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The present editorial policy of VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION is to publish articles dealing with practical concerns, philosophical issues, and significant applicable research. The Journal encourages administrators of volunteer programs and volunteers themselves to write from their experience, knowledge and study of the work in which they are engaged. VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION is a forum for the exchange of ideas and the sharing of knowledge and information among those in the voluntary sector: administrators, board members, volunteers in social service and social action, citizen participants in the public sector, and members of voluntary organizations.

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from the EDITOR

It seems that the beginning of a new volume is an appropriate occasion for updating our readers on the goals, achievements and changes of the past year.

As our new editorial staff began 1977, we envisioned Volunteer Administration becoming a respected and widely read professional journal for practitioners, educators, and leaders in the field of volunteerism. Our specific goals were: 1) to greatly expand the readership; 2) to substantially increase the participation of practitioners as manuscript contributors; and 3) to establish sound management practices in fiscal and production matters relating to the publication. I am delighted to report that significant progress has been made toward achieving all three goals. Our intent for 1978 is to build on this foundation and move still closer to our challenge of making Volunteer Administration an increasingly useful and valued professional journal.

These achievements would not have been possible without the enthusiasm and dedication of our entirely volunteer editorial staff. The outstanding efforts of Carol Moore, Managing Editor for 1977, should be particularly noted. Carol has resigned this position to assume her duties as President of AAVS. We welcome Hilda Palm as her replacement. We would also ask you to note that the business office has been moved to Boulder, Colorado, so please address all correspondence to Volunteer Administration, P. O. Box 4584, Boulder, CO 80306.

Others leaving our editorial staff at the end of 1977 were Sarah Jane Rehnborg, Gideon Stanton, John and Anne Cauley and several of the Associations' consulting editors. Our deepest gratitude to all of you for your time, expertise and vision.

We welcome Constance Krell as the new AAVS editor, David Horton Smith as AVAS editor, and Florence Schwartz as Research translator editor. Shirley Leberte will remain as AVB editor. We look forward to another exciting and productive year with your help.

I personally want to express my delight at the response we have been receiving from people around the country who tell me they not only eagerly await each issue...but read and use it. Starting with the Summer issue, we would like to add a Letters to the Editor section and invite your comments, concerns and challenges. After all....it is your journal.

Marlene Wilson

Marlene Wilson

The Director of Volunteers as CHANGE AGENT

by Donald L. Hadfield

Most Directors of Volunteers in human service agencies recognize the truth in Kurt Lewin's dictum - *"If you want to understand something, try to change it"*. Faced with rapidly changing demands placed upon the agencies they serve, Directors are recognizing that organizations of the future will need to develop new structures and processes to meet those demands. These new systems will greatly increase the need for the creative and flexible use of the human resources of the organization. I suspect that more and more we will see the emergence of organizational concepts wherein persons will be seen as resources to be utilized at any time their capabilities are needed to solve organizational problems. For this, the Director of Volunteers must be equipped to function as an internal change-agent.

Some old concepts of autonomous departments, 'working through channels', and the usual line-staff delineation of responsibilities are no longer completely valid in modern human service agency management. Directors are developing project teams, task forces and other types of temporary systems as more appropriate ways for their agencies to optimize the different capabilities of their human resources. As predicted by Bennis[1]

> *I suspect that we will see an increase in the number of planned-change programs...toward less bureaucratic and more participative, 'open system' and adaptive structures. Given the present pronounced rate of change...we can expect increasing demand for social inventions to revise traditional notions of organized effort.*

To cope with the demands upon the agency, Directors of Volunteers will need to be able to be many things and to take various roles, to identify with the adaptive and change process, and to develop an ability to modify their commitments as needs arise. They will work with persons in organizations who will need to move in and out of various types of work group relations which may have a short or long range time dimension.

Four areas of change-agent competency need to be focused upon by the Director of Volunteers. They are: *(1) diagnosis of the organization; (2) developing levels of cooperation; (3) working with conflict; and (4) strengthening relationships.* The goals of all human service agency development efforts are improved effectiveness in its performance of service and improved organizational health. All such efforts should begin with accurate diagnosis.

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DIAGNOSIS OF THE ORGANIZATION

My hip pocket model of organizational diagnosis consists of four areas:

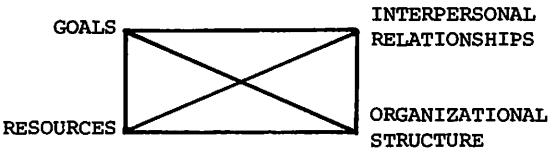
(1) GOALS: *What are we all about? What's the mission?*

(2) INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS: *How do people get along? Who influences the decision making process?*

(3) ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE: *Is it functional or is it dysfunctional?*

(4) RESOURCES: *What is the availability of human, material and financial resources?*

All four areas are interrelated and all organizations have problems in one or more of these areas most of the time.



For the change-agent, correct identification of the problem within the organization constitutes a great portion of the work. Accurate description diminishes wasted effort in planning to reduce or eliminate causes that have little or no consequence in producing change. Others make the point of accurate diagnosis.[2] Diagnosis means the examination of the need for change and the state of the system to produce change. In working for diagnosis of the problem or area for change to produce the desired results, the Director of Volunteers must be aware of the inter-relatedness of the four areas.

GOALS are guides. The goal must be well stated and clear. Coordination of effort among staff and volunteers can never be optimal if goals are not clear, consensual or objectively recognizable. The change-agent needs to know the ideal states toward which the agency and its membership are striving. Any disparity between goals proclaimed and goals acted upon eats up a lot of energy in unproductive work and explanations. In almost all situations, I have found that there is more likelihood of resistance to change when there is confusion or disagreement to the goal(s) of the agency. A task of the Director of Volunteers as a change-agent is to ferret out goal conflicts and stimulate discussion of them.

If sufficient agreement exists about one or more organizational goals, work can proceed to achieve those goals. Otherwise if goals are not accepted, staff and volunteers have three options: *They can (1) confer until a goal for the organization is found that satisfies the personal needs of those involved; (2) find sources of satisfaction outside the organization for those needs that the organizational goals are not meeting; or the unsatisfied can (3) leave the organization.* Ascertaining the goals held by a collection of persons requires skill. The change-agent must assess the members' perceptions of their goals. This almost always arouses in the group a desire for greater clarity about mission, beliefs and values. A number of processes that the Director may use have been developed for that purpose.[3]

The second step for the Director of Volunteers in his/her change-agent role would be to ascertain the 'level' of *INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIPS* within the human service agency. If a goal is accepted (owned) by a group and is clearly understood, the goal may not be reachable because persons are unable to work together. Staff and volunteers often have a disagreement about who will 'really' make decisions and how conflict is to be handled. Too often I have found that routine procedures often lead to dysfunctional efforts and cause agencies to fail even though all persons involved claim commitment to the goal(s).

In most agency approaches to making changes, competition and struggle for power and influence tend to be explained away or ignored. These approaches assume that persons in an agency will be collaborative and productive if they are taught how. Although the most productive and concise ways to work with issues of power or competitiveness in relationships are never quite clear to me, I do see role negotiation[4] in a human service agency as producing positive change results. Mainly, role negotiation focuses upon work relationships, deals directly with problems of power and influence, is highly action oriented, and the procedures are clear. Approaches like role negotiation work well because the issues of power and influence are resolved to a reasonable level of satisfaction for those involved.

The third area of diagnosis to be given attention by the change-agent is the

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURING of persons to complete the task and reach the agency goals. If a group has defined and accepted a goal, attained good decision-making processes that work for them, but now finds itself with an organizational structure that creates barriers for any attainment of the goal, what happens? The usual product of dysfunctional organizational structure is frustration and abandonment of the project, task or program.

Most organizations are structured in the sense of having positions and parts which are systematically related to other positions and parts. Most contemporary organizational theorists like Likert, McGregor, Argyris and others have advocated more process and open approaches as over against the 'classical' theorists with their discussions of chains of command, specialization of function, etc. Bennis summed it up well when he said that 'classical' theorists often talked about *"organizations without people"* while contemporary theorists talk about *"people without organizations"*.[5]

One method of diagnosing organizational structure that seems productive is to determine the types of decisions made at various organizational levels. Who determines the actions of others in the decision-making process? Typically we think of persons at the 'top' of the human service agency as the chief wielders of power and those at the 'lower' levels possessing decreasing amounts of power.

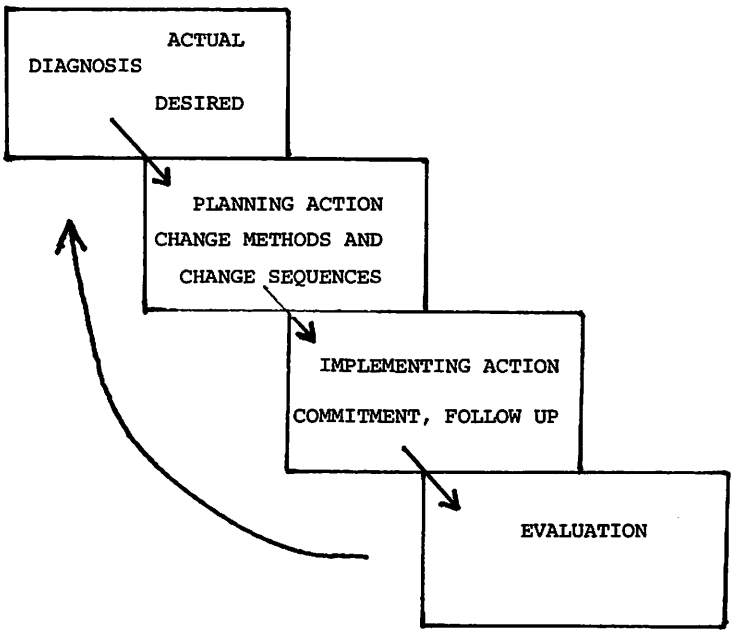
That picture is inaccurate in a fully functioning organization. In these organizations power and decision-making is actually shared with staff and volunteers. It is important to realize that increased influence of those in lower echelons of the organizations does not reduce the control of persons higher in the organizational structure. In fact what usually occurs in effectively functioning human service agencies is that staff and volunteers at all levels gain in power as the influence of their subordinates is relatively increased. March and Simon[6] have made this explicit in their theory of organizations. Likert[7] has described much the same view in his 'link-pin model' for organizations. According to Likert, as more influence is granted to subordinates by communicatively connecting each organizational level with every other, the total organization becomes more integrated. Information goes more directly from where it arises to where it is needed. All levels gain more actual operating power from the increased interaction.

It is important for the Director of Volunteers in the change-agent role to help persons understand that people develop purposes; organizations do not. Organizations carry out the purposes that people set. It is more accurate to say that an organization has adopted a planned strategy set by persons to make or achieve something. This planned strategy then attracts the various contributions of other persons who are, in fact, seeking to fulfill a variety of needs. These persons have made a common decision to work out their different needs in a coordinated manner around a particular strategy to reach a common goal.

One of the major concerns for the Director of Volunteers is the interface among groups or units within the organization. Since working units, once formed, will evolve their own distinctive task-related characteristics, they will have different points of view. This often generates serious intergroup problems whose symptoms are 'inappropriate' competition, secretiveness and hostility. The change-agent must deal with these issues to achieve unity of effort. In working with this, the Director focuses upon the quality of interaction between units within the agency and continues to build the concept of interdependence.

The fourth area of the change-agent to focus upon in diagnosis is the availability and control of *RESOURCES*. Resources directly affect the decision-making process and the attainment of goals in a human service agency. An effective and functional organizational structure in which the involvement of staff and volunteers is healthy and working on commonly developed goals may not be able to perform fully because of the unavailability, limit or control of resources. The role of the Director of Volunteers is to always clearly determine the identification of and the availability of human and material resources to reach the goal.

No matter what method is employed by the Director of Volunteers to generate a diagnosis of the organization, it is the most important phase of the role of the change-agent in the human service agency. The Director then involves the agency in planning action, implementing action and evaluating. When the final step of evaluation is carried out, the learning that has taken place is returned in the process to the diagnostic phase.



DEVELOPING LEVELS OF COOPERATION

The task before the human service agency is how to more fully mobilize the energy of the organization's human resources toward achievement of the organizational goals. The change-agent needs to organize his/her work, open the communications system, establish interdependent relationship between administration, staff and volunteers. To accomplish this, teams of people must spend real time improving their methods of working, decision-making and communicating. Most importantly, individual needs for self worth, growth and satisfaction should be met through such time together.

One of the major obstacles to effective organizations is the amount of dysfunctional energy spent in 'inappropriate' competition - energy that is not available for the accomplishment of tasks important to the agency. Beckhard[8] maintains that this area of competition must be a central operational focus of the change-agent. Johnson[9] clearly pursues the effects and benefits of cooperation in problem-solving groups.

It is quite evident to me that my role as a change-agent places high priority on processes, procedures and methods that develop collaborative, cooperative efforts. A Director of Volunteers may help cooperation within a group by *(1) facilitating the understanding of all group members to the problem or task; (2) interpret to individuals how he/she can help solve the problem; (3) bring an understanding of other members problems and contributions; and, (4) help members to be aware of the group's cooperative goal structure.*

Cooperation within a human service agency does take place in varying degrees. It will depend on the amount of actualized interpendence that exists. For instance, the unit responsible for staff development may not always interact with the unit responsible for plant management and neither one may always have contact with the office for volunteer services. Yet they are interdependent in the sense that unless each performs adequately, the total organization is jeopardized. Failure of any one unit can threaten the whole. This has been described as "pooled interdependence".[10] The change-agent must assist the agency in realizing the validity of the interdependence between working units and appreciate the fact of that condition.

