# VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

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# How Did We Get Here?

By Susan J. Ellis and Katherine H. Noyes

*During our research on the history of volunteering in the United States, we discovered proof of what we had long suspected — that citizen volunteering has always been so integral to American life that it is taken for granted. Equally evident from the beginning was that such volunteer activity required competent leadership. We are therefore able to trace the function of "director of volunteers" in three parallel paths leading to today's profession of volunteer administration.*

Groups of volunteers have always looked to key individuals for direction in accomplishing goals, though the title "director of volunteers" is relatively new. In reviewing history, these leaders can be categorized into three types:

> *—selected members of the volunteer group;*
>
> *—persons holding salaried positions, who supervise volunteers as a secondary responsibility;*
>
> *—persons paid for the primary purpose of coordinating volunteers.*

Though not often recognized for their efforts on behalf of volunteers, all three types of leaders can be found throughout the past and still serve today.

In early America, the majority of volunteer efforts were self-led. Sometimes individuals developed a plan of action and rallied others around them, while in other cases, a loosely organized group of concerned citizens would choose a few of their number to be in charge. The criteria for selection as leader varied from availability, to status in the community, to specific expertise. The range was as broad as: the heads of the Committees of Correspondence and Safety; the organizers of subscription libraries; the leaders of the temperance and abolition movements; the women who coordinated drive for funds and supplies to support both sides of the Civil War; the organizers of the Underground Railroad; early labor leaders; the presidents of women's

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clubs; the founders of settlement houses; the initiators of community cultural events; the leaders of the conservation movement. Some of these activists have certainly been noted historically for their individual contributions to a particular cause, but few have been credited for their ability to mobilize, supervise and sustain many citizen volunteers. Today, such volunteer leaders-of-volunteers are most often called "president" or "chairperson" and head such diverse groups as Alcoholics Anonymous, the American Indian Movement, the Lions Club, and the Save-the-Redwoods League.

Another source of leadership has always been individuals who hold well-defined, paid positions in a profession integral to certain volunteer efforts. For example, doctors traditionally directed citizens in the provision of community medical care. Epidemic control, free clinics and dispensaries, vaccination campaigns, care of wounded soldiers, community ambulance corps — all required the supervision of physicians. A classic illustration of this type of leadership can be found in the movie Gone with the Wind. Scarlett O'Hara searches for the doctor through acres of dying soldiers, only to be greeted with his first words of: "Roll up your sleeves, Scarlett! We need all the help we can get!" There is no substitute for the direct approach to recruitment!

As time went on and nursing moved from a volunteer to a salaried position, nurses assumed the responsibility for the supervision of patient-support services by volunteers. They still do so today.

By the very nature of their job, teachers were in a position to mobilize their students and often to influence the community at large. Therefore, there are countless examples of teachers spearheading volunteer projects to meet specific neighborhood needs. Guiding students through constructive projects was a way to teach citizenship actively. Along with the contributions of creative individual teachers and their classes, there are examples of volunteer efforts carried on by entire schools, sometimes nationwide: neighborhood beautification campaigns; safety patrols; packages for CARE; and innumerable war-support drives. Today, teachers continue to devote time and leadership to such projects as well as to the supervision of parent volunteers. The whole field of service-learning, which

is rapidly expanding to all levels of education, demonstrates the current role of teachers in supporting community service.

Ministers and other clergy were expected to recruit and direct the volunteer energies of their congregation. Because the church's influence extended into most areas of early American life, the clergy's leadership was equally far-reaching. Charity was often left to the church, to be coordinated by the clergy. Later, institutions such as the Sunday School Societies · and the YMCA were developed with significant involvement of ministers and other clergy. The Christian Commission of the Civil War was the mechanism by which church volunteers provided pastoral services to soldiers under the direction of their ministers. During Reconstruction, parishes contributed money, supplies, and volunteers to provide education for freed slaves. Religious leaders also began the first "fresh air funds," connecting rural congregations with needy urban children. It is only recently that several major denominations have openly recognized the need for their clergy to develop the skills of volunteer administration in order to be effective religious leaders today. Beyond coordinating the day-to-day committees of the church and synagogue, clergy also lead volunteers in campaigns advocating a variety of legislative issues and in foreign relief efforts.
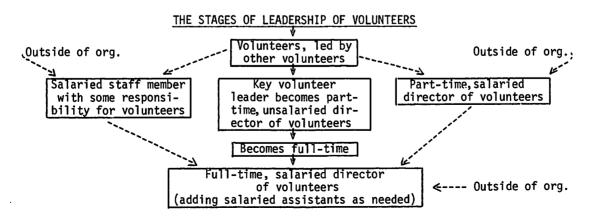
Military officers have been, almost by definition, "directors of volunteers." Beyond their primary work with enlistees, officers have often needed to work with civilian volunteers, especially in times of crisis. In every war beginning with the Revolution, spy and smuggling networks consisting of loyal citizens required the sanction and expertise of the military commanders. Ever since General Washington searched for ways to keep his troops supplied with bread and clothing, military leaders have supervised the civilian front's support of war efforts. The Civil Defense program is a modern example of volunteer energies guided by

military personnel. Each branch of the Armed Forces also has a program of community service wherever men and women are stationed.

Doctors, nurses, teachers, clergy, and military officers hold salaried positions with primary responsibilities largely unrelated to volunteers. However, their leadership is critical to the success of volunteer efforts and they therefore assume the role of "director of volunteers" in addition to their main job. There are other examples. Social workers today are in charge of a whole spectrum of supplementary client services performed by volunteers. Justice system staff also supervise diverse volunteer efforts, from probation aides to prison visitors; this tradition goes all the way back to sheriffs organizing volunteer posses. United States park and forest rangers provide necessary liaison and assistance to recreation, conservation, and ecology groups. For many people, working with citizen advisory committees, commissions, boards of directors, student interns, and various advocacy groups is part of the job.

The third type of leadership, namely people paid specifically to direct volunteers, is also not a modern phenomenon. Some militia captains drew a salary solely to recruit and lead volunteer soldiers, especially for local community protection. The first paid fire chiefs were usually the only firefighters to receive a salary and were expected to keep the company organized. One profession rarely thought of as directing volunteers is that of wagon master. Yet, such leaders were hired by groups of inexperienced but willing families who needed the wagon master's knowledge and ability to help the group work together during the hard journey ahead. It should also be noted that every political campaign manager has been a director of volunteers.

The three types of volunteer leadership just described represent different levels of formalization that coincide

THE STAGES OF LEADERSHIP OF VOLUNTEERS

Outside of org. ————— Volunteers, led by other volunteers ————— Outside of org.

Salaried staff member with some responsibility for volunteers

Key volunteer leader becomes part-time, unsalaried director of volunteers

Part-time, salaried director of volunteers

Becomes full-time

Full-time, salaried director of volunteers (adding salaried assistants as needed)  ←---- Outside of org.

with the evolution of organizations and agencies. Organizations move from small, informal, all-volunteer groups in which members fill general roles, to larger, formalized, salaried hierarchies in which roles are specialized. Between these two extremes are many combinations of size, funding and structure. As the organization itself grows, the way in which volunteers are managed evolves, too. The chart on page    illustrates the possible varieties of volunteer leadership as they relate to one another.

The charts shows a leadership progression in terms of salary, time commitment, and primary responsibility. Directors of volunteers can come from within the organization or from without, and can be initially assigned at any one of the six "stages" of development.

It is important to realize that this chart does not imply that any stage is better than another, nor that paid directors are "more professional" than non-paid. Rather, each stage matches a certain developmental level of an organization and is therefore valid at that particular point in time, for that particular group. What's best is what is appropriate; what's wrong is when the growth of an organization outdistances the ability of its volunteer leadership to handle the job.

A major implication of recognizing several, equally-important states of leadership is that the definition of "director of volunteers" must be based on function, not on title. Countless persons who are not full-time, salaried directors of volunteers are overlooked when it comes to networking, training, recognition, and resource development. Ironically, we "in the field" — meaning those of us officially titled as volunteer administrators — are guilty of such oversight as is the general public. In our defense, many of those functioning as directors of volunteers do not identify themselves with volunteerism and do not seek involvement with other volunteer leaders. What we must all acknowledge is that we share common concerns, training needs, and skills. We have much to gain by working together.

