis. This problem was solved by having women work in pairs. The social contact provided an inducement for an otherwise boring task which kept the volunteers coming back daily. Putting people together of the same age and the same sex seems to work best. People of the same age and sex have shared interests and problems that form the basis for good companionship. The important point here is that the job design should be structured such that the volunteers can talk with other people or can work cooperatively with other people.

Coffee breaks and lunch breaks should be arranged so the volunteer goes with fellow workers or with friends in the same organization. (There's nothing as lonely as taking a coffee break alone). Arrange starting times and quitting times to coincide with that of friends. If there is attractive shopping nearby, make the hours flexible so that friends can spend a couple of hours window shopping together.

Some organizations plan recreational activities for their volunteer employees. One organization has occasional lunches and fashion shows for the women volunteers. Another plans occasional trips or shows for the volunteers which they use to show their appreciation to the volunteer worker, but which also provides the opportunity for social contact.

Identification with the organization should be developed. Rather than have the organization as some incidental part of the volunteer's life, arrange conditions so the volunteer can develop a strong identity with the organization and its goals. There are a variety of techniques that can be utilized. If the organization has a newsletter make sure the volunteers receive it. You might have a regular column in the newsletter on the activities of volunteers. Don't forget to cite their names in this column. If there is a staff lunchroom and staff restrooms, make sure the volunteers can use these. Let them use the staff parking lot, and any other privileges given to the paid employees. There are other techniques that are used in some organizations, e.g., all paid employees in hospitals wear uniforms or coats of some sort and many hospitals have uniforms (coats) for the volunteers. This identifies them as part of the organization and helps them identify with the organization.

There are a variety of other important considerations to maintain the volunteer's contribution in the work situation which will only be discussed briefly here. *Clarity of expectations* is important. The worker should know exactly what is expected of him. This is especially true of the volunteer worker. Volunteers see themselves as "outsiders" to the organization and it is important to specify exactly what their role is in the organization. The *degree of supervision* for volunteers is similar to that of other workers. If the task is rather easy and repetitious most workers

prefer a loose supervision. But if the work is unfamiliar or if it has important consequences, most workers prefer a tighter supervision because they have a fear of making a mistake. *Adequate grievance procedures* are especially important with volunteer workers. Most complaints and problems are easily settled if the workers have someone who will listen to the problem and who also has some authority to initiate action on the problem. All volunteer workers should have some such person to go to and this person should also take the initiative in frequently talking with the volunteers to see if they have problems.

While we have been discussing general principles that motivate workers, it should also be noted that there are differences in the needs and desires of people. For example, there are people who prefer to work alone and who don't want social contacts. There are also people who want a simplified job not an expanded job. And there are those who do not want to share in the decision-making. Occasionally volunteers will come to an organization and state that they are willing to donate a couple of hours per week if they are given a simple job to do that does not involve any thinking or responsibility. Some volunteers want a regular schedule of work with specified hours while others may only want to work occasionally. An organization that uses volunteers must take these individual differences into account and must be flexible on work assignments. It is best to interview the volunteer workers and find out what skills they have, what job preferences they have, and what type of schedule they would like. Then let the worker (shared decision-making) decide how much time he wants to spend and how he wants to spend it from the alternatives you can provide.

One word of caution is to involve your paid workers in planning the work of the volunteers. If the paid workers are a part of the planning process (shared decision making) as to when and where to use volunteers, this will eliminate a lot of potential job conflict and they will be more willing to take responsibility for aiding the volunteer on the job.

Before closing this brief summary on the motivation of volunteer workers, it must be emphasized that an effective organization is not something that just happens. It is a result of careful planning consisting of job design, evaluation of the effectiveness of the operation of that work area, re-design of job descriptions when necessary, and again, evaluation of that work area. This same planning should be applied to volunteers. First find out where in the organization you can use volunteer services. Next, design the jobs keeping in mind both the inducements that motivate volunteers, and the type of volunteer that is available. Then evaluate the work of the volunteers to find out where they are effective and where they are not. Finally, redesign the job to preserve the effective components and to correct the inadequacies. There are numerous people who very much want to make a contribution to society; the real question is whether or not your organization is willing to adapt to allow them to make their contribution.