WORKING WITH CONFLICT

One of the primary demands on any organization is that it link together its various parts to achieve overall objectives. To achieve common tasks and reach goals, persons and groups must collaborate. The necessity for the degree of collaboration will depend on the nature of the task. In most tasks the need is great.

However, collaboration unavoidably brings conflicts. Conflicts arise over who is willing to do what. Group members compete for influence and control. Differing reactions to pressures from without lead to disagreements. So conflict is normal and unavoidable in organizations that are moving toward multifaceted goals. It is important that the Director of Volunteers view conflict as natural. Conflict should be brought out into the open and managed without expecting it to disappear of its own accord. A conflict is sometimes best managed by providing channels or occasions through which the parties can introduce their conflicting claims. If conflicts are not uncovered and managed, then informal groups and networks arise to cope with the conflict. Destructive tension and rising personal hostility between conflicting parties can result.

One method that has been rewarding for me in consultation is to use an expectations survey to discover where there is role conflict. In this role negotiation process the participants are asked to make three lists as follows:

(1) the things the other person should increase in quantity and or quality;

(2) the things the other should decrease in quantity;

(3) the things the other does to facilitate the situation and should not be changed.

The data is then collected and collated. In the process I allow the parties to question those who have provided messages, but no one is allowed to argue against the information that she/he has received. That type of communication is controlled in order to prevent escalation of actual or potential conflicts.

When the messages are clearly understood, then it is time for the two parties to choose an issue to negotiate. A list is compiled of the most negotiable issues and ranked from most to least important. This process gives me what indications I need of the good faith of the negotiators. The negotiations of the conflict proceed in the form of an exchange or exchanges until the parties are satisfied. The agreement is recorded and the next issue is negotiated. Both the presence of the change-agent and active participation influence the process. When the third-party does not have a high investment in the issues at stake, the two conflicting parties are more likely to respond to the direction or advice given.

Within an agency, Kahk and French[11] have pointed out that the major determinants of conflict include three kinds of role requirements: *(1) the requirement for crossing organizational boundaries; (2) the requirement for producing innovative solutions to non-routine problems; and (3) the requirement for being responsible for the work of others*. I have found that those roles in an organization which demand creative problem solving are closely associated with active role conflict. Those in such roles appear to become engaged in conflict primarily with older and often more powerful individuals in the organization who want to maintain the status quo.

STRENGTHENING RELATIONSHIPS

The role of the Director of Volunteers in the agency is strengthened by developing trust relationships and tailoring developmental recommendations. As Johnson[12] maintains, little happens in a relationship until the individuals learn to trust each other. Within the context of a trusting relationship, the change-agent has greater freedom and capability to move with developmental aspects of her/his work. Being able to express acceptance and support for the openness and sharing of others while at the same time expressing ideas and opposing points of view is made possible only within 'trust formations'.

The strengthening of relationships will be built upon commitment to the goals, commitment to the group, and respect for the members of the group. This sense of belonging is not just a blind loyalty, but a sense of wanting to work with other members of the group in accomplishing goals which are meaningful to the individual member. Strengthening relationships is not predicated on everyone's liking each other. It is a more mature level of respect and openness which emerges out of common commitment to working together to accomplish the goals. The change-agent can assist the staff and volunteers to build and maintain cohesion built on trust as a norm.

Organizational problems are no longer the province of just one group. They cut across the multiple human, structural and technological resources of an agency. The Director of Volunteers as a change-agent in the human service agency usually will find their day-by-day administrative responsibility in the developmental context of that organizational norm.

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SERVICE LEARNING:

A Bridge Between the University and the Community

by Christina A. Dolen
Assistant Director

Jane S. Smith
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Assistant Director

Volunteerism has changed significantly since its altruistic conception. The early "Lady Bountifuls", whose service centered around the giving of goods and money and who rarely had more than a slight association with the recipients, has evolved into a new type of volunteer service. That service is symbiotic in nature, a mutually beneficial arrangement. It is founded on the most basic of marketing principles, that of giving something in exchange for something of similar value. It also embraces the notion of long term commitment and direct service. It further creates a greater opportunity for practical experience and broadens the scope of potential job markets.

Today volunteerism is a global force reaching from the great cities of America to the rural villages of India. In the United States, one out of four Americans above the age of 13 does some form of volunteer work each year. Translated, this means 40 million citizens spend countless hours in work which they consider important (Naylor, p. 19). Projections show that by 1980, volunteers will contribute service worth more than $30 billion annually to the economy of the United States (Morrison, p. 50).

The purpose of this paper is to demonstrate the mutually beneficial arrangement between volunteerism and the university. The present trend of volunteerism on college and university campuses across the nation is that of service-learning, or the giving of service in exchange for learning. Dr. Ernest Boyer, U. S. Commission of Education (1977), captures the essence of this paper when he states:

> *I think we must find a way for the school to build bridges to the world beyond so that young people will earlier be able to see the relationship of the school to community service, to future jobs and to the university or college. We should find a way for there to be more flexible relationships and earlier options that the students can engage in to begin to discover how the school relates to the world in which the student lives.*

Many leading experts believe that the service-learning concept is the best mode to "build bridges" toward a symbiotic relationship between the university and the community.

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Overview

In a recent forum held by the National Student Volunteer Program, a group of educators defined service-learning as the *"integration of the accomplishment of a task which meets human needs with conscious educational growth"* (Barrett, et al., p.16). Thousands of students are currently taking advantage of this opportunity through volunteer and career education programs. They have been quick to realize the value of these experiences in relation to their classroom curricula and to finding and holding jobs in their fields.

These two factors, educationally relevant experiences and career exploration and development, have been observed as the primary motivators for students who participate in service-learning projects. In a survey conducted by the Office of Volunteer Programs at Michigan State University in 1976, 66% of the total respondents felt their volunteer experience made their classroom experience more worthwhile. Likewise, 63% answered in the affirmative when asked if their volunteer experience affected their career choice (Smith, et al., (a) pp. 2-3).

All too often the classroom has shielded itself from outside interference. Historically, the promulgation of ideas has been the prime goal of formal classes:

> *Ideas existed in a kind of Platonic purity. A student learned ideas without sullying their pristine essence - without responding personally or interpreting them. Measurements of a student's grasp of ideas consisted of comparing the students' version with the original as interpreted by an older academic, who presumably had removed his personality and uniqueness from his understanding of the original text. All students learned the same things, and they learned them in the same way at the same time (Peterson, 1977, p. 28).*

Students, over a four year period, deal with "funny money" due to this insulated environment. Solving problems is academic, hypothetical, with few responsibilities for wrong decisions (Shingleton and Bao, p. 44). Henry David Thoreau, at Harvard College in 1855, articulated similar attitudes when he complained about the method and psychology of learning that traditional college held in its grip:

> *The students, he observed, "should not play life, or study it merely, while the community supports them at this expensive game, but earnestly live it from beginning to end. How could youths better learn to live than by at once trying the experiment of living? Methinks this would exercise their minds as much as mathematics." He asks: "Which would have advanced the most at the end of a month, - the boy who had made his own jack-knife from the ore which he had dug and smelted, reading as much as would be necessary for this, - or the boy who had attended the lecture on metallurgy at the Institute in the meanwhile, and had received a...penknife from his father? Which would be the most likely to cut his fingers?" As for his own experiences at Harvard, Thoreau could only relate: 'To my astonishment I was informed on leaving college that I had studied navigation! - why, if I had taken one turn down the Harbour I should have known more about it.'*
>
> (Rudolph, pp. 236-237)

Students are taught many theories, concepts, ideas and notions yet are rarely given the opportunity or encouraged to test them outside the classroom. Time limitations, faculty workloads, and lack of knowledge of the availability of community resources are some of the constraints which have caused the void in practical experience. Bloom, et al., point out the value of service-learning relative to course curricula in their handbook Taxonomy of Educational Objectives (p. 125):

> *If the situations described by the objective...are to involve application ...then they must either be situations new to the student or situations containing new elements as compared to the situation in which the abstraction was learned...Ideally we are seeking a problem which will test the extent to which the individual has learned to apply the abstraction in a practical way. This means that the problems should have some relation to the situations in which he may ultimately be expected to apply the abstraction.*

The reality and purpose for learning is all too often lost in the shuffle of textbooks, papers, and tests. A well-designed and balanced service-learning program can effectively integrate the two types of education which Carl Rogers calls "affective" and "cognitive" learning. "On the one

hand, there is learning that involves the mind only (cognitive). It does not involve feeling or personal meanings; it has no relevance to the whole person. In contrast, there is such a thing as significant, meaningful, experiential learning" (affective) (Peterson, 1971, p. 5). Bloom, et al., elaborates on these two forms of learning:

> Cognitive: *Objectives which emphasize remembering or reproducing something which was presumably learned as well as objectives which involve the solving of some intellectual task for which the individual has to determine the essential problem and then reorder given material or combine it with ideas, methods or procedures previously learned.*
>
> Affective: *Objectives which emphasize a feeling tone, an emotion, or a degree of acceptance or rejection. Affective objectives vary from simple attention to selected phenomena to complex qualities of character and conscience ...Such objectives are expressed as interests, attitudes, appreciation of values and emotional sets of biases (Peterson, 1971, p. 70).*

Current research challenges the traditional notion that cognitive growth inevitably leads to affective growth and vice versa. Rather, Bloom, et al., describes this concept as two adjacent ladders with widely spaced alternating rungs which, for both to be climbed easily, entails stepping from one to the other. "Growth in the affective domain leads to activity and growth in the cognitive leads to more concern for the affective" (Peterson, 1971, p. 70).

Benefits of Service-Learning for Students

Experience is not necessarily the best teacher, but is a primary component of learning. A service-learning position which is educationally relevant does expand the student in numerous ways. The experience can help develop interpersonal and communication skills and teach the fundamentals of new techniques or equipment. Students may take on supervisory roles or have the opportunity to meet leaders in a particular field (Smith, et al., (b) p. 4). Service-learning allows the student to gain pre-professional experience, face and define problems, have exposure to cultural and class differences, promote positive relations between the community and the university and understand the relation of theory to practice (Yarrington, p. 16).

Another component, inherent in service-learning, is the opportunity for career exploration and development. Although the notion that education has the responsibility to equip people to participate in gainful occupation, it is not universally accepted across academia; however, this is fast becoming a major concern. Boyer (1977) believes that real education should include realistic expectations which relate the school more directly to the community and to vocational choices that the student has to make.

Students, parents and many academicians are urging universities to deal with this issue. The reason for pressure by these groups is easy enough to understand. Prior to 1960, colleges and universities produced considerably fewer graduates in relation to the total population than they do today. The sheepskin was an almost automatic guarantee of success in the job market. The number of graduates has increased from 389,000 in 1960 to 784,000 in 1970 and over 2 million are projected for the class of 1980. As a result of this exponential rise in number of graduates in the last two decades, a four-year degree has suddenly become an entry level requirement for jobs in commerce and industry, replacing the high school diploma (Grant, p. 3C).

Most explanations of the reality of the current situation do not satisfy the holder of Bachelor's Degrees:

> *We should not be surprised by the demand that a college education assures a person of a higher paying, higher status job than that which is available with less education. That has been a widely held expectation in our society for a long time. The reasons, given by older persons, for returning to college and universities confirm the power of this belief. A college degree is viewed as a gate key that admits one to upward mobility (Duly and Gordon, p. 7).*

Currently the difficulty of finding a job has made students and colleges painfully aware that typical college degrees do not necessarily prepare a graduate to compete favorably for available jobs (Grant, p. 30).

A survey of more than 400 employers conducted by the Michigan State University Placement Office showed most employers do not think colleges are giving enough practical work-related experience (Shingleton and Sheetz, p. 44). Shingleton and Boa, in their book College to Career, (p. 44), concur:

Many students who attend college have had little or no experience in the real world. Everything has been ordered for them...Four years of this kind of cloistered existence - and, in the case of the so-called perpetual student, it might be six, eight, or even 12 years - can explode in their faces when they suddenly confront the real world. This has happened again and again. The repercussions are not pleasant.

Service-learning opportunities can make a difference and help reverse this trend in many ways.

First, they can provide a clearer understanding of which courses are important and why. This creates a much sharper intellectual appetite in the student and allows him/her to develop educated selectivity in coursework and experience a realistic application that will relate to the "life role" of work (Barrett, et al., p. 14).

The practice of the profession has to do with determining what knowledge is useful and how it may be applied. Such knowledge is best acquired by observation of professionals and by practice under their supervision. We who teach and prepare members of the helping professions do not have at our command the best means of facilitating the linking of knowing and doing, information and practice, conceptual framework and behavioral performance if we are limited to the classroom (Duley and Gordon, p. 5).

Secondly, "by far the best way to sample a dish is to taste it...Nothing can beat experience". Working in a service-learning situation can give more insight into a career than all the brochures and testimonies in the world. The knowledge gained is invaluable (Shingleton and Bao, p. 91).