Thoughtful examination of who is really leading volunteers today, in any field, leads to the conclusion that the majority of them are doing so part-time and with titles not containing the word "volunteer." A sampling of such people includes:

- clergy                     - fire chiefs
- librarians                 - fundraisers
- PTA officers               - museum curators
- lobbyists          - boycott organizers

- association presidents
- coaches                - campaign managers
- Civil Air Patrol leaders
- planning council officers
- crisis hotline coordinators
- community relations/corporate responsibility personnel

Clearly, the list goes on and on, touching virtually every profession and institution. For local as well as national associations of volunteer administrators, this provides a wealth of untapped potential membership — leading to increased visibility and clout. And, look at how this brings forth the male leadership of volunteers!

The need for collaboration extends to academic courses in volunteer program management. The uniqueness of directing volunteers is that all such leaders must be doubly qualified: they must be skilled in the general techniques of working with volunteers, regardless of fields; and they must have expertise in the specific field in which they coordinate volunteers. Coursework in volunteerism must reflect its interdisciplinary nature. For example, a director of volunteers in a hospital should be able to take generic volunteer management courses and courses pertaining to the health field. Likewise, a director of volunteers for the National Park Service should be able to take forestry and recreation courses to supplement the generic volunteerism curriculum. Such "mixing and matching" is not possible if the academic program is instituted as a pure social work or business administration degree. Also, it is imperative that in the near future special courses on working with volunteers be included in the curricula for many diverse disciplines. Problems of staff resistance to volunteers and lack of commitment to training and supervision responsibilities could be presented at the source if nursing students, recreation majors, prospective social workers, seminarians, and others learned the value of volunteer participation in their fields from the beginning.

A key reason for reviewing history is that awareness of the past enables us to give direction to the future. Just as most volunteer achievements have been unsung, so too has the leadership of volunteers been unacknowledged. As we have just discussed, much of it is still invisible. Volunteer leadership is taken for granted, and this poses a double challenge. First, we must identify such leadership in whatever form it appears — which implies a broadening of the definition of "volunteerism" to include such phrases as "citizen participation," "activism," "advocacy," and innumerable "move-

ments." Second, we must find ways to collaborate with these newly recognized people so that mutally-beneficial exchanges can occur.

This challenge calls upon each of us to be alert to all the forms of volunteering present in our communities and to dare to step beyond our familiar turfs. Once we leave behind narrow definitions and fears of competition, we will be free to develop our "profession" without being exclusive and elitist. History teaches us that volunteers themselves and staff with part-time responsibility for volunteers have been effective leaders. While we applaud the increase in the number of full-time, salaried directors of volunteers, we must continue to value a variety of types of leadership. It is this very diversity that will keep American volunteering strong and growing.

*The preceeding was taken in part from By the People: A History of Americans as Volunteers, by Susan J. Ellis and Katherine H. Noyes. c 1978. All rights reserved.*

*Volunteer Administration* provides a forum for the exchange of ideas and the sharing of knowledge and information by publishing articles dealing with practical concerns, philosophical issues, and significant applicable research.

It encourages administrators of volunteer programs and the volunteers themselves to write from their experience, knowledge, and study of work in which they are engaged.

The editorial staff is currently seeking administrative articles dealing with the following volunteer programs or topics:

* Hospitals
* Mental Health Centers
* Churches
* Volunteer Action Centers
* Zoos
* Senior Citizens
* Handicappers
* Education (all levels)

* Recreation/Leisure Services
* Rehabilitation
* Courts
* Fine Arts
* State Offices
* Training or education for administrators, i.e., stress management, power, motivation, communication ideas, conflict management, etc.

# —————Guidelines for Submitting Manuscripts to—————
# VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

1) Manuscripts should deal with issues or principles related to volunteer administration. Program descriptions are acceptable only when they are conscious demonstrations of an issue or a principle.

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

Christina Dolen
Service-Learning Center
Vice President for Student Affairs
Michigan State University
East Lansing, MI 48824

3) Manuscripts should be five to 20 pages in length, with some exceptions. Three manuscript pages approximate one printed page.

4) Footnotes should appear at the end of the manuscript, followed by references listed alphabetically.

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

6) Unpublished manuscripts will be returned to the authors with comments and criticism. Published manuscripts will not be returned to the authors.

7) The author should send a cover letter authorizing *Volunteer Administration* to publish the article submitted, if found acceptable.

8) The author should not submit the article to any other publisher during the period when it is under consideration by *Volunteer Administration*.

9) The review process for a submitted article usually takes six weeks to three months. Each article will be reviewed by at least two consulting editors and an association editor.

10) Authors of published articles will receive two complimentary copies of the issue carrying their article.

# Going Up?
# A Look at Your
# Upward Mobility Potential

By Ivan H. Scheier, Ph.D.

This article assumes you are:

—an administrator/director/coordinator of volunteers;

—in a similar people-involvement role under some other name;

—considering this career line, although you are not in it now; or

—a resource person, consultant or friend to any of the above.

Also assumed is that you are interested in helping yourself or another in evaluating and improving prospects for upward mobility in the volunteer administration profession.

Which way is up? Upward can be any combination of more money, higher status or greater challenge and scope for creativity. The mix differs for each individual; so do optimum tradeoffs between elements in the mix, e.g., the willingness to forego more money for greater challenge. Each individual should clarify his/her own unique mixture-definition of upwardness, as a crucial first step in the upward mobility assessment process.

This process identifies the number and range of career opportunities an individual is currently prepared to capitalize on, then encourages the person also to consider additional possible pathways to professional advancement.

The process cannot guarantee that you will learn about all suitable career openings and have a fair chance to be considered for them. Remedies for this presently imperfect situation are mentioned at the end of this article.

Nevertheless, as you clarify and ex-

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pand the range of career opportunities you are prepared to consider, you will be more alert to identify them as they occur, more poised to apply for them. You will have a somewhat better chance of going further, faster in our profession, and our profession will have a little better chance of holding onto good, ambitious people.

## TEN FACTORS AFFECTING UPWARD MOBILITY IN A CAREER

The self-assessment system is based on 10 factors believed to condition a person's prospects for career advancement.

I wish I could claim the factors were research-derived, for we need much more research on our profession. Instead, the factors are based on 15 years of field experience and observation, as a volunteer coordinator first of all, and then as a staff member working with volunteer directors, while with the National Information Center on Volunteerism. About a year ago, the concepts were first systematized in something like their present form. Since then, formal feedback on the process has been received at six workshops attended by a total of 350 people. Most of these people were administrators of volunteer services or in allied roles. I am, therefore, indebted to dozens of secret co-authors for many resulting improvements in the system.

The 10 factors are assembled in a self-rating form near the end of this article. Before that, let's look at each factor individually.

1. Desire: "I have a very strong desire to be upwardly mobile.

As the coaches say, "desire" is very important in this game. It will power your status and prospects on most of the other nine factors. This puts it positively, of course. The flip side of desire is frustration.

It's also okay to be satisfied where

you are. Your present combination of money, status, challenge and scope for growth may be satisfactory to excellent. "Looking around" is still reasonable in most cases, because there is almost always some room for improvement, and someday your present situation might change for the worse. But beware of the "restless reflex" which erroneously assumes progress is impossible without movement. And check your parachute before you jump.

Others will desire upward mobility, but not in our profession. They see our career mainly as a stepping-stone to progress in another (sometimes related) profession. Someday we may have a better chance to make settlers of such transients, but first we must improve career ladder prospects within volunteer administration.

2. *Goal Clarity:* "I have a very clear picture of the higher level position(s) I'd like to be in, for both nearer and further futures."

3. *Pathway Clarity:* "I have a very clear idea of the pathways or avenues open to me for upward mobility, and how I can use these pathways.*

These are the knowing-where-you're going questions.

Can you clearly visualize a set of more fulfilling work roles and situations you would like to occupy, say, two to five years hence? If you can, you will be more alert to see and seize opportunities which approach your dream role. You will also be in a better position to shape toward the ideal, whatever opportunities do come along (including your present job). However, be sure to allow reasonable flexibility in your ideals, and be ready to consider openings which are shy of perfection in our imperfect world.

Goal clarity also helps launch pathway analysis.

4. *Service Area Crossover:* "I am willing to accept administrator/director/coordinator positions in any areas of human service, and I would feel fully competent to do so.*

5. *Related Role Flexibility:* "I am willing and able to explore people-involvement leadership positions above and beyond the director/administrator role.*

6. *Geographical Scope:* "I am fully (vs. partically or not all) flexible in my scope of geographical movement, to capitalize on employment opportunities anywhere."

Depending on your answers to these three questions, the number of career opportunities conceivably open to you varies from one to one million. Conditions beyond your control will determine some responses; for example, family or health situations may mean you can't move to other locations to accept better positions there. Other responses are within your control; they depend on your attitudes toward the profession and your own abilities.

First, we need some background, very approximate because, again, we lack research on the profession.