UNIQUE SITUATION? TRY A VOLUNTEER.

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UNIQUE SITUATION? TRY A VOLUNTEER¹

Volunteers have been used in state mental hospitals for a number of years; however, at Big Spring State Hospital the volunteer is used, in addition to the traditional role, in some very unique situations both in and outside of hospital. Outside the hospital the volunteer functions in cooperation with and under the direction of the outreach clinics which are staffed by members of various professional disciplines and headed by psychiatrists. These are small outpatient clinics which are satellites of the hospital and come under its administrative direction. The clinics were started in order to provide the various psychiatric services in areas which could not financially support a facility of this type. The volunteers function in the remote areas where the clinics are located. A major function of the volunteer in this role is to act as a public health follow up worker on a voluntary basis. They encourage the patient to return to the clinics in order to maintain their present adjustment in the community. In many cases, they provide transportation for the patient. In addition to furnishing transportation and encouragement for the patient to return to the outreach clinic, the volunteer provides an important service for the psychiatrist. It is through the use of the volunteer that the psychiatrist has an access to the home and whole family constellation which would not ordinarily be possible because the patients and their families tend to view a volunteer in a much different light from what they do a paid staff member.

The alcoholic follow up program is the first of its kind in Texas in which both experienced volunteers and alcoholic counsel members aid the returned alcoholic in his community. The volunteers in this group are alcoholics or Al-Anon members. There is a paid regular coordinator who controls or directs the activity in each of the local communities in cooperation with that community's alcoholic counsel. The main function again in this type of activity is to encourage the individual to become involved in necessary follow up treatment in order to maintain his continued stay outside the hospital and to encourage his continued involvement in AA. A secondary role or function of the alcoholic follow up program is that it will allow statistics to be compiled upon these individuals so that treatment methods may be refined for future use.

A third program which functions in both the community and the hospital, and one which is very closely connected with the outreach clinic,

was designed to alleviate the following situation. Picture, if you will, a state mental hospital with "a little old lady" rocking in her chair for hours on end with no one to talk to or listen to her troubles except the doctors and nurses who, in her mind, have little or no time. There are other patients with whom she could talk, but they have their own problems and don't want to listen to hers, she thinks. What she really needs and wants is a friend. A "buddy" who will listen and be understanding; someone she can trust with her true feelings; someone to talk with; someone to write to. Because these feelings were revealed by some of the patients at Big Spring State Hospital, the picture is changing for the old and the forgotten.

In July, 1967, a grant from the Texas Governor's Committee on Aging was received by the Volunteer Council of the Big Spring State Hospital. This grant involves older citizens who are interested in serving as volunteers at Big Spring State Hospital. These volunteers come from a six county area surrounding the hospital, and are brought to the hospital by transportation furnished through grant funds and personnel. This grant project is entitled "Circuit Riders."

In order to understand the scope of the project, a sketch of the objectives are given.

1. Establish referral centers for aged people who need information, enlightenment, and understanding, concerning mental health.
2. Give services to patients from the surrounding counties, with emphasis on the geriatric patients. Making pictures and recordings from the counties, in an effort to strengthen ties between the patient and his home town.
3. Provide transportation for volunteers, patients, outpatients and visitors; thus, broadening community knowledge and services and treatment at Big Spring State Hospital.
4. Train volunteers to not only work with patients in the hospital, but qualify them to work with the returned patients and their families.

An outgrowth of the pilot endeavor is the "buddy system," aimed at relieving the plight of the little old lady described above.

Most of the eighty-three Circuit Rider volunteers are in their seventies and come to the hospital on a regular weekly basis. They had never been involved with mental patients and evidenced a need for a well structured idea of their role in relation to the patients in the hospital. To become a buddy to a long-term patient was a challenge to our volunteers and to some, even a threat. To help meet the challenge and alleviate these fears, nine values and guidelines were formed through the cooperation of the Psychology and Volunteer staffs.