Thirdly, a single experience can provide insight for career options and alternatives in a given area of occupations. Practical experience in a hospital or clinic can open the eyes of the participant to health careers other than that of becoming a physician, including such fields as medical technology, physical therapy, hospital administration, dietetics, medical research, occupational therapy, etc. This experience can enable students to understand and be flexible to the availability of employment now and in the future.

John and Gordon in their handbook, College-Sponsored Experiential Learning (p. 7), support this notion by stating:

It is necessary that we prepare people for economic adaptability. They should be prepared to keep their options open, to be on the lookout and ready to respond to new occupational opportunities and needs as they arise. More and more people are changing their occupations in the midst of their productive lives. We should equip people for a life in which they are able to explore job options and make judgments about them based on their identified and developed strengths, talents, values and past experience.

Fourthly, and along the same vein, a service-learning situation will help the participant inventory the skills, knowledge and competencies which are relevant to the career or it will help the student gain new information and improve pre-professional skills (Angus, pp. 41-24). Dr. William C. Prentiss, chairman of the Social Science Department of Valencia Community College, agrees that "service-learning can be a large part of a student's education, because the experience not only makes the student more aware of his/her career needs, abilities and lack of abilities, but also heightens his/her awareness of the community in which he lives and will probably work" (Prentiss, p. 19).

Benefits of Service-Learning to the Institution

Colleges can reap various benefits from service-learning programs including: people and information resources for research projects; consultation dealing with the use of volunteers in research studies; learning laboratories beyond the range of physical facilities and financial capability of the college; the checking of relevance of training with actual job situations; an added learning dimension to the traditional classroom; an additional experienced evaluation from the community to the school's assessment of the student; re-orientation of the educative process to human concerns; and an improvement of university-community relations. Such a program also enables the college to provide optimum service to the community which is a primary mission of many universitities (Yarrington, p. 16).

The Carnegie Commission has listed one of its goals for the 1980s as the establishment of service programs more widely and the exploration of ways to make college more valuable to students by combining study and service as an integral part of the college experience. "Rather than long extended formal education in advance, more

jobs require some basic skills and knowledge in advance and then a willingness to keep on learning and opportunities to learn." "Volunteer service-learning programs foster a life-style that prepares for a life-long mix of formal and informal learning." (Peterson, 1971, p. 71)

The Establishment of a Service-Learning Office

A Service-Learning Office within the university structure would most effectively fit under the auspices of the Provost. This would give programs autonomy from particular departments thus allowing for flexibility with various placements. A Service-Learning office would include positions for: credit, negotiated with professors and departments; internships, practical, and field experience, which require large blocks of time per week; and volunteer placements for students who desire positions for a variety of reasons. Programs would also provide entry level positions as well as advanced service requiring special knowledge and/or skills acquired through previous experiences. It is imperative that these options be available in order to meet the needs and demands of traditional and non-traditional students alike.

The size of the university would dictate the size of the Service-Learning Office. A central office may suffice for an entire institution; on the other hand, it may not. At Michigan State University, some departments are currently operating Service-Learning Offices. However, many departments want, but are not able to afford, this type of support unit. A central office could efficiently provide service-learning experiences for students within these departments, thus minimizing the duplication of time and expense compared to individual departmental efforts. To illustrate this point, programs established through the Office of Volunteer Programs at Michigan State University are presently being utilized by 42 departments for course requirements, departmental requirements, course options, career exploration, field experience, independent study, practical placements and occupational experience for various majors (Smith, et al., (C), pp. 2-3).

Conclusion

Interrelationships and interdependency between institutions and the world will be essential in the future. Developments beyond the classroom will enhance education for generations to come (Boyer, 1977). President Wofford of the State University of New York eloquently articulated the value of education in a symbiotic relationship with experience:

> *The tragedy of the world is that those who are imaginative have but slight experience, and those who are experienced have feeble imaginations. Fools act on imagination without knowledge; pendants act on knowledge without imagination. The task of a university is to weld together imagination and experience.*

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The Application Of Cost-Benefit Analysis To Volunteer Programs

By Nancy A. Moore

In the past few years there has been increasing interest among volunteer advocates in the field regarding the application of cost-benefit analysis techniques to volunteer programs. Both privately-funded and publicly-funded volunteer programs are finding out that they are competing for increasingly scarce resources and that they must find new ways of justifying their costs and benefits.[1]

In the public sector in particular, there is concern with how to acquire the funds to develop more volunteer programs, especially within those government agencies receiving their support from states where significant resource constraints would appear to exist. It is becoming increasingly obvious that if expansion of the voluntary sector is to become a reality, legislators must be persuaded of the desirability of such a course of action through the presentation of some kind of analysis of either existing or planned programs. In short, in "cost-conscious times" ways must be found to justify what are believed to be necessary and important appropriations.

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A recent survey done by the Missouri Volunteer Office concerning the attitudes of state agency administrators found lack of resources may be the inhibiting factor in the expansion of existing programs and the development of new ones. This was the case both for those with volunteer programs in their agencies and those without. In response to the question, "An agency's budget is often such that it cannot sustain a volunteer program", 35% of the respondents considered this an "important obstacle" and 36% viewed it as "somewhat important", with only 29% responding that it was "no obstacle" at all.

On the positive side, it is worthwhile to note that most survey respondents believed in concept that the benefits of volunteer programs would exceed the costs. In response to the question, "The costs of volunteer programs tend to outweigh the benefits", only 3% felt it to be "definitely true" and only 7% felt it was "probably true". Sixty-four percent felt it was either "probably not true" or "not true", with 25% responding that they did not know or were not sure.

It is perhaps encouraging to volunteer advocates to see that such a large majority of agency administrators agree with the concept that benefits of volunteer programs will outweigh the costs. But the question is how to establish this in a more concrete fashion. Indeed, a quarter of the survey respondents honestly were "not sure" on this question and no doubt this

is the case with the many legislators and department directors who play a crucial role in the ultimate outcome of the competition for resources. It is imperative that volunteer programs impress upon legislators and department heads a substantiated case for additional support in this area. The Missouri Volunteer Office survey found that most volunteer programs in the state presently give little thought to the calculation of costs and benefits and that, regretably, many do not even have needed record-keeping systems. This is understandable, for certainly cost-benefit analysis is an issue fraught with confusion, ambiguity, and an aura of "mystery". But it need not be so. *The purpose of this paper is to attempt to put cost-benefit analysis for volunteer programs into perspective; to examine what cost-benefit analysis is and what it involves; and to explore ways in which it might be applied to the evaluation of the volunteer programs.*

The most common criticism advanced regarding the application of cost-benefit analysis to volunteer programs is that the benefits of such programs are impossible to measure. A common attitude expressed by survey respondents in answering the cost-benefit question was that the benefits from volunteer programs are "immeasurable in monetary terms" and that these benefits constitute "intangible assets". This is true of many government programs and is a fact often emphasized in the professional literature. As Robert Dorfman writes, "the government tends to intervene in precisely those markets in which prices are either lacking or are seriously divergent from social values. It is inherent in government enterprises...that market prices cannot be used in appraising their social contributions."[2] Dorfman would probably categorize volunteer programs as contributing to "goods that are characterized by external economies of consumption", which is to say that "the consumer of (the) goods or service is not the sole beneficiary, and the amount he is willing to pay does not measure the entire value of the good to society".[3] But at the same time, Dorfman does not conclude that cost-benefit analysis should not be attempted but says that *"some economic basis is needed for judging which potential government undertakings are worthwhile and which are not" and that "benefit-cost analysis provides this basis".*[4]

Other writers, too, have dealt with this question of "intangible" or "incommensurable" costs and benefits, which is to say, costs and benefits that either cannot be quantified or if they can be quantified, "cannot be valued in any market sense".[5] What is most important to note is that in dealing with this question, all of these writers appear in agreement with Dorfman's conclusion that it is not a factor that precludes analysis, although they would hold that it is a factor that may alter the specific cost-benefit approach undertaken (Feldstein, 1964:356-7; Howard, 1973:116; Prest & Turvey, 1972:87; Rady, 1974:123). In fact one writer, Hussein Rady, feels that *"it is necessary to emphasize that there does not exist yet a clearly defined and universally accepted method of cost-benefit analysis, nor can there be one, since cost-benefit analysis 'is a way of thinking'".*[6] Richard Layard concurs with Rady and goes somewhat further, stating that *"there is no problem, public or personal, to which its broad ideas could not in principle be applied".*[7]

Thus despite the acknowledged difficulties, it is generally believed that cost-benefit analysis can and should be attempted in any area of government activity, with the approach altered to fit the circumstances. The question then becomes what form of cost-benefit analysis is most appropriate to volunteer programs. I would submit, after reviewing the literature on cost benefit analysis, that the approach most appropriate to volunteer programs is the somewhat modified version of cost-benefit analysis known as cost-effectiveness analysis. And this is precisely so because of the difficulty of being unable to quantify benefits discussed earlier. The cost-effectiveness approach is particularly suited to those areas where the benefits are totally incapable of monetary valuations. As Layard says, *"whenever cost-benefit analysis becomes impossible, since the benefits cannot be valued, it is still useful to compare the cost of providing the same benefit in different ways. This is called cost-effectiveness analysis and is regularly used in defense, public health and other fields. Apart from not valuing benefits, the procedures are exactly the same as in cost-benefit analysis".*[8]

The procedure for cost-effectiveness analysis is explained in more concrete terms by S. Kenneth Howard and a careful reading of his explanation will suggest its applicability to volunteer programs. According to Howard:

"In cost-effectiveness studies, one factor (either cost or effectiveness) is varied, but not both simultaneously. In other words, alternatives are evaluated in terms of the amount of the objective (effectiveness) they accomplish for a given

cost, or for their ability to accomplish a fixed objective (that is, to achieve the desired level of effectiveness) at a reduced cost. This form of analysis requires that either the costs to be incurred or the objectives to be accomplished be fixed before the other grouping of factors can be varied."[9]

A volunteer program analysis using this approach would work from a fixed objective, which is closely related to the mission of its sponsoring agency or is more or less an extension of that agency's purpose. It would show the variation in cost between using paid employees to accomplish the objective and the cost of coordinating volunteers to do the work. Although there are costs involved in coordinating volunteers and they do "require a significant investment of staff time and agency money",[10] a cost-effectiveness approach such as this will serve to clearly portray their inherent advantages in terms of cost-effectiveness and their capacity to "minimize costs for a desired level of...benefits."[11]

Those who may hold reservations about the value of this kind of analysis for volunteer programs may feel that volunteer advocates have no rationale for working from a fixed objective--outside the fact that one has to begin somewhere--and that, given the political uncertainties, the analysis will not really change things much. However, there is the notion alluded to earlier, that the objectives of a volunteer program do not vary that drastically from those of the sponsoring agency. Volunteer jobs are considered a form of "supplementary assistance" (Bolstad & Ginsberg, 1962:56) meaning that their contribution, while undeniably unique, is in itself an extension of the mission of the agency. Thus what we are in fact talking about is "selecting alternative approaches to the achievement of a benefit already determined to be worth achieving, i.e., the benefit is taken for granted (having been defined as politically desirable)" with the object of analysis "to ascertain the minimum cost of achieving it."[12] This positive concept needs to be kept in mind and emphasized in the analysis for it could be very influential in a political context if and when the possibility arises that additional appropriations will be made in the interest of raising the level of benefits provided by an agency.

The implication here is, of course, that recognition of the political arena in which an analysis will be examined is very important. After all, the desired recipients of the analysis are those with decision making power and influence over resources. Consequently, the analysis must be designed with their perspective in mind and be concerned with generating political acceptability. As Newton says, "like the individual, local and central government must operate within resource constraints" which "tend to depend upon what is politically acceptable as much as what is economically feasible".[13] Elaborating further, he says that "at the highest level, resource allocation decisions are guided by political ideals and moral philosophy" and thus take place "within political objectives."[14] Hence volunteer advocates will want to stress the connection between volunteer programs and the already established political objectives evidenced in the very existence of agencies, as well as to stress the ideas that make volunteerism part of our entire nation's "moral philosophy", and which are ideas that can be operationalized.

Some would even question whether the issue is really the unavailability of resources or whether it is equally an unwillingness to change. Howard is of the opinion that *"resource limitations may be real in some instances but imaginary in others. Often what is lacking is the desire to use the resources available or to make the changes required to get the most effective results from the resources that are tapped."*[15] It is to be hoped that persistent efforts to present analysis to decision-makers will at long last jar some of this inertia and bring an end to indifference through the clear illustration that volunteer programs are an alternative that can "maximize the difference between social benefits and social costs", the latter commonly assumed to be the aim of most decision-makers (Dasgupta, 1972:21).

Those conducting the analysis should be prepared to deal with some of the very reasonable doubts that may enter into the minds of the decision-makers. One critical question is posed by Charles N. Lebeaux and that is, "How can the volunteer-part time and irregular in his contribution, technically untrained, without specific organizational role, outside the chain of command --fit into (the bureaucratic) framework...?[16] That is, how can sizeable consistent benefits reasonably be assured under circumstances such as these? *The answer is not an easy one, but at the very least volunteer advocates can point to one thing that is known through experiences of the past and that is that "a volunteer coordinator is a prerequisite for a well-defined* functioning program"[17] and that without the *appropriations to support this expense, consistent benefits certainly cannot be assured.*

Additional points that the analyst thinks the decision-maker might raise should also be considered by the individual analyst beforehand and be included in the analysis. The important point to be remembered is, of course, that the goal of any form of cost-benefit analysis must be to provide the decision-makers with more and better information than otherwise available and to present that information in a readily accessible form.