There are approximately 80,000 to 100,000 positions in volunteer administration in the United States today. (Gowdey, 1975) This would be about one such position for every 2,500 persons, or 80 positions in a community of 200,000 persons.

You will also want to know the number of career positions existing in your area of human service; for example, 3,000 in criminal justice; about 4,000 hospital directors; maybe 300 to 400 volunteer coordinators in churches and growing rapidly — another point to consider here.

Now, let's assume you are a director of volunteer services (DVS) in a hospital located in a community of 200,000 persons. There would be a total of approximately 80 positions in this community, three or four of which would be in hospitals. If your choice on Factor 4 is to remain in this community as a hospital DVS only, there are only two or three other possible openings for you in that community (in addition to upgrading the DVS role in your own hospital). But if and as you believe your volunteer leadership skills are trasnferable to other areas of human service — welfare, education, churches, etc. — as many as 80 openings are your ceiling potential in that community of 200,000. Wherever you go, that potential will increase twenty- to thirty-fold.

Where you are willing and able to go is Factor 6, geographical scope. The hospital DVS who is ready and able to commute anyplace in the less populated county surrounding our community of 200,000 may increase his/her ceiling of hospital opportunities from three or four to five or six, while possible openings in all service areas might rise from 80 to perhaps 100. Where situation and motivation permit moving anywhere in the United States, the ceiling potential becomes about 4,000 possibilities in hospitals, and 100,000 in all areas of human service. Of course, the probability of a person even hearing about faraway opportunities is much lower, but the possibility is still there.

Factor 5 refers to roles not called administrator / director / coordinator but analogous because, as a major part of the work, they require volunteer involvement

skills and sensitivities. Examples include numerous positions in Scouting, YMCA or YWCA, 4-H, Big Brothers and Sisters, etc., and staff positions in national organizations which depend heavily on their ability to recruit and retain volunteers: the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the National Council of Negro Women, and federal agencies such as ACTION. The cut-off point is hard to determine. For example, some people would include clergy in this second circumference of volunteer leadership. I believe the ultimate stretch on Factor 5 might comprise a million possibilities nationwide. Of course, prospective employers will have to stretch somewhat too.

7. *The Resource Person Role:* "I have the experience, expertise, and motivation to offer my services as a resource person to other administrators of volunteers — as trainer, consultant, author, educator, etc."

This merits an article all its own. Here are just a few flyby comments to stimulate further thought.

Yes, the role of resource person can be very satisfying. And yes, to some extent you can do it part-time while retaining your daily base as a DVS. In fact, you might have little choice in the matter; only about 500 persons in the United States today make a full-time living in this resource work as individual consultants, or working for Voluntary Action Centers, state offices of volunteerism, or national resource organizations such as VOLUNTEER.

Among the best ways to break in are:

1. Get published in local, state, regional, and national newsletters and journals. For example, AVA's newsletter and Volunteer Administration are always looking for good articles by practitioners.
2. Present yourself for service on committees of professional associations such as AVA, ASDVS, NAVCJ, etc., then produce good work, then consider running for office.
3. Offer your services as a trainer, first at local workshops, then at state, regional and national workshops.
4. Try to get involved in (volunteer) consultant networks.

Clearly, if money figures prominently in your definition of upward mobility, there will be a period of delayed gratification here. But save your press clippings, and be sure to get and save evaluations of your services by trainees and consultees. Somebody will want to see those evaluations someday, when they first consider offering you a fee for your services, or a quantum jump upward in resource-person responsibility as a volunteer.

8. *Education and Training:* "My background of education and training is excellent and fully relevant to my upward mobility goals."

9. *On-the-Job Experience:* "The depth and variety of my on-the-job experience is fully adequate and relevant to my upward mobility goals."

These two factors pretty much come down to having accepted competencies relevant to your career goals. Sarah Jane Rehnborg's recent article on certification and competency is an authoritative and exciting reference in this general area. (Rehnborg, 1979)

10. *Assertiveness:* "I am completely confident I am assertive enough in presenting my qualifications to prospective employers."

Assertiveness training is generally available to those who might rate themselves low on this factor. I suppose it's possible to be too assertive in presenting one's qualifications, but I suspect this malady is rare in our field.

The 10 factors are drawn together in Figure 1 as an upward mobility potential self-rating form.

The upward mobility potential score ranges from 20 to 100. The low of 20 is because I believe no one has zero potential for upward mobility; nor has anyone yet achieved a perfect score of 100 (and then presumably gone on to run for President). On a limited sample thus far, scores range quite evenly across the scale.

A score on the low side is no cause for despair. The scale is approximate and probably incomplete in the first place. Moreover, you may be the kind of perfectionist who rates himself or herself on the hard side. Or, for good and sufficient reasons, you may be well-satisfied in your present position. Moreover, people with lower upward mobility potential score have nowhere to go but upward. Virtually every one of the 10 factors is susceptible to substantial betterment over time through improved self-awareness, planning, training and education, or even by well-considered change in your own perspective on the profession.

Beyond that, there are things we must all do together, the things AVA can help us all with, as we help make AVA stronger. This includes some difficult-to-do things which, nevertheless, must be done; for example, a regional and national professional employment service, and attitude change advocacy with employers or potential employers.

## REFERENCES

Gowdey, A. C. "1975 Census of the Profession of Volunteer Leadership." The National Information Center on Volunteerism, Boulder, Colorado, February 1976.

Gowdey's 1975 census sample estimates centered on a figure of 60,000 career leadership of volunteers. This paper's estimate of 80,000 to 100,000 today assumes a substantial growth rate in the profession in the five years since Gowdey's survey.

Rehnborg, S. J. "Assessing Skills as a Volunteer Administrator: A New Approach to Certification." Volunteer Administration, Volume XII, No. 3, Fall 1979.

## FIGURE 1

### UPWARD MOBILITY POTENTIAL SELF-ASSESSMENT CHECKLIST

On each of the ten questions below, rate yourself from 1 (lowest) through 2, 3, and 4 to 5 (highest)

| FACTOR | SELF-RATING (1,2,3,4,5) |
|---|---|
| 1. I have a very strong desire to be upwardly mobile. | _____ |
| 2. I have a very clear picture of the higher level position(s) I'd like to be in, for both nearer and further futures. | _____ |
| 3. I have a very clear idea of the pathways or avenues open to me for upward mobility, and how I can use these pathways. | _____ |
| 4. I am willing to accept administrator/director/coordinator positions in any area of human service, and feel fully competent to do so. | _____ |
| 5. I am willing and able to explore people involvement leadership positions above and beyond the director/administrator role. | _____ |
| 6. I am fully (vs. partly or not at all) flexible in my scope of geographical movement to capitalize on employment opportunities anywhere. | _____ |
| 7. I have the experience, expertise and motivation to offer my services as a resource person to other administrators of volunteers--as trainer, consultant, author, educator, etc. | _____ |
| 8. My background of education and training is excellent and fully relevant to my upward mobility goals. | _____ |
| 9. The depth and variety of my on-the-job experience is fully adequate and relevant to my upward mobility goals. | _____ |
| 10. I am completely confident I am assertive enough in presenting my qualifications to prospective employers. | _____ |

Sum of Ratings = _____

Sum multiplied by Two =

# Volunteerism in Criminal Justice Programs

## A Preliminary Report

By
Robert T. Sigler and Keith J. Leenhouts

The use of volunteers in criminal justice has grown rapidly during the past 20 years. This growth has been so rapid that we have not been able to monitor new development. Vague estimates about the size of the criminal justice movement were subject to challenge and, in fact, the size of the movement had not been assessed.

In 1978, we realized there was a need to develop an effective data base for planning and resource development. Our purpose is to provide resources to volunteers, volunteer managers, and supporting staff in juvenile and criminal justice settings. Before investing staff time and resources in the development of products, we felt that we needed to know what types of resources the people in the field wanted.

Before we could assess volunteer programs, these programs had to be identified. There was no national listing of programs available so we set out to create a national list of criminal and juvenile justice programs. In 1979, we began distributing our survey card. This card asked for program identification, number of volunteers and types of services offered. Packets of cards were sent to all volunteer programs on our list. We also printed a facsimile of the card in the VIP Examiner and distributed cards at both the 1978 and 1979 National Forums on Volunteerism. Table 1 lists the results of this survey as of September 1979. We also mailed cards to all courts, prisons, jails, probation, parole, prevention and diversion programs using a computer mailing list developed by the U.S. Census Bureau. We identified 1,970 programs with 176,445 volunteers with pro-

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grams in all states and the District of Columbia. Of the 1,970 programs that reported, 150 did not report the number of volunteers who are active. Because the survey indicated that each program averaged over 80 volunteers, we have added 12,000 volunteers to the total (80 each for the 150 programs). This gives us a total of 188,445 active volunteers.