1. It is never good, nor your place, to suggest that a person has no business in the hospital.
2. Certainly encourage the patient about how well he or she is doing.
3. Or state—We all have our bad days.

4. Remember: You are not the social worker. (We do not contact family members for the patients without discussion in team staff, nor suggest that they visit their family. This could be very painful if the family does not want the patient.)
5. Remember: Do not worry about every detail of your buddy's mental health.
6. Just be yourself—honest.
7. You are asked to be a friend-buddy.
8. Do not bring gifts to your buddy. (Christmas is another matter).
9. Do not spend over 25¢ on any given day on your buddy; that is, you spend this limited amount as you fellowship in the canteen. You do not buy cigarettes, jars of instant coffee, etc. (The reason for this policy was that volunteers who could not afford it would feel left out.)

The preceding instructions were simple, clear-cut, and phrased in common language yet were designed to serve as a basis of action during the time each person was involved with his or her buddy. Before the volunteer becomes part of the buddy system, these guides are presented in a group discussion held with the psychologists or other staff members who implement the buddy system on the unit. It was felt that these instructions would "take the pressure off" the Circuit Rider volunteer by showing him or her that the staff understands some of the difficulties they were experiencing. The discussion would also leave an opening for questions related to specific problems.

The psychologist meets regularly with individuals or in groups with the volunteers in order to answer questions and give advice. Communication is improved through patients and volunteers sitting together in group therapy with the same staff member and with the volunteer attending patient government sessions.

In addition to lightening staff duties, it must be pointed out that this program is beneficial to both the patient and to the volunteers themselves as shown in the following excerpts from letters sent to the grant administrator:

"My buddy, Candy M., is indeed a challenge like I've never met in all my seventy-seven years of life. Our very best for her is so small compared to the facts and tests she must face in order to achieve her goal, which she says is 'leading a brand new life.' Let's pray that she meets all the tests with flying colors." Or,

"Another week has passed and here I am trying to put into words some of my feelings. All the Circuit Riders wish that they knew more to do to help the residents. Everyone seems to be pleased with the "buddy plan." It gives you a feeling that you are closer to that one." And finally,

"It was a real thrill to receive the award pins."

As a result of this involvement, these older volunteers maintain a higher degree of interest in life and have acquired an awareness of mental health

resources available to them and to their friends and acquaintances. The Buddy System works both ways. The intense activity of the senior volunteers gives impetus to the total volunteer program of establishing patient relationships.

As an outgrowth of the Circuit Rider Program utilizing the older volunteer, a new aspect is being experimented with by using younger volunteers, teenagers, known as Circuit Riderettes. They, too, interact with the older patient. It has been found that these young people can do this very well and in some cases, are even better than the older volunteer. They receive the same type of supervision and instruction that the Circuit Rider volunteer does when they come into the hospital to work and interact with patients.

The preceding four programs have outlined how the volunteer is used in unique ways outside the hospital. There are three other programs which utilize the volunteer in new ways in the hospital proper. These programs can be divided into two major aspects, individual and group work. The individual program utilized volunteers who deal directly with patients by means of art therapy or painting. This program is used on a one to one basis with regressed adolescents in an attempt to get them to relate to another individual in their environment. Further material is gained for treatment purposes by means of both analyzing the patient's drawings and by having the volunteer make specific drawing assignments. The volunteer functions as a psychometrist in that she records and reports the specific behavior of the child to the therapist.