Hence, it is stressed that the volunteer program analyst must consider the decision-maker by anticipating his questions and by emphazing the contribution of volunteer programs to the maximization of political and economic objectives. The greatest force behind the latter emphasis on maximizing objectives, indeed its major vehicle, will be the specifics of cost-effectiveness analysis iteslf; it will be the detailed aspects of the analysis that will provide the critical evidence, the crucial substantiation. The next consideration then must be what detailed procedure could be followed to establish the case for the volunteer program.

First, it should be said that the volunteer advocate need not be intimidated by the word "analysis" nor by the necessity for complicated "techniques" that it always seems to imply. As Howard says, "often detailed and complex studies are not necessary" and "much less sophisticated appraisals may produce adequate results". He suggests that "a more formal and thorough definition of the problem, but still not a detailed analysis, may be given in an issue paper".[18] *For the purposes of volunteer program analysis we may want to think in terms of creating an issue paper of sorts, seeing as most of the analysis--beyond the estimations of costs--will not be quantifiable and much of the evaluation will be of a normative character.*

The first thing one would want to consider writing into the issue paper would be a specification of objectives or, put another way, a listing of the "criteria for success". Often these will constitute a list of abstract goals that one hopes to accomplish via the volunteer program and will be "inextricably related to benefits" (Levine, 1968:175) that one hopes to be able to provide.

Several writers afford ideas about what these objectives might be. On a level perhaps too broad for our purposes, the objective or criterion for success might simply be 'doing good' in some sense" (Kershaw, 1970:136). Or the goal might be "to help individuals function better" (Rivlin, 1970:507) or to enhance "the integrity and well-being" of the client and chance "his attitudes and behavior" (Levine, 1968:176, 174). Schlosser writes that volunteers were used in the Illinois Department of Children and Family Services to "assure better service to clients" and to "supplement the work of salaried staff...enrich the lives of clients by making possible auxiliary services for which the department (had) neither staff nor specific legislative mandate" and to "bring about greater public understanding of the department and its work".[19] Bolstad and Ginsberg write that volunteers used in state mental hospitals in Indiana served the goals of improving patient attitudes and bettering hospital atmosphere as well as serving the objectives of improving patient rehabilitation and improving the integration of the hospital into the community (Bolstad & Ginsberg, 1962:53-6).

Thus there are many different ways the objectives can be described and the list of objectives will always differ from program to program. Along with the objectives, it is conceivable that one could list the type of jobs or volunteer activities that exist, or would be developed, to accomplish the objectives, supplemented with brief descriptions of these jobs or activities. The purpose of this would simply be the provision of more information for the decision-maker. The decision-maker knows that the skills and talents of volunteers are used to meet the objectives but may want to know how or in what specific ways. The analyst can provide this information and should make every attempt to do so.

The next step would be to itemize actual or estimated costs of coordinating volunteers to meet the objectives, dividing costs into those that are direct and those that are indirect. Volunteer programs that are extensions of government agencies will face at least two major problems in this area. One problem, which Steve Barshy says is "the most obvious", is the lack of good accounting data because "for some reason, all levels of government have been slow to adopt accounting practices that permit cost calculations for specific activities within any one agency", resulting in a "dependence...on educated guesses for determining program costs".[20] The Missouri Volunteer Office found evidence in support of this contention in its survey of volunteer programs in state government, leading to a recommendation that more educational efforts be directed towards the development of record-keeping forms and procedures. In any event, this

essential part of the analysis may require rather extensive searching and force existing programs to bring their records up to date.

A second problem, on which there is conflicting advice, is what Barsby calls the "joint-cost problem". This problem arises "when a given expenditure (e.g., for a capital facility or administrative services) serves more than one activity, either simultaneously or in sequence", forcing one "to decide what portions of those costs to allocate to various activities".[21] Barsby suggests that there may be justification for ignoring them because these costs are in essence "sunk costs" and in many cases are not increased by the presence of a particular activity. He says there is no "right" way to do this. Howard, on the other hand, says that "all pertinent costs should be recognized in evaluating an alternative" for the analysis to be complete, including "the costs incurred in using established facilities for a particular program".[22] *It would appear that attempts should be made to evaluate as many of the costs as possible within the limits of available staff capability, time, and money.*

Despite these problems the analysis should include the breakdown of direct and indirect costs. For volunteer programs, *direct costs* may include the following: value of the time put in by the volunteer coordinator; costs of direct time put in by other personnel, such as secretaries; costs of plaques, pins, or certificates; mileage expenses; parking fees; meals; babysitting; costs of professional training for the coordinator; costs of appreciation dinners or luncheons; value of any stipends; printing costs for newsletter, orientation manuals, etc; costs of paper and office supplies; worker's compensation or other types of insurance. Costs generally falling into the category of *indirect costs* are: office space; utilities; value of staff time spent working with volunteers; costs of training volunteers; costs of keeping records; value of equipment (desks, chairs, typewriters, copier, etc.) used up by the volunteer program; costs of telephone service. Most programs will not have all of these costs and some may have other costs not mentioned here. This list is simply offered as a guide to the type of things to be considered.

Once the value of the costs or inputs has been established, the next step is to specify what the output of the program is. For volunteer programs, output is usually measured in terms of the total number of service hours contributed by volunteers. To provide more information to the decision-maker, it is preferable that these hours be broken down into the approximate number of hours spent by volunteers in specific roles or activities, such as the number of hours of volunteer time spent in recreation activities, visitation, clerical work, and so forth. *One might also include the number of clients affected by various activities.* These breakdowns are probably quite important, as they give the decision-maker a better idea of what government money is buying in terms of services. Here again the lack of adequate records may pose problems and very rough estimations may have to be made.

At this point the information is in hand to compute some measure of cost-effectiveness. A concept established earlier in defining cost-effectiveness and relating it to volunteer programs was to compare the costs of coordinating volunteers to the costs of using paid employees to do the same work. The formula to use in this case, according to HEW's Office of Human Development would be the following:

total hours of service divided by 2080 (number of hours of full time jobs)

=

number of full time jobs equivalent to volunteer time contributed

Then from this one could compute a value by specifying some average salary for a full time job and multiplying this by the number of jobs found to be equivalent to volunteer time contributed. A comparison of this figure to the costs of inputs would establish the cost-effectiveness of using volunteers rather than paid staff, given fixed objectives.

There are other formulas that can also be used and are actually probably more frequently used than the one described above. Two other formulas believed to be useful for calculating cost-effectiveness, again as indicated by the Office of Human Development, are as follows:

dollar worth of service = hours X minimum wage ($2.65)

dollar worth of service = hours X $4.86 (the Wolozin formula based on proportion of GNP volunteers contribute)

These figures would then be compared with the cost of inputs, as before, to determine cost-effectiveness. A *typical figure that would result would be the number of times output, however valued, is greater than program cost inputs (*Ulm, 1977-:9), *or in other words, the ratio of program output to cost input.*

Another alternative for establishing the value of hours is for the analyst to consider each type of job individually and consider the general wage rate for that type of work, either nationally or within the agency's locale. The rationale for this is that all wage rates for valuing volunteer time should be consistent with those paid for similar work in the labor market. Wage scales such as these have been developed by OEO and are available.

A few other calculations could also be made if desired such as certain program unit costs (Bretning-Miller & Hill, 1976:9). One could figure the *cost per volunteer* by dividing total program cost by the number of volunteers involved; or one could figure *cost per client* served by dividing total program cost by number of clients served; or figure the *cost per service hour* by dividing total program cost by the number of hours of volunteer service. Each might be useful for providing additional information to those reading the analysis and would be especially useful if any evaluative comments or interpretations could be made from them.

The next major procedural component to be dealt with is that of specifying *benefits.* A distinction should be noted here as to the difference between benefits and outputs. Too often the mistake is made of assuming that the money value of the hours contributed, once calculated, is the money value of the benefit. But it should be clear at this point that hours of service to clients is the output and the significance of the money value of those hours is simply its place in determining cost-effectiveness. If one wants to argue that cost-effectiveness is itself a benefit, that is quite another issue. *But it must be realized that outputs only produce benefits and these benefits do exist in some form even though they defy measurement.*

Edith Exton, in writing about cost-benefit analysis in education, helps clarify this issue of the difference between outputs and benefits. She says that outputs are the more immediate measure and, in the case of education, consist of such things as the number of school districts receiving aid or the number of students enrolled in aided schools. On the other hand, benefits are accomplishments or achievements--the ultimate output measure so to speak. These are such things as higher educational attainment on the part of disadvantaged children participating in the program as measured by tests or reductions in the school dropout rate (Exton, 1967:15-16).

Alice Rivlin's experience in the Department of HEW, as she presents it, perhaps sheds further light on this issue. She says that measures of the outputs of individual programs might be such things as "hospital beds constructed, teachers trained, patients served, persons participating in basic literacy programs, etc." She says that "at best, these output measures are rough guides to what the program is buying" and can be useful in showing what would be given up if money is shifted from one program to another. *Such statistics are better than no information on what the program is buying, "but they do not throw much light on what is actually being accomplished. They do not tell...what the program is contributing to the health or education or welfare of the nation".*[23]

The issue is then raised that if benefits are to be viewed in this way, it will often not be possible to attribute specific benefits to any one individual program. Several writers agree that this is frequently the case. Howard says that "it is often impossible, particularly in social service programs, to isolate the effects of different programs and other contributing factors. Too often systematic studies are based on highly debatable inferences as to what has been caused by what".[24] It is the monumental question of how to "disentangle" effects (Rivlin, 1970: 507), given that there are more influences acting upon outcomes than just the particular program under analysis, from the simple passage of time to other government programs (Kershaw, 1970:134). Hence benefits are not only difficult to quantify but are also difficult to specify and in many areas we find that outputs are better spoken of as producing "contributory" benefits.

But still one will want to include something about potential benefits in the issue paper. It was previously established that most of the benefits of volunteer programs would be intangibles or incommensurables that could not be valued in money terms. Yet to totally ignore them would be a great mistake for often decision-makers will not have given great thought to even the abstract benefits that might be contributed to the individuals involved or to the society as a whole. As Prest & Turvey

say, *such intangibles "are obviously important in many cases and, equally obviously, have to be presented to the decision maker in the prose which accompanies the...arithmetic, since they cannot be incorporated in the arithmetic itself."*[25]

It would appear that the analyst could break benefits down into two areas, one being the more immediate, local benefits and the other being the more abstract, all encompassing benefits. For examples of immediate, local benefits that could be listed, one might consider the following: improved attitudes or improved morale on the part of the patient or client; improved atmosphere for patients or clients; improved relations between the agency and the community; increased quantity of services; improved quality of services; hastened resocialization or rehabilitation of certain kinds of clients; improved information through volunteer feedback; career re-entry for women; job creation; individual career experience. The list could go on and on and is perhaps only limited by the imagination of the analyst. The second area would be the more all-encompassing benefits which also tend to be at an even higher level of abstraction. These benefits would be such things as increased citizen involvement and the educational experience it provides, increased participatory democracy, improved citizenship, and increased attention to basic human needs. These, too, can no doubt be expanded upon. One thing well to note here is how closely related the benefits outlined are to the listing of objectives discussed earlier.

An optional feature of the benefit listing might be to list the various parties or groups that would be affected by the volunteer program and which benefits accrue to which particular group. Here also could be noted the costs to any of these groups. The purpose of this would simply be clarification for the decision-maker. For volunteer programs, the groups listed might be (1) the agency staff; (2) taxpayers; (3) current clients; (4) new clients; (5) the volunteers; and (6) society in general. A choice to use such a format might be guided by whether or not such an approach would provide useful and significant information to the decision-maker or whether it might give greater prominence to important, key points.

Besides listing the benefits in some fashion, one would also want to provide some kind of support for a belief in the presence of such benefits. Since we have established that a quantified support in monetary terms is not possible, we must turn to some form of normative support, that is support consisting largely of qualitative judgments expressed in some fashion, through some medium. Evaluations by individuals, records of interviews, and surveys have been suggested as possibilities.

Howard observes that "evaluations might be made by participants such as agency managers or members of the clientele themselves...managers can evaluate programs as well as their own performance. Except for voting and the general workings of the political process few devices have been developed for getting clientele evaluations". As to survey research, Howard says that "survey research, although rather expensive, may have potential for evaluating state programs and has been attempted in the field of vocational rehabilitation".[26] Prest and Turvey are also among those pointing to "consumer questionnaires" as a possible means of gaining an idea of the importance of those intangible benefits that cannot be quantified (Prest & Turvey, 1972:87).

Layard, on the other hand, provides the reasoning underlying such efforts. He writes: "If we assume that only people matter, the analysis naturally involves two steps. First, we must find out how the decision would affect the welfare of each individual concerned. To judge this effect we must ultimately rely on the individual's own evaluation of his mental state....The second step is to deduce the change in social welfare implied by all the changes in individual welfare."[27] This seems to be a good rationale for the use of individual evaluations and surveys, especially when primarily intangible benefits are involved. The greatest drawback of such approaches is that those with negative opinions might be afraid to express themselves and there is danger of one-sidedness. And what's more, it might provide decision-makers with a justifiable excuse for regarding the results lightly.