Our list, of course, is incomplete, but it represents the best list available at the present time. Since September, more cards have been received. We now have identified about 2,100 programs. We have made an attempt to refine our measurements by comparison with known existing lists. The states of Tennessee, Texas, and Ohio have recently developed state-wide directories of volunteer programs in criminal justice. By comparing our list with these lists, we identified 242 additional volunteer programs. These states represent about one-eighth of the United States population. If the rate of undiscovered programs remains constant, then there are approximately 1,936 additional undiscovered programs with 154,880 additional figures. From this we project 3,906 criminal justice volunteer programs with 343,325 volunteers or 353,725 with the 100 programs recently added to our list.

This projection is a conservative estimate. The three states believe their lists are incomplete. Thus, an unknown number of volunteer programs and volunteers are not included in our porjections. Tuscaloosa, Alabama, best illustrates this. There are five programs using volunteers active at any one time. None of these programs is listed in our survey or on any of the state lists of volunteer programs. Each of these programs is small and, thus, not visible outside of the agencies and communities they serve. With a reported average program size of 83, we suspect that these small programs are inadequately represented on our list. Presently, there is no way to accurately project the number of programs and volunteers missed.

In the early fall of 1979, we mailed a six-page questionnaire to the 1,900 programs which had responded at that time. Fifty-four items were designed to measure all aspects of volunteer program management and operations. We focused on types of services provided, training, recruitment, matching, supervision, management, and public relations. We attempted to identify specific procedures, satisfaction with performance and perceived needs.

Because this project is non-funded research, resources for data analysis are limited at this point. Dave Leenhouts, a student intern from the University of Michigan, hand-compiled results from the first 510 responses. Dave prepared summaries for each of the 54 items. Sophisticated analysis will follow once the questionnaires have been coded and placed on a computer medium.

Because the totals were prepared by hand, we are unable to clearly differentiate between multiple responses to items. There are three things which should be noted when considering our summary data.

First, we have more respondents reporting services to programs serving juveniles (850) than from programs serving adults (612). This may be because there are more programs serving juvenile clients than programs serving adult clients. It is also possible that the difference can be found in the types of persons who chose to respond to our lengthy questionnaire.

We have also noted that about three-fourths of our responses came from programs with paid directors and two-thirds of our responses came from programs with full-time directors. We believe there has been a shift in recent years from unpaid volunteer program managers to paid managers of volunteer programs. However, we suspect the shift has not been that large. It is probable that programs without full-time paid staff are less able to respond to lengthy questionnaires.

We have also noticed that the programs which have responded tend to be large. The average program size reported on the survey was 96. The average program size reported on the questionnaire was 83. We are aware of many small programs. These programs, however, are relatively invisible and are probably under reported in our study.

With these limitations in mind, we will review a few trends which have emerged from the data. Table 2 presents an analysis of the paid and full-time status of volunteer program management staff. We have noted that 430 of the programs report a full-time manager. We show that 380 of these managers are paid. Many programs have full-time supervisory staff (440) and full-time secretarial staff. We note that almost all paid staff are hired by the agencies which benefit from the volunteers' services. We also note, however, that less than 50 percent of their time is devoted to volunteers. This is particularly surprising in the supervision of volunteers' positions.

We have found that, on the whole, our respondents are pleased with their performance. They indicated their programs are fairly successful in every area of program operations. The only area in which there is some erosion of this confidence is in the area of public relations. At the same time, they recognize there is room for and a need for continued improvement. They seem to know their limitations and are willing to seek assistance. The independence and common sense nature of the volunteer movement can be seen in the types of assistance preferred by the respondents. The two types of assistance most frequently requested in all categories were how-to manuals and staff training modules. These resources increase the ability of the managers to improve their programs at their own initiative.

We have examined the data in search of typical or average programs. These models have failed to emerge from the data with our present limited analysis. There is an almost infinite variety of program operations and structures and a clear absence of "typical" programs. It is possible that we will be able to identify patterns of management and program operations when we are able to submit our data to computer analysis.

Our analysis of data is superficial but intriguing. In spite of the limitations imposed by the nature of the respondents, we believe we will discover interesting and important relationships when the data is properly analyzed. We will offer some additional analysis in the near future. We look forward to reporting our findings when the data is completely analyzed. If you would like a complete copy of the 13-page summary data as presently compiled, please write:

Keith Leenhouts
VIP-NCCD
200 Washington Square Plaza
Royal Oak, Michigan 48067

We would like to receive a tax-deductible donation of at least $1.25 for each report requested.

Table 1. Survey Card Responses

|  | Number |
|---|---|
| Survey cards received | 1,970 |
| States listed (includes Washington, D.C.) | 51 |
| Cities listed | 1,158 |
| Active volunteers reported | 176,445 |
| Programs failing to report number of volunteers | 150 |
| Use of volunteers: | |
| One-to-one | 1,648 |
| Administrative | 661 |
| Professional | 969 |
| Supportive | 1,451 |
| Other | 669 |

Table 2. Status of Criminal Justice Volunteer Programs Management Staff

| Type of Position | Statuses | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Number of Posi-tion(s) | Full-time | Part-time | Paid | Unpaid | Yes | No | Percent of Work Time Spent With Volunteers |
| Director of Volunteer Program | 430 | 325 | 85 | 380 | 16 | 357 | 28 | 49.7 |
| Secretarial Staff | 316 | 166 | 143 | 371 | 21 | 248 | 38 | 29.2 |
| Training Staff | 192 | 67 | 116 | 141 | 47 | 114 | 25 | 38.3 |
| Recruitment Personnel | 165 | 58 | 90 | 61 | 101 | 49 | 52 | 39.5 |
| Consultant(s) | 132 | 7 | 106 | 40 | 86 | 22 | 68 | 42.3 |
| Supervisor of Volunteers | 440 | 232 | 174 | 293 | 116 | 292 | 98 | 51.3 |
| Other (Specify) | 354 | 267 | 77 | 317 | 22 | 297 | 41 | 42.9 |

The development of our national list of criminal justice volunteer programs will be a continuous process. If you have not completed our survey card, will you please complete the form below and return it to us: Dr. Robert Sigler, Faculty Consultant, NCJVRS, P.O. Box 6365, University, AL 35486. Thanks!

Survey Card

---

ORGANIZATION NAME_____

ADDRESS_____

CITY, STATE, ZIP_____

NAME/DIRECTOR OF VOLUNTEERS_____

Approximate Number of Active Volunteers _____

Use of Volunteers:  One-to-One:    Yes____ No____    Other (Specify):

                    Administrative: Yes____ No____    _____

                    Professional:   Yes____ No____

                    Supportive:     Yes____ No____    _____

Do you receive VIP EXAMINER (quarterly newspaper of VIP-NCCD)? Yes____ No____

If not, would you like to receive it? Yes____ No____

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# Satisfaction and Perception of Needs

# of Volunteer Administrators

*By*
*Robert T. Sigler and Keith J. Leenhouts*

Assessing the information gathered from the survey, we noted that two trends emerge: 1) satisfaction of needs; and 2) perception of needs.

## Satisfaction

There is wide spread agreement that satisfaction is a key ingredient in retaining volunteers (Naylor, 1967; O'Connell, 1976; Scheier, 1972; Wilson, 1976). Volunteers are motivated by a broad range of things. Some of the things focus on personal needs; others focus on perceived societal needs. In any case, we believe that initially the volunteers are motivated by interest and altruism. We also believe that the motivation to come or volunteer initially and the motivation to stay are different for many people. Altruism, contributing to the public welfare, meeting the needs of a client group, or participation in a social club may provide a reason for volunteering, but those motivational pushes will not suffice to maintain the volunteer in the program if his or her needs are not met.

Some use the Concept of Achievement Motivation as developed by Maslow, Herzberg, and McClelland and Atkinson to explain participation in volunteerism (Wilson, 1976). These theories stress the need for achievement, power and affiliation as basic human needs. Volunteering can met a person's basic needs. In Maslow's terms, there is a hierarchy of needs with self-actualization resting on top. These theories focus on the individual's needs as the primary motivations for participation in volunteer activities.

In both cases, meeting personal needs or meeting social needs can account for initial involvement. We suggest that in any case volunteer programs must meet the needs of the volunteers or the volunteers will not remain. Volunteers want to be part of a good (well-managed) program.