The two other group activities utilizing volunteers are psychodrama and psychotherapy. Psychodrama is conducted by a trained volunteer under the supervision of the Psychology Staff. She lightens the psychotherapist's or supervisor's role, thus leaving him free to concentrate on the interpretation of the psychodrama and its influence and impact on the patients. The third and final use of the volunteer is that of adjunct therapist or co-therapist. The volunteer assists the psychotherapist in conducting his group. This appears to be extremely effective when a male therapist works with a group of females in that often times chronic patients feel more comfortable and will talk directly to the female assistant rather than the therapist concerning some matters which they consider too personal to talk to a man about. It is extremely important that when using a co-therapist that the patients know that she is a volunteer because her presence and status as a volunteer appears to improve the communication between the patient and the staff. They see the volunteer as someone who is interested in them and wants to help them, who is not a paid staff member nor a professional, but who is willing to invest time and effort with them. A volunteer who is involved in this program functions as an additional or auxiliary staff member, thus lightening the staff's load and enabling them to reach more patients.

Needless to say, it must be stressed that it is extremely important when selecting individuals to become involved with patients on a one to one or

group type of relationship careful screening must be done. The majority of individuals who apply through the Volunteer Coordinator's office for activities directly involving patients on a one to one or group type relationship are eliminated. They are eliminated usually because this type of work requires a high level of intelligence, maturity, and emotional stability which is necessary to cope with the stresses found in psychotherapy.

The volunteers who take part in the special roles directly involving patients as adjunct therapists go through long and closely supervised periods of training. The long period of supervision and training is essential because unlike the role of the Circuit Rider, which makes therapeutic use of friendship, the requirements of the adjunctive or co-therapist are much more involved. These individuals are involved in activities which will increase their knowledge about patient's abnormal behavior and personality dynamics by means of reading and participation in in-service training sessions. This training increases their knowledge about themselves and how they react in specific situations in therapy.

In general the psychiatric and professional staff of Big Spring State Hospital have felt that the time invested in the supervision and training of volunteers to handle special therapeutic roles both in and outside the hospital is profitable. These trained volunteers not only function as auxiliary staff members but also function as educational and resource persons in the communities in which they live. These individuals are another means by which to educate and help the majority of people to learn about mental health.

FOOTNOTE

¹The narrative materials found in this article were furnished by the late Betty Duncan whose untimely death was a great loss to both the volunteers and patients of Big Spring Hospital.

THE CLIENT VOLUNTEER

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As an Administrator of a state Child Welfare office, I encouraged the development of a volunteer program with emphasis on involving the protective service client as a volunteer. The program was fascinating to watch as there was a tremendous change in the client after they began to volunteer. One client, named Mary, described in the initial interview her fears, saying she was so frightened she did not feel she would be able to walk down the hallway of the agency to the room where she was to be interviewed. After having worked for one month as a volunteer, this same client walked into the agency and had to walk through a room where a staff meeting was being held. The staff was having a break for coffee. Mary said, clearly, "If I wasn't so busy, I'd sit down and have a cup of coffee with you." This same client's personal grooming also improved. Initially she came to the agency in shorts, hair uncombed, no make-up; eventually she began wearing a dress, her hair was combed and she began experimenting with eye make-up and lipstick.

One characteristic of the protective service client is their isolation from society. Not only do they have difficulty understanding society, but they seldom have contact with people. They do not belong to community organizations, and often their limited contacts are with those that live in similar handicapping conditions. Separation from fellow human beings and isolation from the mainstream of society leads them to feel alone and inadequate. Clients have little opportunity to give of themselves and usually are caught in the position of being given to. By not offering them a way to give of themselves, we handicap their growth, their need to give and their need for identity and success.

THE HOMEMAKER IS ONE KEY TO INVOLVING CLIENTS IN THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM.

As I began to look closely at the protective service client as a volunteer, I found that in the instances where the client was a volunteer, her involvement had been initiated and encouraged by the homemaker who had been assigned to the family. The homemaker utilized the agency volunteer program to help the client become involved in something outside her own family and in doing so the client began to change.

The homemaker's role was one of a model, where they learned to talk, share ideas and handle themselves in a social situation. The homemaker then encouraged the client to become involved at the agency as a volunteer. The client learned to relate to staff, other volunteers and had an

opportunity to be successful. Learning to relate in a warm, accepting setting opened up a new and wider world. Succeeding in the environment of the agency left the client less afraid of new situations and of failures.