From this, one can sense some implications. For one thing, the evaluations must be balanced and admit areas where goals have not been entirely reached. This need not be detrimental to one's cause. Therefore, a crucial question to be answered in an interview or survey might deal with the issues of how things have changed since the volunteer program was initiated. For example, clients or agency personnel affected by the program might be asked if they perceive various differences because of the program or if they feel something has been added because of the program, with the responses rated on a scale for

the degree of intensity of the feeling. The possibilities of course are endless and here again limited only by the ingenuity and imagination of the analyst.

It is more than obvious that any evaluation of benefits will be extremely subjective and that, for the time being, choices among social programs will continue to be made primarily on the basis of cost comparisons rather than on a comparison of measured benefits until better techniques can be developed for "measuring the diffused benefits of any social programs" (Report of the Subcommittee on Economy in Government, 1967:7). Specifically, emphasis in the future needs to be placed on "measurement of the intangible social and psychological benefits" (Levine, 1968; 176, 183). Until such developments appear, it is probably wise not to rely most heavily on the measurement of benefits for fear of being rejected out of hand, charged with presenting unreliable information, of questionable validity as evidence.

What has been attempted here is to suggest methods and procedures that might be used to apply the cost-benefit analysis approach to government sponsored volunteer programs and to suggest important issues that might be raised and emphasized. *The key to the whole process would appear to be innovation for there is certainly no concensus of opinion about proper procedures to be followed, even after fifteen or twenty years of development. There is no "right" or "wrong" method although there are undoubtedly degrees of quality. What is required is fresh and inventive thought as well as a substantial measure of determination and concern, for it is a process that will take considerable time and a good deal of effort, with favorable results far from assured. It is trite, to say the least, to make the appeal that "we must start somewhere" but this is essentially the issue before us. Little analysis of this type has been conducted in the volunteer field and it would appear to be time at last for beginning to focus attention on the cost-effectiveness of programs with impressive but immeasurable benefits.*

FOOTNOTES

1. Helen Drotning-Miller and Mary M. Hill, "Documenting Program Costs and Achievements"; Synergist, Winter 1976, p. 7
2. Robert Dorfman, "Introduction", in Measuring Benefits of Government Investments; ed. Robert Dorfman (Washington, D. C.: The Brookings Institution, 1965), p. 6
3. Dorfman, pp. 4-5
4. Dorfman, p. 6
5. A. R. Prest and R. Turvey, "The Main Questions", in Cost-Benefit Analysis: Selected Readings; ed. Richard Layard (Baltimore, Maryland: Penquin Books, Inc., 1972), p. 87
6. Dr. Hussein Rady, "Cost-Benefit Analysis: Instrument for Evaluating Public Projects", Intereconomics; 4 (April 1974), p. 122
7. Richard Layard, "Introduction", in Cost-Benefit Analysis: Selected Readings; ed. Richard Layard (Baltimore, Maryland: Penguin Books, Inc., 1972), p. 9
8. Layard, p. 29
9. S. Kenneth Howard, Changing State Budgeting; (Lexington, Kentucky: Council of State Governments, 1973), p. 128
10. Donald H. Schlosser, "How Volunteers Can Strengthen Child Welfare Services", Child Welfare; 48 (December 1969), p. 12
11. Ajit K. Dasgubta and D. W. Pearce, Cost-Benefit Analysis; (New York, N.Y.: Harper and Row Publishers, Inc., 1972), p. 114
12. Trevor Newton, Cost Benefit Analysis In Administration; (Oxford: Alden Press, 1972), p. 236
13. Newton, p. 16
14. Newton, p. 16-17
15. Howard, p. 32
16. Charles N. Lebeaux, "What of the Future?" in The Citizen Volunteer; ed. Nathan E. Cohen (New York: Harper & Brothers, Publishers, 1960), p. 244

17. Charlotte W. Michener and Hank Walzer, "Developing a Community Mental Health Volunteer System", Social Work; 15 (October 1970), p. 67

18. Howard, p. 174

19. Schlosser, p. 607

20. Steve L. Barsby, Cost-Benefit Analysis and Manpower Programs; (Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath and Company, 1972), p. 13-14

21. Barsby, p. 14

22. Howard, p. 115

23. Alice M. Rivlin, "The Planning, Programing and Budgeting System in the Department of Health, Education and Welfare; Some Lessons From Experience", in Publication Expenditures and Policy Analysis: ed. Robert H. Haveman (Chicago: Markham Publishing Co., 1970), p. 506-7

24. Howard, p. 156

25. Prest and Turvey, p. 87

26. Howard, p. 157

27. Layard, p. 10

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Volunteering in Israel

By Esther Herlitz

Israel is regarded by many as the outcome of an immensely successful voluntary movement. Zionism, the national liberation movement of the Jewish people, simultaneously rallied political support and engaged in practical work - entirely on a voluntary basis. More than that: the Zionist movement created forms of voluntary self-government as well as voluntary agencies to serve the individual and the community while being under foreign, so called "mandatory", rule. Even the small Jewish community which had remained in Palestine during the 500 years of Turkish rule had its own mutual aid societies, its own school as well as links to supporting voluntary agencies throughout the world.

The fact is that volunteering has deep roots in Jewish tradition.

Abraham's rescue of Lot, based as it was on family-tribe relationships, was nevertheless a voluntary act. The scholars who supervised the "community chest" in Talmudic times were volunteers. The Tzadakah ("charity") tradition which emerged from the injunction to "love thy neighbour as thyself", is one of people voluntarily helping each other - not just the rich helping the poor - in times of difficulty or crisis. Many community services, nowadays managed by governmental bureaucracies, were once entirely handled by religiously motivated volunteers. The different forms of Jewish schools known as "Cheder", "Talmud Torah" and "Yeshiva" were wholly voluntary educational institutions, as were the burial societies, bath facilities, brides-aid groups and the like. Most philanthropic aid was handled confidentially and often referred to as "secret giving". In any event, wherever possible, Jewish communities throughout the world were managed by some form of self-government, on a voluntary basis.

In the period leading to Israel's independence in 1948, the Jewish community, then still under British rule, ran its own autonomous institutions. Much of it was based on Israel's Federation of Labour (Histadrut), to this day the biggest and most influential voluntary organisation in the country. As is well known, the Histadrut is unique in that, in addition to being a Trade Union, it also created industries through its own holding company, ran and runs the "Kupat Holim", the biggest sick fund in the country and, until statehood, managed its own Labour Exchange. It still runs the largest adult education organisation in the country. Women Histadrut members constitute the largest women's organization in Israel: "Na'amat", an Hebrew acronym which stands for "Working and Volunteering Women"; it has 700,000 members today.

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Since education offered by the British Mandatory Government was considered colonial and sub-standard, the Jewish community voluntarily established its own school system. To fight off Arab attacks on Jewish settlements, life and property, "Haganah", a self-defence organisation, came into being; it later spearheaded the struggle against British rule and ultimately formed the very base for the IDF, Israel's Defence Force.

More than anything else, the Kibbutz and the Moshav stand for the very typical and special Israeli aspect of voluntary action. Both the Kibbutz (collective settlement; plural: Kibbutzim) and the Moshav (cooperative smallholders' village; plural Moshavim) represent an effort by people with little if any agricultural training and tradition to develop agricultural settlements under very difficult conditions. In these circumstances, only a collective enterprise could succeed. Yet, unlike its counterparts in the Soviet Union and in China, the effort was and is to this day totally voluntary.

Other voluntary organisations also had their beginnings in the pre-State days. Mutual aid societies include i.a. Magen David Adom ("Red Star of David"; equivalent to the Red Cross and Red Crescent Societies), for first aid; AKIM (for retarded children); ILAN (for handicapped children); Zehavi (help for large familites); Soldiers Welfare Association; Council for a Beautiful Israel; Anti-Cancer League; Society for Prevention of Road Accidents; Ya'al (Volunteers in Hospitals); etc. There are today Israeli branches of many international voluntary organisations such as Rotary, Lions, Soroptimist, Variety, B'nei Brith, et al.

The largest and most active of all are women's organizations which, in addition to Na'amat (see above), include WIZO (Women's International Zionist Organisation) and the National Religious Women's Movement. Since Israel is a country of immigrants, immigrant associations play a major role in offering mutual aid and represent an important lobby for the interests of immigrant groups. Last but not least, there are significant youth movement organisations, most of them affiliated to one or the other of Israel's major political parties. As elsewhere in the world, the importance of youth movements has unfortunately tended to diminish in recent years.

TRENDS AND CHANGES

Independence in 1948 brought about many changes in attitude and practice. The slogan "from people to nationhood" was taken seriously, and tasks which hitherto had been performed on a voluntary basis were turned over to the newly-formed ministries. Obviously, the Haganah and other voluntary fighting units had to give way to a regular defence force and to military service by legislation.

Pressure to get things done, and done quickly, was great. In those first years, immigrants poured in by the scores of thousands. Nowhere in the world, not even in the United States nor in Australia, was so much ever done by government agencies for newcomers. After all, the "open gate" policy was the raison d'etre of Israel. Immigrants expected - and needed - to be helped and assisted, and some of them still do so today, so many years later. Many immigrants came from the lands of the Islam and brought with them cultures and customs different from those of modern Israel. This is the background for what is today commonly referred to in Israel as "the social gap".

ISRAEL VOLUNTARY SERVICE

A Commission established in 1971, by the then Prime Minister, Golda Meir, to study Israel's disadvantaged children and youth, recommended renewed emphasis on voluntary efforts and brought about (in 1972) the establishment of the government-funded Israel Voluntary Service to encourage and coordinate voluntary activities and independent agencies. Subsequently, 14 Volunteer Bureaus were set up, and "volunteer coordinators" were appointed in several ministries (i.e. Education, Social Welfare, Health, Immigrant Absorption), local councils, and in voluntary organisations.

New avenues for volunteers and voluntary organisations are emerging and being developed. The Prime Minister's Commission had pointed to the cultural background and educational weakness of many parents as one of the reasons (low incomes and poor housing being others) for the problems of some of Israel's youth. Both the children and their mothers have since become targets for remedial activities by volunteers. Some kibbutz members, too, have began to move into Israel's so-called development towns as part- and full-time volunteers. Many of the township's inhabitants are salaried workers in the kibbutzim which they often regard as rich neighbors whose high standards can never be reached - an outlook which could create social tension. The kibbutz volunteers contribute skills and know-how in towns which are ever so short of skilled manpower in all services. Above all, these volunteers slowly build bridges of under-

standing;: kibbutz volunteers teach and tutor, run neighborhood "make shift" clubs, make home visits to families in difficulty, aid the aged, help with general management.

EDUCATION

Israel's compulsory education starts with one-year kindergarten at the age of 5 and goes up to age 15. It has been discovered that some culturally disadvantaged children - mainly those from large immigrant families - arrive in the kindergarten class with poor vocabularies and even poorer personal habits and discipline. More than one thousand women volunteers work once a week with such children in groups of three to four. It has been shown that this makes it possible for these initially deprived children to enter the first grade of elementary school well enough prepared for a successful school career thereafter.

Tutoring by volunteers has been introduced in a variety of ways, in class and after school; in the volunteer's own home or in that of the child; in "homework clubs"; and in public libraries. Each of these venues have their own advantages and disadvantages; however *personal* attention seems to be the decisive reason for success. A study carried out by Dr. Y. Peres in 1973 showed that students helped by volunteers made only *slight* progress in the subject *taught* but made *great* progress in *general behavior* in class and at home. Another study, by PORI (Public Opinion Research of Israel, Ltd.), showed that rejection of volunteers by their clients, a well-known phenomenon in some other countries, does not exist in Israel. In other words, families of Oriental background in need of help do not object to the good services rendered by a so-called middle class lady of European origin. *Today, more than 10,000 volunteers are helping the school system in one way or another.*

An effort needs to be made, in Israel as elsewhere, to enlarge the circle of volunteers and to draw not only on women after the child-raising age; at the moment, middle-aged women represent the great majority of volunteers in Israel, too. The Peres study showed that 82% of all volunteers were women, and that 68% of them do not work outside their own homes. Volunteers proved to have an average of 12.4 years of schooling, as against the overall Israel average of 8.5 years. It is with this in mind that two additional groups of prospective volunteers are deliberately being encouraged: the young and the retired. High school students are urged to help younger children and to act as their "big brother" or "big sister" or tutor. Much discussion is going on at the moment whether to make some form of volunteering compulsory in high school. A contradiction in terms? Well, perhaps not entirely...

OTHER TYPES OF VOLUNTEER SERVICE

In Israel - again: as elsewhere - the number of skilled retired people is on the increase. With the help of the Civil Service Commissioner, careers as full-time or part-time volunteers in the Social Services are being encouraged prior to retirement. Some experiments have been made with pensioners "in residence" in poor neighborhoods and in development towns.

University students are being encouraged to work with underprivileged teenagers for four hours a week, against a stipend-grant of 1L2000 - a year. Some 1000 students are volunteering on this basis. This scheme is controversial in Israel, since the amount offered the students is not insignificant and thus may tend to blur the voluntary nature of such services. All other volunteers are reimbursed only for actual out-of-pocket expenses.