Harriet Naylor (1967, pp. 64-65) also suggests that the things which cause a person to become a volunteer may be very different from those which keep a person

an active volunteer. Volunteer satisfaction includes a sense of belonging and being comfortable, reaching goals, participation, responsibility and respect. Satisfaction is influenced by a number of things, many of which have to do with the climate of the program.

Marlene Wilson (1976) suggests that program success is dependent upon creating a climate in which volunteers can function effectively and creatively. She points out that the managers of a volunteer program are one of the major determinants of the type of institutional climate created. The climate created by the manager determines motivation and affects greatly satisfaction and levels of performance. The task of the volunteer program manager is to create a climate in which work is achievement and fulfillment and in which the needs and satisfaction of the volunteers are adequately addressed.

We suggest that the satisfaction and needs of the managers are important determinants of the program climate. Much has been written about the volunteer needs and motivation and about the impact of satisfaction on volunteers. Given that organizational climate, satisfaction and productivity are linked and the critical role the manager plays in determining institutional climate, the needs and satisfaction of the managers of volunteer programs are critical factors in program success.

The volunteer program manager is the leader of a group of paid staff and volunteers or unpaid staff. If the leader is not satisfied with the accomplishments of the program, then other members of the group are not likely to be satisfied.

Herzberg and Snyderman have investigated satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Bobbitt, Bienholt, Doktor, and McNaul, 1978). They suggest that hygiene or maintenance factors influence dissatisfaction. Satisfaction, on the other hand, is linked with motivation. Motivations include achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, growth and the work itself. Our study includes information

which will allow us to assess satisfaction with accomplishment and the work itself.

The questionnaire focuses on basic aspects of program operations. The primary areas were recruitment, training, matching, supervision, management, and public relations. Items sought information about techniques and methods, problem areas, success and assistance. Success was measured for training, matching, supervision, management and public relations. In these items respondents were asked to rate their efforts on a four-point anchored scale ranging from very successful to extremely unsuccessful. The items were anchored with statements such as "program operates with no conflicts, interruptions of services or major problems" and "program is stalled most of the time with conflict, interruption of services or major problems."

Table 1 presents the responses managers made to the five items measuring success. For purposes of comparison, this type of scale is most informative when viewed as a dichotomized scale. From this perspective, our respondents are most satisfied with their training and matching efforts. In both cases more than 90 percent identify their operations as successful. While supervision and management are not perceived as successful, both are rated in the upper 80 percentage range (88 percent, 87 percent). Public relations is indicated as the least successful function (74 percent successful).

Public relations is usually not perceived as a vital part of the day-to-day operation of the volunteer program. Many of our respondents indicated that public relations was a problem for them (201). Only 51 of the respondents indicated that public relations was ranked low on their list of priorities. The two most common problems with public relations indicated were insufficient finances (112) and insufficient time to build public relations (130).

We noted that we had a low response to the supervision item. We suspect that this reflects the number of criminal and juvenile justice programs which do not supervise their volunteer programs. In criminal justice, some programs recruit, screen, and train volunteers. These volunteers are then provided for agency staff as resources. The agency staff provides supervision.

On the whole, our respondents are satisfied with the operation of their programs. We have noted that in the itmes dealing with problems, these managers have recognized that they do have problems. In most cases, however, the respondents were able to identify specific causes of these problems. Problems then are not seen as failure. They are seen as things which must be remodeled.

Perceived Needs

We support the position that program climate is crucial to volunteer satisfaction and to program success. We recognize that a number of factors such as agency staff, attitude, volunteer task enrichment and recognition play an important role in program climate. However, the most crucial element in this setting is the volunteer program manager. If the volunteer managers' needs are being met and they are satisfied with their work, then positive, supportive program climates will exist.

VIP-NCCD (Volunteers in Prevention, Prosecution, Probation, Prison, and Parole — a division of the National Council on Crime and Delinquency) is devoted to promoting the use of volunteers in justice settings. We week to assist in the development and improvement of volunteer programs. While a primary focus has traditionally been the volunteer, we also place emphasis on meeting the needs of those who develop and manage volunteer programs. A primary purpose of our present survey efforts is to identify the needs of justice system volunteer managers. By meeting these needs and increasing manager satisfaction, we improve program climate and the quality of justice system voluntarism.

Table 2 summarizes our respondents' preferences for types of assistance. The independence and common sense nature of the volunteer movement can be seen in the types of assistance preferred by our respondents. The two types of assistance most frequently requested in all categories were how-to manuals and training modules for the respondents' staff. These resources increase the ability of the managers to improve their programs at their own initiative. This also indicates that these managers are satisfied with their performance given the material with which they have to work.

In every case, the managers preferred the training and manual resources to consultants or other types of resources. We note the high need areas are recruitment, training for staff, supervision and public relations. It is interesting to note that matching is another area where the most managers indicated that they did not need assistance.

Training for staff and how-to manuals are two aspects of the same thing. Both summarize the set of skills and techniques needed to function effectively. Training is active presentation of the material in the manuals if effective manuals are available. Unfortunately, comprehensive train-

ing and comprehensive manuals are not readily available to struggling managers. Programs which do have comprehensive manuals have developed them after years of often painstaking trial and error program operation. Those manuals which do exist thus tend to be keyed to a particular program in a particular setting.

The National Association for Volunteers in Criminal Justice has recently begun work on developing materials to partially meet this need. With funds provided by the Lilly Foundation and by the National Institute of Corrections, NAVCJ will develop guidelines and model management structures. The grant anticipates a set of manuals and guidelines focusing on technical management for all aspects of justice system voluntary activity.

VIP-NCCD and the University of Alabama have developed a training program for managers of criminal justice volunteer programs with funds from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation. This two-week intensive program is offered regularly. So far, over 150 managers have been trained.

We look forward to the continued development of resources and the continual growth of the juvenile and criminal justice volunteer movement. We will do what we can to provide assistance to the movement.

## Summary

Satisfaction is a key ingredient in the successful operation of volunteer programs. Volunteers remain active and productive in programs which offer a positive supportive climate. Key to the climate of any program is the manager of the program. When managers are satisfied with their performance, a positive climate will exist which will meet the needs of the volunteers.

Managers of criminal and juvenile justice volunteer programs are satisfied with their performance. They do recognize that problems exist and are willing to seek assistance. They consistently prefer staff training and how-to manuals. These resources enhance the manager's role and control of his or her program.

Both the National Association for Volunteers in Criminal Justice and VIP-NCCD are working toward meeting their needs.

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Table 1. Criminal Justice Volunteer Program Managers' Satisfaction By Task

| Task | Very Successful # | Very Successful % | Successful # | Successful % | Unsuccessful # | Unsuccessful % | Extremely Successful # | Extremely Successful % | Total Respondents |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Training | 131 | 26 | 348 | 69 | 23 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 507 |
| Matching | 38 | 8 | 412 | 87 | 20 | 4 | 1 | | 471 |
| Supervision | 32 | 7 | 318 | 71 | 84 | 19 | 14 | 3 | 448 |
| Management | 52 | 11 | 380 | 76 | 59 | 12 | 3 | 1 | 494 |
| Public Relations | 68 | 13 | 308 | 61 | 111 | 22 | 17 | 3 | 504 |
| TOTAL | 321 | 13% | 1766 | 73% | 297 | 12% | 40 | 2% | 2424 |

Table 2. Criminal Justice Volunteer Program Managers' Perceived Needs By Task

| Task | How-to Manual | Consultant | Training Product | Other | None |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Recruitment | 195 | 117 | 114 | 77 | 171 |
| Training | 195 | 102 | 224 | 35 | 171 |
| Matching | 116 | 66 | 127 | 94 | 230 |
| Supervision | 174 | 100 | 196 | 64 | 169 |
| Management | 155 | 78 | 157 | 65 | 185 |
| Public Relations | 189 | 110 | 170 | 74 | 162 |

# The Effective Use of the Retired Volunteer

By Tom MacLeod

For the purposes of this paper, a retired volunteer is defined as "an older individual who works as a volunteer in the delivery of direct services in a social service agency." The effective use and management of this valuable volunteer resource begins in the planning process of an agency.

## PLANNING

When an agency's planning process has identified a service need and set goals and objectives for its provision, the method chosen for the provision of service may be more staff. That staff may be older volunteers. Once this decision is made, volunteer job descriptions must be created.

Job descriptions for older volunteers involve the same criteria as for any paid job description. The volunteer can expect to know what his title is, what his role is and who he is responsible to in the organization, what he is expected to do, what hours he is to work and for what term, what support he can expect from the agency in performing his job, and how his performance will be evaluated. Some aspects of designing the job will need to be done with the older person in mind.