Roberta, age 22, was referred to the agency by the police due to concern on their part and neighbors that her 18-month-old child had been killed while playing in the street. She had another child, age 3, when referred to the agency. She lived in condemned housing with her elderly mother and father. In a taped group discussion, she describes her relationship with the homemaker and as a volunteer with the agency as follows:

"A year ago in October I lost my little boy and I was pretty upset over it. I didn't feel much like doing anything, which I hardly didn't until the homemakers come in on me. Now I have been working right and left with them and so what problem I had is a lot better and I'm doing more for other people besides myself. You see, I just didn't feel much like living. I used to sit in a tavern drinking a lot and the homemaker came in and talked to me and explained things to me. I have a four-year-old girl and the homemaker said I should spend my money on her and put my responsibility towards her instead of being in the tavern so much. I kept telling them, 'I'm going to quit, I'm going to quit.' Finally then one day, the homemaker come back and I told her I had quit and she was so tickled, she couldn't believe it. She said why and I said, 'Well, whenever I was around you all at the office, I just felt kind of out of place by going out and drinking.' It was a new experience; I feel pretty good about it. I want to meet people and work with people and I don't know if it's any help or not, but right now I'm taking my high school lessons at home in my spare time; I want to get my high school diploma. I'm working so I can get a job, 'cuz I want to work and be out helping people."

WHAT THE CLIENT DOES AS A VOLUNTEER.

Volunteer positions where the clients have found opportunities to be of service are numerous. Their involvement in a clothing exchange can be exciting. They enjoy sorting clothing, making minor repairs, washing and ironing the clothing.

In the same taped discussion, Mary, an alcoholic with two children, said about her experience with the clothing exchange:

"I made a pest out of myself. I think I was over here every day. I loved it. It was like my second home. I think I was with the agency about a month at the most when I started volunteering, and I got so much joy and satisfaction out of that. One room was stacked with 70 boxes of clothes and I never had so much fun in my life as I did getting them gathered up for other people. I loved it."

This can also be a teaching activity for those clients that need help in learning how to care for clothing.

The clients who have children in school feel much gratification from going with the homemaker to other clients' homes to assist in house-cleaning, and to give additional attention to the young children still at home while the mother is busy with the homemaker.

Each client, regardless of how many problems they have themselves, has some ability which can be utilized and developed. For example, Jane, a divorcee, mother of six children and living in inadequate housing and struggling with a drinking problem, had an amazing talent for cooking nutritionally low cost meals. She became a volunteer and demonstrated her talents to other women.

Clients make great office helpers. They enjoy addressing envelopes, can be taught the proper way to answer the telephone, manage the switchboard and help with the filing.

The volunteer publication is another way a client can contribute. One client wrote an article for each publication which dealt with family and recreational activities in the community that were free or inexpensive. She was aided by a volunteer editor but her own simple style was reflected in the article. The clients also folded the publication, addressed and stamped the envelopes. At Christmastime the clients can be involved in helping to create a Christmas card which also reflects their involvement with the agency and can be involved in a workshop where mothers get together to help one another make their children toys for Christmas.

The opportunities for involving the client will undoubtedly be endless once we as professional staff become committed to opening the agency to the client and recognize each individual has something to give whether it be big or small. When we do this we will be fulfilling our responsibility as an agency. The rewards will be great as was expressed by one client volunteer when asked how she felt about volunteering with the agency:

"We all have feelings, to me one of the greatest satisfactions that any human being can get on this earth, is to be able to help somebody else. I'm not very good on words, I don't claim to be, but if I can go in and if somebody's depressed and just be able to put my arm on their shoulder and say, 'Hey, I care,' and really mean it, to me that is worth more money than anybody could put in this room and that's from my heart. I love people, I didn't think I did. I thought I was a people hater, but I'm not. I love people and there isn't anything I wouldn't do for anybody."

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