Much effort is being made to make members of voluntary organisations more than mere fund raisers. Thus, Wizo now reports that 400 of its women members work with new immigrants, 500 with deprived families, 400 with war widows - all of them on a "one-to-one" regular weekly basis. Na'amat lists 150 women tutors; 160 active on its kindergarten projects; 150 working with bereaved families; 100 helping in Mother-and-Child centers. B'nei Brith Lodges are specializing in making custodial volunteers available where courts call for the appointment of a custodian; in an immigrant country where not everyone has relatives, the 2500 volunteer-custodians are of great importance.

Pensioners run advisory services for the retired, attached to branch offices of the National Insurance, the Israeli equivalent of such institutions as, for example, the Social Security Agency in U.S.A. Guidance services are greatly needed in a country with much bureaucratic red tape and many new citizens. "Citizens Advice Bureaus", staffed in part by 150 volunteers, have been successfully started. Help to new immigrants is being tried in a variety of ways. The most promising form of such help is that practised by groups of volunteers, many of them teenagers, who offer to assist with Hebrew homework, thus

rendering a service which not only answers a real need, but at the same time establishes contact with the newcomers' family. Immigrants themselves often make excellent volunteers and, in so doing, simultaneously achieve status in society.

TRAINING AND ENCOURAGING VOLUNTEERS

Efforts are under way to train volunteers and staff. The relationship between them is usually rather uneasy. One experimental course for volunteer coordinators has taken place at Bar-Ilan University. More study and work needs to be done in the field of volunteers and professionals, as well as in the field of enhancing the status of volunteers. *To encourage voluntary efforts, the Government of Israel passed the "Volunteer Insurance Bill" of 1975, offering compensation in connection with any accident incurred during volunteering. Also in recognition of the role of volunteers, a special volunteer postage stamp was issued in February 1977. Moreover, the President of Israel presents a special award annually to outstanding volunteers.*

Israel's defence needs provide additional roles for volunteers. More than 100,000 men and women above the age of 17 are joining the ranks of the "Civil Guards", to patrol and guard Israel's streets against terrorist attack. Also women do stints of ten days as volunteers in military stores while men similarly volunteer their services in maintenance workshops.

It is often said that voluntary work helps citizens to find a place for themselves in community life. This is perhaps even more true in Israel, a country in which there is great identification with a national goal. To become a volunteer also means to acquire a sense of belonging in an immigrant society and to overcome one's loneliness. The Peres study (Voluntarism in Israel, August 1975) shows that 77% of all interviewed volunteers said that "they wanted to help"; 14% wanted "to improve society"; 12% wanted to use their leisure time; 5% wanted to meet new people.* The desire to make friends was particularly marked among the young (up to 20 years of age) and again among those of 41 years of age and older, where it was mentioned by 55% of all those interviewed.

There is in Israel undoubtedly still much of the "Great Dream", and because of that fact, there is a certain uneasiness about the backwardness of some members of the community. This may explain why, according to Dr. Peres, 60% of all volunteers chose to deal with various social problems; 40% engaged in medical services, including services to the old and disabled; 25% chose immigrant absorption. In times of war-time emergency the wish to volunteer appears to become almost overpowering. Volunteers evidently have a need to share the burden with those in the fighting lines. During the Yom Kippur War (1973), hospitals actually had to take drastic measures to turn volunteers away!

Volunteering is thus regaining its place in Israel's society as well as in the thinking of the nation's social planners. As Jewish sages said long ago, "if I am only for myself, who am I?"

*The figures add up to more than 100% because of overlapping.

EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING RECORDS:
Volunteer Recognition That Counts

by Pat Hardy

A great deal of talk is being heard in the area of volunteers using their volunteering toward career development or job obtaining. The time has come to offer the volunteer a means of actually making that concept useful and codifiable. This paper shall introduce a form (see page 30) that can be used by the volunteer to record and define experience. Utilization of this form shall be covered, including recording information, understanding the aspects of the individual columns, using the information once recorded, and lastly -- how the coordinator can effectively introduce this form into a program.

RECORDING INFORMATION

All experience, paid and unpaid, should be recorded. Involvement in club activities should not be forgotten. The information should be as complete as possible and recorded at the time of the experience or immediately following it. Obviously if the volunteer is just beginning to record experience, past involvements will need to be researched initially. This is a personal "brag" sheet.

Experience Aspects of Record

Title: The name of the job is crucial to creating a valid position in the minds of future employers. If a volunteer finds that the volunteer job has no title -- the coordinator should be consulted to create a title for the purpose of the form. The created title should represent what the volunteer did...for example, if a person has organized a speakers' bureau, a title might be "Developer of Speakers' Bureau".

Organization and Address: The name and location of the organization is essential. Full zip code, phone with area code and branch or division or department in which volunteer served should be included. This information is frequently difficult to get after one has left the organization, so should be recorded as soon as possible.

Dates and Reason for Leaving: This information is routinely asked on employment forms and in employment interviews, and is very helpful in personal retrospection and evaluation. If a volunteer is finding that leaving an agency is frequently due to boredom or need for new experiences, that will need to enter into job choice. How this is worded should be carefully thought out for future job applications.

Volunteer or Paid, No. of Hours; Pay: Whether the position is paid, unpaid, stipended or expenses paid is significant. The number of hours worked (total or per week or month) should be included to give a measure for the codification and

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and comparison of volunteer time. The amount of pay or expenses base (e.g., mileage reimbursement) should be included as well.

Name of Supervisor; Position: Both the volunteer coordinator and the person supervising the volunteer in the agency should be listed. If the volunteer functioned in a loosely structured group -- list the person or group to whom the volunteer was responsible.

Number You Supervised: This category should include those people actually supervised as well as clients actually worked with (e.g., Girl Scout leader supervised 2 assistants and 30 girls).

Job Description: Breaking this out should be detailed, yet concise. My favorite example is the PTA Carnival Chairperson's job description: Public relations, purchasing, budgeting, supervision, program development, community resource development, recruitment of volunteers, mediation, planning, evaluation, report writing.

Accomplishments: This column is an amplification of the job description and adds color and dimension as well as ego strength to the whole record. The uniqueness of the volunteer surfaces here. Some examples are: PTA Carnival Chairperson raised $500.00 more than any previous year, got 20 more groups to participate and the newspaper to cover the event.

Training Aspect Of Form

This part of the tool is designed to keep track of all training, education, and workshops that the individual has attended. It is important to file with this any brochures, catalog descriptions and/or grade cards that relate to a particular course. Conferences attended should be listed and actual programs filed.

Course Title: This area is obvious and generally easily obtainable from advertising material about training.

Instructors: List name, degrees, title of leaders as well as organizational sponsor and location.

No. of Hours/Credit; Length: List total time spent, if college credit was received, certificates or cards received (e.g., ARC Junior Lifesaving Card).

Dates: When did it happen?

Course Description: This should be a brief summary: more detailed program or outline should be attached. If the volunteer has a file system, a cross reference system might facilitate easy recall of course information.

USING THE RECORDED INFORMATION

Once this form is filled out completely, the volunteer can review it and get a clearer self picture. By asking the following questions the volunteer should get an overview of career directions and patterns:

What are consistent patterns in involvement or growth:

Is there any change in direction? If so, why? If no, why not?

What comments can you make regarding the patterns? Examine and stretch the patterns.

What positions have you enjoyed most? Why?

What positions have you disliked most? Why?

What aspects of those positions caused you to like or dislike them?

Now. having looked at the patterns and how you feel about the jobs ---- try designing your ideal job description...including all the aspects you would want in a volunteer or paid position.

Now look at the record and list saleable skills --- this is not a place for modesty or for unrealistically optimistic assessments.

Mesh saleable skills with job description and see if a career goal surfaces.

What skills are needed to reach goal?

What experience gaps are there?

How might either of these be met through volunteering?

These are general and brief questions and should be examined with the expectation that other thoughts and ideas will spin off them.

How Can the Volunteer and the Coordinator Utilize this Record?

The record can be effective in several ways. The record can give the volunteer a permanent method of recording activities that might then be carried to the next volunteer assignment, or it might be part of a volunteer program file. The record might be used as part of the application process in a program or it might be part of an advocacy/training program for volunteers. It could be a nice going away gift for a volunteer leaving the agency. A whole workshop might be given around the Experience and Training Record, demonstrating how to utilize it toward gaining good experience or a job. The development of a volunteer career ladder around this form might also be desireable. For the volunteer, this form could be especially helpful in developing a resume, filling out job or volunteer applications, or just generally as an ego booster.

These forms are designed as a basis for evaluating your career direction and as an ongoing record of your occupational growth, as well as for use in developing a resume or filling out an application. Be sure to include your volunteer positions as most employers are now considering that experience in hiring.

We hope that in looking at your life goals you will consider filling in the gaps in experience and satisfaction with meaningful volunteering.

EXPERIENCE

Title	*Organization & Address*	*Dates & Reason for Leaving*	*Volunteer or Paid # Hours Pay*

TRAINING

Course Title	*Instructor*	*#Hours/Credit Length*

*EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING RECORD OF*_____

RECORD

Name of Your Supervisor, Position	*Number You Supervised*	*Job Description*	*Accomplish-ments*

RECORD

Dates	*Course Description*

COMMUNICATIONS SKILLS

A MUST For Effective Volunteer Leadership

By Mary Beck Proudfoot

Among executives of all types, the Director or Coordinator of Volunteer Services must be the most skillful at the job of communication, as the greatest reward offered to the volunteer is the psychic paycheck which must be transmitted through some form of communication. According to Fischer and Strong, "No matter how varied his skills, in the final analysis the job of every executive or supervisor is COMMUNICATION...(This is) the 'X Factor' in the manager's job...which means the difference between success and mediocrity".

Communication has been defined in many ways. I propose that communication is the interchange of ideas between two or more persons. One person sends an intentional message and expects the receiver(s) to react to that message. By design this definition places a great emphasis on the receiver of the message as a part of the communication system. If the receiver does not react, or does not in fact receive the message, then I contend that there has been no communication. Communication is not simply the statement of facts and views: Three elements are involved: a sender, a message and a receiver. We often mistake the form of communication for its substance, and as managers we have a tendency to talk too much and listen too little.

What happens in every life context is that an emotional filter is slipped between the words delivered by the first person and the mind of the second person. Also a mental block, habits of mind or attitudes or beliefs, omits (filters out) all or part of what is being said.

How then, do we as managers of volunteer programs communicate? The style of leadership is the first place we will direct our attention, as this style and the way communication is handled directly affects each other. One of the best measures of the effectiveness of administrators is the effectiveness of their communication. And the effectiveness of the communication is determined by the atmosphere or organizational climate in which the employees work. Determine communications as they exist between manager and staff; staff and volunteers; staff and client; volunteer and client; and volunteer and volunteer; and you have determined the effectiveness of the organization.

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The style of management determines the value that is placed on communication and the time given to it. In the classical or authoritarian style of management, the emphasis is on production of goods and services. Communication is mainly downward, that is, the more rigid you make your organized hierarchy the less apt you are to get good upward communication. In this situation any upward communication is filtered by the upward chain of command so that the message is frequently deleted or changed if and when it reaches top management. In the army, which is a classic authoritarian style of organization, privates traditionally do little communicating with generals. The climate is usually defensive as opposed to supportive in such organizations. Also in this system, the informal and grapevine types of communication flourish. *It is interesting to note, however, that studies have found the grapevine not only fast but also, on non-controversial information between 80 and 90 percent accurate.*

In the human resources or participative style of management the emphasis is on the human values while attaining the goals of the company. Huseman, et. al., states that the basic human wants of an employee (or volunteer) are recognition and communication. That is, the person wants to be recognized as having value, dignity and worth; that he has the ear of the supervisor and that he has a sense of belonging. Communication is upward, downward and vertical in this type of organization. The best way to ensure upward communication is for the manager to take concrete action based on such communication. The supervisor who invites requests for help or information and then disregards them is proving that he is not interested. It is also the surest way to stop the flow of upward communication.

The Volunteer Director must study the organization or agency he/she is working in to determine the avowed and actual style of management. Just because the organization is non-profit and human services oriented, it does not follow that the organization's style of management is participative. The medical model of a hospital is probably the most authoritarian or classical organization in existence. Churches, welfare departments, schools, all have traditionally been very authoritarian. Volunteering was frequently limited to the more menial or routine jobs in these institutions, when and if volunteering was allowed at all.

The Director is also faced with the dilemma of selecting the kind of leadership style he/she feels the most comfortable with for the management of the volunteer services program and then fitting that into the style of management of the organization. Many times a volunteer program can be the opening wedge for a more participative style of management, as the director selects modes of communication to communicate with volunteers, staff, agency administration, clients and the community. Wilson states that as directors of volunteers, we have the responsibility to be the catalyst to see that open and healthy communications exist between all of these affected segments of the program. It is conceded that we must be authoritarian in some matters, but this makes it even more imperative that we be more democratic in those matters where volunteer participation is appropriate.