Normal physiological changes dictate that jobs requiring long hours of standing, heavy lifting or reaching are not generally suitable for older volunteers. As well, psychological changes should also be considered in designing volunteer jobs for this group. Bromley writes, "as age advances the difference between optimum and maximum levels of performance decreases, older people therefore have reduced reserves." (Bromley, 1977) When older volunteers perform functions where the work demand is unpredictable and can escalate quickly, it is important to build in sufficient back-up support to allow them to perform to their optimum.

In order for the volunteer to plan his time and the agency to plan its services, the volunteer jobs must have specific hours and specific length or terms of commitment.

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Tom MacLeod is the volunteer coordinator at Age and Opportunity Centre, Inc., Winnipeg, Manitoba.

A second benefit of preset terms of commitment is that they allow the older volunteer to work and contribute within a staff structure without feeling he is embarking on another twenty-year career. As each term ends, the volunteer should have the opportunity to renegotiate his present job or to apply for another job or to decide to spend his time in entirely different pursuits. This luxury of choice is one of the great attractions of volunteering and should be preserved as much as possible.

## RECRUITMENT

The goal of volunteer recruitment is to get qualified individuals to apply for volunteer positions within an agency. In order to do this, the agency must market its volunteering program. Kotler writes, "Exchange is the central concept of marketing." (Kotler, 1975) The agency must be prepared to offer the volunteer something in exchange for his labors.

A volunteer job that provides a function which is seen as useful by an older volunteer can help to provide that volunteer with a sense of self-worth through a feeling of social utility. The agency then can offer the opportunity to be useful in exchange for the older volunteer's work.

When Age and Opportunity Centre, Inc. changed its volunteer recruitment approach from printing a laundry list of its needs, asking anyone to help, to offering a targeted retired population an opportunity to use their specific skills, an increase in response from qualified older applicants occurred.

## PLACEMENT INTERVIEW: Establishing a Volunteer Contact

An essential component of the placement interview is the establishment of a mutually-beneficial, contractual concept of volunteering; that is to say an agreement whereby a volunteer offers to give an item(s) of value to the agency in return for an item(s) of value from the agency. These items must be clearly identified and agreed upon.

As this concept of mutual benefit is established, the volunteer placement interview assumes the aspects of a paid-job

interview. The applicant will have the opportunity to determine if the job is of interest and value to him, while the agency interviewer must attempt to determine if the applicant has the skills and aptitude for the job.

When interviewing an older retired individual for a volunteer position, the interviewer should take into consideration characteristics common to this group. Older individuals often know how to do a job but not how to apply for it. Many who have performed successfully in paying jobs for long periods of time have had little experience in articulating their strengths and aspirations in an interview setting. Others may have lost their confidence in their ability to perform. For these reasons, the interviewer must be prepared to ask for information usually volunteered by applicants. Examples of such questions are "What are your most recent accomplishments?"; "What approach do you use at work?"; "What do you like doing best?"; "What do you feel most suited to now?" The results of this process help the interviewer decide whether or not to place the volunteer.

## JOB FLEXIBILITY

Job flexibility can play a major role in the placement interview, and relates directly to the principle of not putting a round peg in a square hole. An older individual not interested in or suited for one volunteer position may be just right in another one. If an agency has the resources to be flexible, alternative volunteer jobs should be available and discussed during the placement interview. Older volunteers who balk at reducing their free time by giving a lengthy commitment to a volunteer job, or those who would like to test out their skills before accepting the responsibility of a year-long job might be pleased to accept a short-term proposition or a set probationary period.

Age and Opportunity Centre, Inc. has been successful in placing older volunteers on an on-call basis where their skills are used in appropriate, one-shot, time-limited programs. Examples are the organization and administration of free income tax clinics or gathering resource material for handouts at a conference.

## ORIENTATION AND TRAINING

The challenges of maximizing the human resources of older volunteer employees closely parallel those of any part-time staff. Because most of the volunteers will function in a job in one department of an agency, they will have little opportunity to be exposed to an overview of the total agency's role in their daily work, therefore, it is important that their orientation to the agency provides that overview. It must enable the new volunteer to make sense out of their work role relative to the whole agency. The orientation should be well-planned and have measurable learning goals. It should provide the new volunteers with written teaching material to fall back on. Agency and/or program orientation manuals can serve this purpose.

Skill training per se is generally not practical for volunteer positions, however, the volunteer must be trained in using his skills within his new volunteer job. A volunteer typist would not be hired without basic typing skills, but orientation to a particular typewriter, the style and set-up or agency documents, and other office details is necessary. A volunteer working in a counseling department, providing information on housing for the elderly, needs to bring communication and interviewing skills with him to the job, but he may have to learn about housing problems of the elderly, housing available, and referral systems.

The training process of an older volunteer should recognize the experience the volunteer brings to the job. Training should promote a feeling of worthwhile accomplishment for the volunteer, an essential ingredient of job satisfaction for any worker. Maintaining job satisfaction for the volunteer is an on-going task of the agency.

## SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION

Communication between a volunteer and his staff supervisor must be structured. That structure must be firmly adhered to because the opportunity for informal information exchange is limited by the part-time nature of volunteer jobs. Often a volunteer's input will bring results when they are not at work; if they are going to accrue satisfaction from their accomplishments they must be aware of the results.

Evaluation must also take place on an on-going scheduled basis. Overall program evaluation must include input from the volunteers, with the results fed back to the volunteers. This process again reinforces and legitimizes the role of the volunteer.

Individual volunteer performance evaluation is usually welcomed by the older volunteer.

At a time when his role in life is changing and the norms are becoming blurred, it is especially important to an older volunteer to know if he is doing a good job in the eyes of others. The performance evaluation will identify factors in the work situation which are promoting and/or restricting the volunteer's functioning or development. It will assess the individual against understood standards of performance. If the volun-

teer does not meet these standards and further support or training is not available, practical, or successful, the volunteer must be asked to leave his job. The volunteer should have the opportunity to explore other volunteer opportunities which may be appropriate.

RECOGNITION

Formal recognition is another intregral part of the successful management of volunteers. Daily informal recognition should be augmented with formal recognition events. Such events give the agency an opportunity to express its appreciation and provide the part-time volunteer staff an opportunity to meet with one another on a social basis and learn about the scope of volunteer involvement outside their own departments.

Finally, some feedback from an older volunteer at a recognition reception: "You know, it's nice to get together like this and for the agency to show its appreciation, but I have worked in volunteer jobs where if I didn't show up it didn't matter and nobody noticed or cared. Here I know if I don't show up and work hard somebody isn't going to get the service they need. For the agency to trust us with this responsibility is the sincerest form of recognition." I believe that this is the key to a successful volunteer program.

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Age and Opportunity Centre, Inc. is a non-profit, social service agency working with the well elderly of Winnipeg, Manitoba. The examples used in this paper are taken from experiences in the agency.

# Organizing for Participatory Decision-Making in Public Affairs

By Michael Appleby

## ABSTRACT

Over 400 planning practitioners, public officials, community leaders and students have identified socio-economic inequalities, special interests dominance, non-participatory public decision practices, poorly-timed citizen involvement, and numerous technical problems as common barriers to effective citizen participation. These problems and research from the applied behavioral sciences on the nature of participation suggest the requirements for productively involving citizens in public decisions. A method for organizing citizen participation in any public context is presented. This approach confronts and resolves the typical problems identified by practitioners and also achieves among participants the desirable post-decision attitude and behavior as defined by the research reviewed here.

## ORGANIZING FOR PARTICIPATORY DECISION-MAKING IN PUBLIC AFFAIRS

Government "by the people" is what democracy is all about. Yet, as our government becomes increasingly bureaucratic and complex, it seems to become increasingly inaccessible to the people. The average voter feels powerless to affect national affairs. He feels that his vote won't make any difference. At the same time, he has little confidence in government itself, at any level. While citizen distrust of the federal government may have peaked in the Watergate affair, a recent Washington Post poll confirmed that a lack of confidence in government continues. The Washington Post reported that between 1964 and 1976

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public disenchantment with government performance more than doubled — from 30 percent to 63 percent of respondents. (Sussman, Washington Post, March 5, 1978)

There is some evidence that feelings of powerlessness and lack of confidence in leadership may result when individuals and groups are excluded from participation in decisions that affect their lives. (Wilson, 1965) This realization has led to the increasing concern in recent years on the part of American scholars, legislators, sociologists, and businessmen with what has come to be called "citizen participation." This concern has resulted in a voluminous literature, and, even more significantly, in legislative requirements for the inclusion of affected citizens in the decision-making process in public affairs.