Although there is no research to defend it, I am assuming that most Volunteer Directors feel they operate with a participative leadership style. It is disturbing to note that one study of the flow of communications in several organizations concludes that it is likely that we feel we use subordinates' ideas and opinions in solving job problems more than they think we do. It is well for us to take stock of ourselves as objectively as possible to see how the flow of communication is really going. Is the climate defensive or supportive? Do boards and committees really make decisions or are they merely rubber stamps? Are there mechanisms for upward communication, and do we really act on communication when it comes to us?

In continuing to deal with the sender of communications, let us next examine the place of language in the communication system. Language and words are our tools. If one has ever had the experience of visiting a country where English is not spoken, the necessity for a common languate is vividly demonstrated. At a lovely beach in Venezuela one vacation, my husband and I became separated from our interpreters briefly. A very attractive lady came by and started talking to us in Spanish; by gesture we indicated we could not understand her. She continued talking (perhaps repeating what she had said earlier) slowly, distinctly and louder... much louder. Neither of us was able to grasp what she said. Finally we smiled at each other and went our ways with the only idea communicated that we did not understand each other.

Even when we have a common language, we still have trouble understanding and frequently communication does not take place. *In interpersonal communication we should try to discern what the speaker means rather than just what the words he uses mean.* One of the premises of linquistic thought is that NO WORD HAS EXACTLY THE SAME MEANING TWICE. To insist dogmatically that we know what a word means in advance of its utterance is nonsense. All we can know in advance is approximately what it means. In several studies it is indicated that 500 of the most commonly used words in English have 14,070 dictionary meanings. That is an average of 28 meanings per word! If you want a practical demonstration of this, have each member of a group separately write down ten sentences using the word "set". Compare notes and see how many different meanings the group finds for this one simple word.

Many things affect word meanings, environment being one of the greatest. Allen, et al., says that even within a culture or sub-culture the influence of environment on communication is highly personal and individual.

One of the main reasons for the inability of a white, anglo-saxon, middle-class female director to recruit and place minority and sometimes low income volunteers is that she simply does not communicate. Words sometimes have such radically different meanings to the director and the minority person, that they literally communicate little better than we did with our Spanish speaking lady in Venezuela.

In upward communication the semantics barrier is greater for the subordinate. His superior, probably having worked at one time on the subordinate's job, knows the attitudes, the language and the problems at that level while the person communicating upward is not familiar with the supervisor's work and responsibilities. This may happen between the volunteer and the social worker, the nurse, another staff person. This statement also indicates the reason for the success of programs where the volunteer has been through the same problems as the client or patient. Alcoholics Anonymous immediately comes to mind.

In turning away from the language code used in communication, the other code which must be considered is the non-verbal communication of the sender. In an encounter between two people, if the non-verbal communication does not match the words, people are more likely to believe the non-verbal. The non-verbal actions and expressions give a clearer message to the receiver than the words. Regardless of the words or the purpose for speaking, the speaker's face will convey a message.

But non-verbal communication is not limited to just facial expressions or body movement. The room or environment also communicates. The way messages are arranged, the appearance of the paper, bulletin board, etc. A dirty, unpleasant room as a meeting place for volunteer training; a crowded, cluttered work area for the volunteer; and unreturned telephone calls lets the volunteer know he/she is not very important and that the work they are asked to do is not highly regarded. Non-verbal behavior defines and regulates the communication system as well as the specific content communicated.

Now let us turn to the message part of our communication triad (the sender, the message and the receiver). Why are messages sent and what specific function do they serve? Redding's system summarizes an organization's rationale for message flow using the three categories; *task messages, maintenance messages and human messages.*

In volunteer administration, an example of *task messages* would be orientation meetings with volunteers concerning the organization; the determining with staff of areas of service that can be done by volunteers; and the job descriptions as they are defined and explained.

Maintenance messages help the organization to remain alive and perpetuate itself. Reporting hours, messages concerning the meetings of committees and boards, and statistic gathering are examples of the maintenance messages.

Of the three, the Coordinator or Director must make the *human messages* the most effective communication. These are the rap sessions with volunteers who deal with clients/patients; the problem solving with the unhappy placement; the encouragement of staff to say the word of appreciation or to invite the volunteer to coffee; and the inclusion of the volunteer in staffings relating to the client with whom he is dealing. All of these activities lead to more open and effective communication.

In this paper I am not going to deal with the way messages should be presented nor the different forms of media for different kinds of messages. This is not to say that these are not important, but that

they should be dealt with in depth elsewhere.

Let us go on in more detail with the third part of the communication triad--*the receiver*. Listening is probably the most grossly underused and unrecognized form of communication. There is an old proverb that says, *"Nature gave us two ears and only one mouth so that we could listen twice as much as we speak"*.

A function of listening is "feedback", which has been described by Thayer as the information or cues utilized by the originator to judge how successfully he has communicated. I am contending that if the sender gets no cues then there is no basis for him to assume that communication did in fact take place. Probably the greatest cause of failure in communication is that we ASSUME that everyone knows what we are talking about and that we ASSUME that we know what others are talking about without asking questions to make sure. Be assured that feedback is no frill. Rather, it is an indispensible part of communication.

One of the most compelling demonstrations of the need for feedback is done rather easily. Divide a group into teams of three. One member of each team is designated as the sender, another the receiver and the third person as an observer. Give the senders and receivers identical sets of a few Tinker Toys. Several sets can be made up from one small can of the toys. It is important in the first go around that on a given team, the sender and receiver each have the same number of each kind of objects in the set. Seat the sender and receiver on each team back to back with instructions to each not to turn to see what the other is doing. The receiver is not to ask questions, respond in any way or give any feedback to the sender. Then instruct each sender to start to build an object with his set of Tinker Toys, telling his receiver what he is doing. Each receiver is to build an identical object to that of his sender. The observer simply observes his team and reports later on what has happened. After several minutes, let the senders and receivers see what they have done. Then do the same thing over again, only this time let the receiver talk back to and question the sender. In this instance usually the object the receiver builds is much more similar to what the sender has built.

Then, to demonstrate how difficult it is to deal with people from differing cultural groups, do not give the sender and receiver indentical sets, - have a few pieces in each set not like anything in the other set. Do this without feedback first, then with the receiver able to ask questions and clarify. This is a tremendous training lesson for volunteers who will be dealing directly with clients or patients.

Gathering feedback and listening involves risk on the part of the speaker. Sometimes negative feedback is devastating to a person, particularly if he is somewhat insecure. If the Director or Coordinator is a person who does not like negative feedback, then the volunteers and staff will send back only the good reports, if they bother to give any at all. People do not like to give negative feedback, particularly to a superior. If feedback, even, positive, is greeted with indifference or defensive mechanisms, then it will stop going to the superior.

Listening, as defined separately from feedback, is in and of itself an art to be studied and acquired. The listening receiver is every bit as much a part of the communication triad as either the sender or the message. A skilled listener develops a sensitivity which enables him to break out of the shell of individual isolation, to share the experiences and emotions of others. One of the greatest drawbacks to listening is that the average speaker talks at a rate of 150 to 200 words per minute and the average listener can receive 700 to 1,000 words per minute. During the gaps, the receiver thinks of other things, loses continuity and develops other bad listening habits.

Most of the communication time (variously estimated at 45% to 63%) is spent in listening and only 22% to 30% in talking. Yet, think of how many more speech classes are offered students than listening classes. Or how much more often we praise a "good" speaker than a "good" listener. The manager practicing listening inclines toward democratic or participative management, that style characterized by a willingness to bring subordinates into planning, creating, decision-making processes.

We have a tendency to both see and hear what we want to see and hear and what we expect to see and hear. These are the two largest blocks to listening. In order

to avoid such blocks it is suggested that we listen patiently before making a judgment and refrain from hasty disapproval by word or non-verbal actions. There is no point in arguing with the speaker before he makes his point clear, or in paying attention only to the manifest content or words. One last piece of advice on listening probably is both the most important and the hardest. Listen to what the speaker does not want to say, or cannot say without help.

Dr. Ralph Nichols lists ten of the worst listening habits. Although developed for a group listening to a speaker, most are adaptable to two-person communications as well.

"*1. Calling the subject uninteresting.*

2. Criticizing the speakers' delivery.

3. Getting over-stimulated. (Making up a rebuttal after a point and not hearing the rest of the speech.)

4. Listening only for facts. (Listen for ideas.)

5. Trying to make an outline of everything we hear.

6. Faking attention to the speaker. (Good listening is not relaxing.)

7. Tolerating or creating distractions in the audience.

8. Evading difficult material.

9. Letting emotion-laden words throw us out of tune with the speaker.

10. Wasting the differential between speech-speed and thought-speed."

One has to be very creative to overcome these bad listening habits. There are some ways to use the time between hearing words rather than let the brain wander off into another territory. Summarize what has been said previously; perhaps making notes will keep you on track provided you do not become engrossed in the note taking; or think of the applications of what is being said to your own job, organization or life.

Above all, avoid becoming an apathetic, sophisticated, or opposing listener. You may be justified, but this does not lead to a constructive outcome. (If you really hear the boss's monotonous remarks, you can still learn something--even if only how to avoid duplicating his or her miserable performance.)

In summary, volunteers stay with an organization or leave it, generally, on the following basis: the work itself; recognition; a sense of achievement; the amount of responsibility they are asked to assume or advancement. Most of these reasons are a direct result of, or enhanced by how we communicate with them. *Effective communication is elusive if it is not studied and practiced constantly. It is not something we can learn once and use the same way forever. It is active, dynamic and subject to constant change. As we change every day due to our experiences and the changes in our world, so does that other person with whom we try to communicate. So the way we handle the tools of communication must change also.*

In the final analysis, the one person we need to know best for effective communication is ourselves. Our own self-concept will determine how we present our message and whether or not we can take the risks of listening. How willing we are to share ourselves will determine how able we are to get others to share themselves, which is the basis for recruiting volunteers.

Carl Rogers says that what we do, how we dress, what tasks we undertake and what tasks we decline are determined not so much by our acutal powers and limitations as by what we believe to be our powers and limitations, that is, our self-concept.

Sometimes we even conceal from ourselves and from others our deeper reasons for doing things. We justify our actions by grand rationalizations. The more realistic we are about ourselves, the more realistic and accepting we can be of others. Since volunteering is essentially in the people-helping setting, let us listen to Carol Rogers' observation: *the optimal helping relationship is the kind of relationship created by a person who is psychologically mature. Or to put it another way, the degree to which I can create relationships which facilitate the growth of others as separate persons is a measure of the growth I have achieved in myself.*

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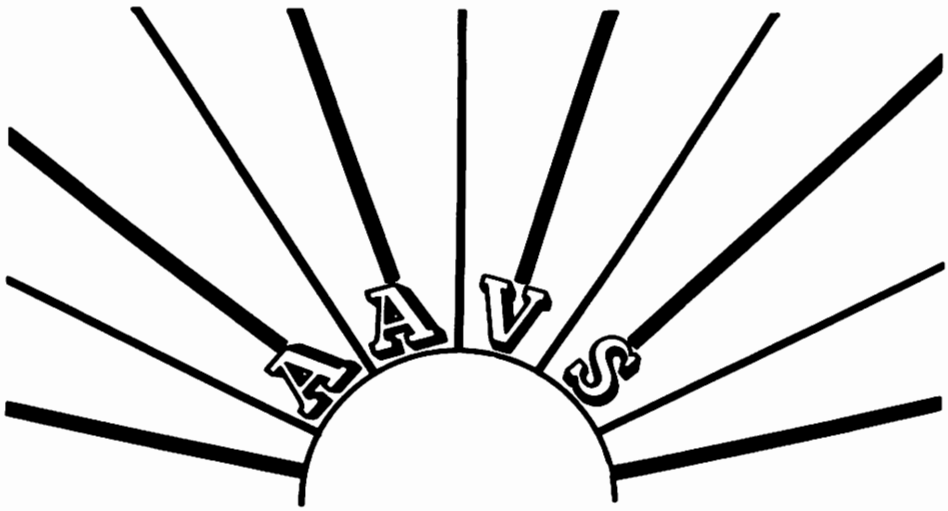

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Editor's Note: This article will introduce Dr. Florence Schwartz, the new Research Translation Editor for Volunteer Administration.

VOLUNTEERISM IN THE SOCIAL WORK CURRICULUM

What the Graduate Social Work Curriculum Should Provide For a Volunteer Administration Specialization

by Dr. Florence S. Schwartz
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I proceed from the premise that volunteerism is an integral part of the service delivery system of all social agencies. Within the ever changing profession of social work, certain developments are making the issue even more significant in terms of the graduate social work curriculum.

The question is not whether content regarding voluntarism and volunteerism "should" be included in the social work curriculum; we have already determined that it should. Rather, we need to try to shape the content, identifying what to include.

On the question of whether this is a separate area of specialization, Eileen Blackey of the School of Social Work, UCLA, said almost ten years ago that preparation for volunteerism and voluntarism should become an integral part of the curriculum for Social Workers, in accord with the trend to provide a range of manpower resources available to carry out agency functions. It seems to me that Professor Blackey was ahead of her time; what she said in 1969 was unorthodox then, but is no longer unorthodox in 1978.

Since 1969, the growth of consumer participation in the delivery of services, the development of para- or pre-professionals, and the growth of the Bachelor of Social Work programs have begun to change the tasks of various social workers. The growth of self help programs, of citizen participation in advocacy, of hot line programs, all as responses to the social work goal of preventive intervention, is still another factor. We are beginning to recognize that among the causes of alienation is the distance between the people who are to be served and the institutions serving them. Here, volunteers play a special role.