Despite a great amount of experimentation, however, citizen participation continues to be a vexatious and difficult issue for the local decision-makers, planners, and public servants who must organize it. The goal of this article is to relate current problems experienced by such professionals to behavioral research on decision-making and problem-solving, in an effort to discover more effective ways to give citizens a strong voice in public affairs.

In pursuit of that goal, the article is organized in three parts: Part I: Problems With Citizen Participation As Defined By Practitioners; Part II: The Nature of Participation: Research in the Applied Behavioral Sciences; and Part III: Organizing for Effective Citizen Participation.

## I. PROBLEMS WITH CITIZEN PARTICIPATION AS DEFINED BY PRACTITIONERS

Those who have the responsibility for trying to involve citizens in public decision-making face problems that they declare are constant, difficult, and present at all levels of government. These

findings were reported by over 400 participants in citizen participation workshops offered by the author between 1975 and 1977. Participants in the workshops, which were given in various parts of the nation, were professionals who, in one way or another, were dealing with efforts to involve groups of citizens in some type of public decision-making. They included highway engineers for the U.S. Department of Transportation, university extension agents, human service workers, regional planners and community organizers, and graduate and undergraduate urban planning students.

At the start of each workshop, participants were asked to list the problems they had experienced. The problems they identified can be grouped into three general categories:

1. *Problems resulting from pre-existing conditions in the community;*

2. *Problems with the organization of citizen participation efforts; and*

3. *Problems with the techniques for involving citizens.*

The first two categories of problems will be discussed in the following pages. The third is outside the scope of this article.\*\*

1. History and inequality as community obstacles to citizen participation

Approximately one-third of all the problems identified by workshop participants resulted from pre-existing conditions in the community that affect the degree to which residents will participate in public affairs. Such conditions may be of two types: first, the previous experience of a community with citizen participation efforts and second, the social, political, and economic climate in that community.

If the previous experience of community residents in public decision-making has been rewarding, they will be likely to participate again. If, however, the experience has been a negative one, they will not. For example, residents who feel that they successfully influenced the outcome in a previous situation, and that their opinions were listened to, are pre-disposed to participate again. Those, however, who feel that their part in a previous experience made no difference in the outcome, and that, therefore, it was a waste of time, will mistrust any further attempts to involve them.

Some examples of practices which affect citizen willingness to become involved are:

- *Elected officials who go into closed sessions to make decisions after politely hearing citizen comments;*

- *Public hearings which allow citizens to respond to a public action but which have little or no impact on the action taken.*

- *Public officials who make up their minds with little concern for the average citizen;*

- *Public decisions being made by small cliques of political figures with strong ties to special interest groups;*

- *Decisions made by large, powerful state and federal agencies which are nearly immune to citizen pressures.*

Other community conditions will also affect public response to appeals for involvement. Inequalities also inhibit participation. If special interest groups are powerful and well-organized, other weaker groups are often discouraged from participating. If elected officials are perceived to be unresponsive, or incompetent, or corrupt, citizens will not become involved in public affairs. Similarly, if certain groups in the community have been ignored in the past, and feel that they will be ignored again because they are poorer, or less educated, or less able to communicate, they may not turn out to public meetings or respond to surveys, no matter what issues are involved.

2. Problems with the organization of citizen participation efforts

Workshop participants identified a number of problems related to the organization of a public decision-making process. Although such organizational problems were not as pressing as those related to community obstacles, they were still troublesome. Some of the problems cited are the following:

a. *At what point in a decision-making process should the public be brought in? If citizen participation is left until major decisions have already been made, it is meaningless; if it is started too early, interest may flag.*

b. *How much involvement is enough? How many meetings, workshops, surveys, etc. should be organized? If, in spite of strong efforts to involve the community, there is a poor response, what further efforts should be made to increase participation?*

c. *How can public interest be maintained over a long period of time?* Many public decisions are reached only after a period of years. Citizens may respond when a crisis occurs, and lose interest when it passes. How can continuity be maintained?

d. *How can citizen opinions, ideas, and attitudes best be taken into account in the final decision?* How can citizens be made aware that their opinions have been heard and have affected the decision?

e. *The "stacked deck."* Public hearings are, in many cases, the only vehicle used by public agencies to inform the public of a proposed action. Too often, vital decisions have already been made. How can this be guarded against?

f. *How can an effective citizen involvement effort be designed?* Many citizen participation efforts have an *ad hoc* quality — they are not really planned. As a result, they often are timed wrong, or fail to include all affected groups, or are ineffective in eliciting opinions and points of view. How can a participation effort be designed so as to avoid these failings, and others?

### 3. Problems with techniques for involving citizens

Limited knowledge of effective, appropriate techniques for involving citizens in public decision-making was frequently mentioned as a problem by workshop participants. They felt the need to learn techniques in the following areas:

a. *Public Meetings.* How to arrange and run public meetings, workshops and hearings. How to keep individuals or small groups from dominating a meeting. How to keep a meeting from becoming a "gripe session" unrelated to the issue at hand. How to design order and structure into a public meeting. How to present complex issues clearly in a limited time, and without the overuse of technical jargon. How to get people to meetings in rural areas.

b. *Communication.* What are the most effective ways to inform the public regarding the issue involved, the time and place of meetings, the results of meetings, etc.? Which medium is most effective at what times? What is the best way to use surveys, polls, etc. to get information from the public?

c. *Staff skills.* Staff members must often deal with controversy in public meetings. How can they learn to cope with it successfully?

We have listed the most common problems identified by professionals who are concerned with organizing citizen participation efforts. What follows in Part II is a brief review of some of the research findings from the applied behavioral sciences relative to group decision-making. The research provides a basis for understanding the origins of many of the problems cited here, and will contribute to the search for effective methods and performance criteria for citizen participation efforts.

## II. RESEARCH IN THE APPLIED BEHAVIORAL SCIENCES ON THE NATURE OF PARTICIPATION

Decision-making is a form of problem-solving. This article is concerned primarily with problem-solving in the public arena. The research that will be reviewed in this section, however, relates to problem-solving in business, education and public administration. Although the contexts are different, the processes involved are similar enough to warrant comparison. The objectives of this research review are as follows:

1. *To understand the origins of the problems defined in the first part of the article; and*

2. *To apply that understanding to the design of an effective effort to involve citizens in public decision-making.*

In the field of applied behavioral science, the literature on citizen participation is as voluminous as it is in other fields. However, unlike political science, which emphasizes electoral participation (Orum, 1974), or sociology, which focuses on participation or membership in organizations (Edwards and Booth, 1973), the research reviewed here is largely concerned with the dynamics of small group decision-making, and the process of change in organizations. It deals with individual or group participation in a variety of problem-solving contexts in the fields of business, education, and public administration.

### Conflicting Findings

Behavioral science research on participation is not by any means consistent in its findings. Some research indicates that myriad benefits accrue to participating individuals or groups when specific management and decision-making policies have been followed. (Hall, 1969, 1971; Likert, 1961, 1967; Bass, 1970; Collins

and Guetzkow, 1964) Among those benefits are: increased satisfaction with the decision or solution (Collins and Guetzkow, 1964; Hall, 1970, 1971; Gross, 1971); a stronger commitment to implementing the resulting decision (Hall, 1971); Bass, 1970); less frustration (Hall, 1971); improved problem-solving capability (Hall, 1969); a lower likelihood of crippling conflicts (Coch-French, 1948).

Other researchers, however, document cases where participation has led to quite opposite results — to resentment, non-cooperation, and ultimately to outright resistance to the decision (Firestone, 1977; Mulder, 1971).

Still other researchers have labeled planned participation as mere "manipulation" (Arnstein, 1970); a tool of persuasion (Verba, 1961); or a method of social control (Firestone, 1977).

What can account for such a wide diversity of findings? Analysis reveals that there is one factor which, almost in and of itself, determines whether participation will have beneficial results, or whether it will result in resentment, resistance, or apathy. *That factor is the degree to which participants feel they have been able to influence the decision-making process and the ultimate decision itself.*

In order to understand the crucial role of <u>perceived</u> influence, two kinds of participatory efforts will be described:

<u>First</u>, processes which appear to offer participants opportunities to influence the process and the decision, but which fail to actually provide such opportunities; and <u>second</u>, problem-solving efforts which both offer <u>and provide</u> participants with such opportunities.

The first will be called "implied participant influence," and the second, "influential participation."

## The "Stacked Deck": Implied Participant Influence

Participation can be defined in different ways. According to some sources, merely to be present when a decision is made constitutes participation in that decision (Firestone, 1977). In this sense, participation has been defined as formal opportunities to be present during the planning process." (Firestone, 1977) However, research (and reports of "real life" experiences) has shown that the mere presence of an individual or group during decision-making is a necessary but not sufficient condition to lead to satisfaction, commitment, or follow-through on the decision reached. In fact, it may often have the exact opposite effect. To better understand this, it is necessary to review some of the evidence presented in the research.