Decentralization of services, with smaller autonomous units, involves the formation of teams made up of professionals, aides, community workers, volunteers, and clients, each with differential assigned tasks. Such a system provides the person served with the team members who can serve him best in relation to his problem, rather than in relation to job description or status.

As a consequence of these developments, the MSW graduate is being prepared to move into such tasks as supervision, consultation, staff and program development, planning and evaluation, while the BSW is providing more of the direct services. This trend can clearly be seen in the development of the program of my own school, without denying the fact that we still prepare many graduate students for clinical practice.

The nature of such professional skill has been discussed by Dean Harold Lewis of the Hunter Colleqe School of Social Work, in an article entitled "The Structure of Professional Skill" which appeared in Social Work in Practice *edited by Ross and Khinduka, NASW 1976.* Dr. Lewis takes issue with those who contrive to separate the knowledge, value and style dimensions of practice from the skill dimension. In his view, knowledge, action (the how), intentions and values (the ethical imperative) and style, are essential dimensions of skill. By examining these dimensions, it becomes possible to differentiate among the preprofessional (technician), the professional (master), and the advanced professional (expert).

"When the worker is expected to operate from fairly well-established rules, following directives and commands, adhering to agency style, and utilizing tested techniques and tools of practice, the expectation is preprofessional. When the worker is expected to operate from principles whose justifications are to be found in value-related commendations and theory-based propositions, adhering to professional as well as agency styles, and utilizing various methods of intervention, the judgements required are professional. When the worker is expected to consider alternative theoretical formulations and conflicting ethical imperatives, adhering to personal as well as professional and agency styles, and to design a program of action utilizing diverse methods as appropriate, the expectation is for advanced professional skill."

I would add that volunteer administration clearly falls into Lewis' demand for the professional degree of skill.

An indication of the new acceptance of the importance of volunteer administration is found in the NASW statement on "Volunteers and Social Systems" published in the NASW News of July, 1977. Let me call to your attention the following excerpts, under "implementation":

"Encourage development of volunteer services coordinator positions.

1) Encourage development of professional position of volunteer services coordinator at a supervisory or management level.

2) Develop job specifications, including a training component."

FUNCTIONS PERFORMED BY THE PROFESSIONAL DIRECTOR OF VOLUNTEER ACTIVITIES

What do directors, coordinators or managers of volunteer services actually do? What skills are necessary for the accomplishment of their tasks?

We are emerging from the period when volunteer administration was done by volunteers for volunteers. The need now is for greater knowledge and skill in the totality of the directing function. A professional group is developing. The challenge in the relationship between volunteers and professionals today is for the staff to sustain volunteer interest so that volunteers can innovate, question accepted ideas, raise funds for selected projects and feel that they are personally committed to performing services that are unique and urgently needed.

It follows that, as administrators of volunteer programs, it is necessary to constantly help the people who work with the volunteers to recognize their value in identifying new needs and services.

Four Clienteles

It is the volunteer administrators who are the key persons in dealing with the problem of relating volunteers to professionals. They are the linking pins that connect four major groups with one another. The four clientele groups I have in mind are the volunteers, the staff, the agency leadership, and the people served by the agency. In providing professional leadership, we must ever be conscious of the needs and functions of all of these client groups.

The first of the clienteles is the volunteer group itself. They must be provided with the kind of opportunities that are satisfying and growth producing, meeting their needs at various stages of the life cycle:

1. The teenage volunteers who may see this as an opportunity to test themselves in the process of maturing and exploring career possibilities.

2. Women who traditionally constitute the major volunteer force, who see their activity as an opportunity to make social contacts, to learn new skills, to gain experience for a career, or to generally test out the possibility of a return to the labor market.

3. Men, who are increasingly joining the volunteer force, sometimes encouraged by business organizations in order to become more closely involved with the community, to foster avocational interests, and to use unused skills. There is also the possibility that for some men it may be an opportunity to test out a mid-life career change.

4. People who are preparing for retirement, who volunteer in order to develop new interests and activities for their retirement years.

5. Retired persons who volunteer as a substitute for paid work, for whom volunteering provides opportunities to compensate for the feelings of dependence and loneliness that often accompany the process of disengagement from work.

6. Ex-clients who have gone through special experiences, who volunteer in order to use their own experience productively as seen in the self-help groups such as: Reach for Recovery, Overweight Anonymous, and Ex-Offender

programs. Consumers of service and advocates are becoming more involved in the delivery of service. An example of this is seen in the community control of schools in New York City.

The second clientele of the volunteer of the volunteer administrator is the agency staff, professional as well as non-professional. Here, a major task is to deal with a historical resistance to the use of the volunteer, to enable staff to use volunteers in ways that are productive and non-threatening, as well as creative and innovative.

Working with staff presents some special problems. In social agencies it is the social work staff which becomes the gatekeepers for volunteers. But the nature of the organizational structure frequently makes the task difficult. Bureaucratic structure with a fixed hierarchy of status can accommodate to volunteers more readily than agencies where the staff structure is more collegial. For example, a hospital, where the tasks are clearly identified, can incorporate volunteers as "grey ladies" (hospital visitors). They deal with the problem of volunteers by isolating and limiting them. The escort service of some agencies (accompanying clients to doctors) is a similar example. But in the settlement houses and community center which are less bureaucratic, where the volunteer tasks are frequently the same as paid group leaders or teachers, there are greater problems.

Another type of problem is related to the tendency of social work professionals to work more effectively with older adult and teenage volunteers and least effectively with adults. The former can be viewed as clients over whom the professional has some power. The latter are not perceived as clients but as successful, competent people; and staff finds it difficult to supervise and make demands on such people.

Another problem is that of understanding the nature of volunteering as a self-actualization process, requiring that the professional deal with highly individual needs.

Because of these diverse problems, professionals frequently do not understand their functions with respect to volunteers, do not always appreciate the potential usefulness of volunteers, and are not equipped to program the work of volunteers. They often see volunteers as threats to their jobs. They discourage and oppose the use of volunteers, sometimes very subtly. They create myths of unreliability and incompetence. These all have to be dealt with by the professional volunteer administrator.

The third clientele is the highest level of the agency--the combination of board members and agency executives. They must be helped to understand the role of the volunteer and to be able to differentiate between the professional role and the volunteer role without developing unreal expectations regarding volunteers. Also, of course, they ultimately control the allocation of financial and staff resources, so their cooperation is essential.

The fourth, but perhaps the most important clientele are the consumers of agency service, who must be the ultimate focus of all that occurs in the agency and who need reassurance that quality service is being delivered.

In dealing with these four groups, there are several functional areas that require talent and skill.

Counseling Skills

Directors of volunteers and of staff dealing with volunteers have a unique and difficult counseling function. They must understand the needs and motivations of their special constituency, the volunteers, in order to help make their work a useful contribution to the agency and to its clients.

Even more, the volunteer must be dealt with in such a way as to give them the satisfactions that come from volunteering. Agencies must provide service to the volunteers through the process of having the volunteers provide service to agencies. The background necessary to direct and program such activities involves a wide variety of behavioral knowledge and skills including case work and group work skills. My research, supported by replication, indicated that most volunteers state altruistic reason for volunteering--indicating inner directed needs that must be met.

Administrative Skills

Administrators also make the structural and functional arrangements that are always made by managers in order to provide for the systematic accomplishment of the aims of an organization. This management function can be broken down into four basic processes: planning, organizing, directing and controlling, with differential skills needed according to whether we are dealing with a bureaucracy (i.e., a hospital) or the more informal structure of a community center.

Planning is associated with the future. Anything related to future activities is part of the planning process. This includes defining objectives, establishing policies, creating schedules, budgeting and even establishing simple rules of conduct. It is perhaps the most difficult of the managerial functions, whether in social agencies, business firms or governmental agencies; it is the necessary precondition

for the successful accomplishment of any task.

The organizing function requires an understanding of the nature of organizational structures, and the role of supervisors as linking pins between the different levels and divisions of organizations. Such ideas as hierarchy of supervision and delegation must be adapted to the particular structure in which the director of volunteers functions.

The directing function in administration involves supervising the activities of other people. It requires an understanding of how to motivate through the use of a delicate mixture of persuasion, influence and power, complicated by the need to adjust the technique to both professionals and volunteers.

Finally, the administrator performs a controlling function, which means that he or she examines performance through some feedback mechanism, such as observations and reports. Evaluations must be made to see whether performance matches expectation. If reality does not conform to expectation, the administrator must do something about changing things.

Educational Skills

In addition to being counselor-social worker and administrator, the director of volunteer services must be an education. I have already identified the four groups that must be worked with: volunteers, staff, policy level and people being served. With respect to all four, the professional administrator performs a significant educational function. Certainly, if education is described as causing change, then your job is always to change people in the sense of changing their attitudes, their skills and their knowledge through training, supervision and consultation.

An Example of the Volunteer Administrator's Responsibilities

Let me remind you of just how complicated the development and supervision of a particular program involving volunteers is likely to be.

Typically it starts with some thought by the volunteer administrator regarding goals and objectives, needs and resources. These must be communicated to top administration and board so that support, especially in the form of money and staff, will be forthcoming. Such support must be requested in terms of commitment in principle and in budget.

Various staff members must be consulted and oriented; volunteer job descriptions written and approved by staff. Plans must be made to recruit volunteers and to approach the community. Recordkeeping procedures and budgets must be established. Counseling, orientation and training of volunteers and staff must be planned and scheduled. Office services must be provided. All of these must be written up by the professional administrator in various documents, frequently including the material in the executive needs to present to the board, and the speeches that both the executive and board members may have to make to various groups.

So much for the preliminary work. Then the program must actually be set in motion. Recruiting must actually take place. Public relations must be taken care of, volunteers actually counseled and placed into jobs for which they must be trained and in which they must be supervised. The supervisors must be supervised. Staff resistance must be dealt with. Work must be delegated. Goals must be made clear to all participants, and record keeping feedback systems created to check on whether and when goals are reached. Unforeseen problems must be handled, changes made, and conflicts resolved. The public must be informed, as must the executive, the board and the staff.

The work of all must be given recognition.

When these and all of the other operational responsibilities have been handled, follow-up must take place: evaluation of the program and of everyone's role, examination of the effect of the program on all relevant groups, individuals and the community as a whole. Complete reports must be solicited from the various participants. The Director of Volunteers must write the final report, covering every aspect of the program. Recommendations must be made for future activities and improvements. The accomplishments and values of the program must be brought to the attention of board, executive, staff, volunteers, agency clients, the general public, other agencies, perhaps the government. More public relations.

It is a complex job and I do not believe I have more than scratched the surface of what it involves.

Summary of Skills Required

Summing up the functions of the administrator in charge of volunteers, in my effort to define professionalism, we can say that this person must have the skills of a social worker, working with groups, individuals and the community. Second, the skills of the administrator, working with the various groups and individuals in the organizational structure, and in many cases, creating the structure. Third, the skills of the educator, dealing with the various client groups. Fourth, the skills of the public relations expert, attempting to develop a favorable climate for your volunteer work. In addition, there is needed

such knowledge areas as social policy formation, social welfare organization, and research.

This brings me to the third of the three topics I set out to deal with in this paper. First, developments in volunteerism; second, the nature of the profession, and now third, some observations regarding the education of people who will be the administrators of volunteer activities.

THE EDUCATION OF THE PROFESSIONAL ADMINISTRATOR OF VOLUNTEER ACTIVITIES

I have several observations to make about the education of professional volunteer administrators.

First, my treatment of the dimensions of the job and the various skills involved implies that such education must cover an extraordinarily wide variety of material, more than is normally associated with any one field.

Second, there is a process to the maturation of professional education in any field. It is likely to go through stages, beginning with control by the practitioners themselves, frequently in the form of some apprentice system. Then it moves to professional schools, where attention, as stated earlier, is given to the broad dimensions of skill, involving knowledge, action, intention and values, and style.

Third, if social work education were to prepare volunteer administrators for practice, they would also determine the standards, values, ethics and skills of the people who come into the profession. The universities and colleges control the education, and the profession looks to the universities as the source of personnel to fill their ranks. This, of course, has limitations as well as assets.

Fourth, the competence of the administrator of volunteer services is very much involved with the competence of the volunteer group which means that the administrator must be particularly well versed in training techniques.

Fifth, I cannot overemphasize the importance to the professional of being an expert in public relations. So much of the success of programs involves knowing how to reach out to the various clienteles and getting favorable responses. This involves knowledge of communications techniques and of the use of the media, and the ability to analyze the community in which the agency operates.

Sixth, volunteer administrators should be knowledgeable regarding political, economic and social factors affecting the delivery of service and the use of volunteers. These must be interpreted to the leadership and staff of the agency. Such social policy considerations should therefore be part of the education of volunteer administrators, and will involve special understanding of the implications of class, sex, race and regional attitudes and differences.

My final observation is to note that the graduate schools of social work are increasingly preparing their students to be the "managers" of the service programs. The social work curriculum is being revised and tested to give attention to the very tasks I have dealt with. This process is particularly important for the field of volunteer administration.

The process of professionalizing a field is not a simple one. I hope that I have brought to your attention at least some of the questions we must deal with.

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