The term *implied participant influence* is used here to describe problem-solving processes which create the *expectation* that opportunities will be provided for those present to influence the decision, but do not create such opportunities. Throughout the literature reviewed, there is a remarkable consistency in the results of such processes. These responses may include frustration or apathy (Hall, 1969), withdrawal (Firestone, 1977; Hall, 1969); resistance (Hall, 1969; Likert, 1961; Firestone, 1977) and lack of follow-through on a decision (Hall, 1969).

Hall's work with small groups summarized the results of group decision-making processes where participants do not feel that they can influence the decision under discussion. He found that responses ran the gamut from withdrawal from the group to rebellion, and included indifference, lack of cooperation, boredom, engaging in peripheral activities, blocking the group's process, going off on tangents, working counter to the group, resisting involvement, failing to follow through on group decisions, and becoming apathetic to the point of dropping out. (Hall, 1969)

In a study of planned change in a mid-west school system, Firestone (1977) found that the inclusion of the teachers in a formal planning process for an experimental program did not guarantee their satisfaction with, or support of, the final program proposal. He explains that while the teachers had been led to expect that they could influence the direction of the proposed program, their ideas and opinions were not allowed to influence the outcome. This lack of influence led to their resentment, non-cooperation, and ultimately to outright resistance to the program itself. (Firestone, 1977, p. 181)

Mulder's study of Yugoslav worker participation in worker councils showed similar results. (Mulder, 1971) While the councils' announced purpose was to create equal decision-making opportunities for workers and management, they in fact actually emphasized the disparity in technical, verbal, and educational skills between workers and management, and intensified the workers' feelings that they would have no actual influence on the decisions made in the councils. The result: worker disenchantment, resentment, resistance, and lack of involvement in council meetings.

In processes characterized by implied influence, participants are reduced to the status of bystanders as the actual decision is made. Resentment may actually be more acute than if they had not "participated" at all. It is clear from all the examples given in the research that a

whole host of negative reactions to the decision can be expected. (Hall, 1969)

## Influential Participation

Overwhelming evidence from any sources indicates that the single most critical determinant of whether participation will have beneficial results is the degree of influence participants have (or feel that they have) on the final outcome. From evidence presented by Hall, Lewin, Guetzkow and Collins, Verba, Firestone, and many others, it is logical to conclude that the degree of influence will determine a variety of post-decision attitudes of those involved.

The term "influential participation" is here defined as shared influence among concerned parties in determining the content of a decision, plan, or solution, though not always equally, influence a decision.

Such influence may occur at any state of a problem-solving process: problem definition, data gathering, development of alternative resolutions, evaluation of those alternatives, or analysis of a proposed solution.

## The Behavioral Potentials of Participation

While it is recognized that the lit-erature cited here reflects but a small fraction of what has been written on the subject of participation, it is useful to summarize the consequences which are said to follow influential participation and those which can result from implied participation influence. Post-decision consequences are summarized in the table below.

## III. THE DESIGN OF A PARTICIPATORY PUBLIC DECISION-MAKING PROCESS

Now that we have identified the problems, and understand some of their causes, it should be possible to describe an effective approach to the design of a participatory public decision-making process. Such an approach should meet the following objectives:

1. *It should deal with the common and recurring problems with citizen participation already described;*

2. *It should create genuine opportunities for participants to influence the decisions;*

3. *As the result of (2), it should achieve the desirable "behavioral potentials" of influential participation.*

In the following pages, a step-by-

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### Influential Participation

—Greater satisfaction with the process (Hall, 1969)

—Stronger commitment to the decision (Hall, 1969)

—Increased responsibility for making it work (Hall, 1968)

—Less resistance to the resulting change (Firestone, 1977; Leavitt, 1965; Coch-French, 1968; Hall, 1969)

—Greater work productivity (Bass, 1970; Likert, 1961)

—Greater understanding of the plan (Bass, 1970)

—Improved follow-through (Hall, 1969; Bass, 1970)

—Increased possibility of achieving the "assembly effect" by which a group exceeds its best member's performance (Hall, 1969; Collins and Guetzkow, 1964)

—Reduction of possibly major disruptive conflict (Corwin, 1969; Johnson and Johnson, 1975)

### Implied Participant Influence

—Apathy (Hall, 1969)

—Withdrawal (Hall, 1969)

—Boredom (Hall, 1969)

—Blocking group progress (Hall, 1969)

—Resentment (Firestone, 1977; Hall, 1969; Bass, 1970)

—Work against the decision, or resistance (Hall, 1969; Firestone, 1977; Likert, 1961)

—Competition between the "doers" and the planners (Bass, 1970; Firestone, 1977)

—Failure to follow-through on the decision (Hall, 1969)

—Unwillingness to modify the plan to make it work (Bass, 1970)

—Lack of group cooperation (Hall, 1969; Firestone, 1977; Bass, 1970)

—Failure to fully understand the decision (Bass, 1970; Mulder, 1970)

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step plan or design of a participatory process will be presented. This design has been used both in situations with a very short time frame (10 days) and a very small set of affected publics, and in situations with a long time frame (several months to a year) and a highly varied set of publics. It has been used in cases where the proposed decision was relatively simple and noncontroversial and where it was extremely complex and had far-reaching ramifications.

It should be noted that while the design process is presented in a step-by-step format, and thus appears to be linear, it can be run in an iterative fashion, with the process itself amended as new information becomes available, or new community groups emerge, or the overall context changes.

STEP 1: Develop a preliminary work program — An overall design

*The first criterion for a successful citizen participation effort is that it must be designed. Opportunities for influencial participation don't just happen. They must be created.* Too often, efforts seem ad hoc and uncoordinated, and therefore lack effectiveness. Having an overall design at the outset, no matter how general, is essential. Details will change; as events unfold, but the general direction and scope will remain constant.

The general design will include: determining the time frame of the whole process, determining available budget and staff, defining responsibilities, establishing an overall schedule of events, deciding general program features (meetings, workshops, etc.) and methods of communication to be used, and determining critical points at which the public should be involved.

STEP 2: Identify affected "publics"

*Public actions affect different individuals and groups in different ways. For our purposes here, such affected groups and individuals are called "publics,"* and include any who might be concerned with, related to, affected by, or responsible for the proposed action. Such groups might include local clubs and organizations, public officials, neighborhood improvement associations, special interest groups, church groups, local civic leaders, etc.

The importance of identifying and including all the publics to be affected cannot be overemphasized. If a key group is left out of deliberations, it is unlikely that they will have a sense of commitment to the decision itself. And it is also quite possible that they may turn up later, to disrupt the process and demand inclusion. As the effort proceeds and it becomes apparent that an important

public has been left out, it may be necessary to stop the process, and reschedule earlier events.

STEP 3: Select communication methods

*An inclusive, well-designed, participatory decision-making effort which is sensitive to different publics requires the systematic and continued use of two-way communication methods — methods by which to get information out to the public, and methods by which to get information from the public.*

The affected publics must be informed of the issue to be decided, the dates of meetings or workshops, progress made during those meetings, and issues still remaining. The whole decision process must be kept highly visible if it is to achieve and maintain legitimacy, and if influential participation is to occur. Communication methods for disseminating such information may include the use of the mass media (TV, radio, the press), posters, direct mailings, flyers, etc.)

And if influential participation is to occur, it is also essential that communication methods be used to elicit opinions, ideas, and reactions from the affected publics, and particularly from those who have participated in public meetings or workshops. Communication methods that may be used include questionnaires, surveys (by telephone, by mail, or house-to-house), personal interviews, and opinion polls.

Different communication methods are appropriate at different states of the process, and for reaching different publics. If the proposed action will affect only one small neighborhood, for example, a far more individualized communication process will be appropriate than if the affected area cuts across several diverse neighborhoods or covers a whole city. Similarly, if many residents in the affected neighborhood do not speak English, a different set of communication methods may have to be developed.

When the choice between two methods is available (between telephone surveys and mailed surveys, for example, or between personal interviews and mailed questionnaires) the comparative cost will, in most cases, determine which will be used. Personal interviews are, of course, more expensive than mailed interviews, but often the importance of a few interviews with key people can justify the cost.

*Overall, then, the communication methods selected will depend on three factors: the nature of the decision to be made; the nature of the publics involved; and the budget.*

## STEP 4: Planning Opportunities for Participation

*Public decision-making, as we have said, is a form of problem-solving. There are several stages in a problem-solving process.* The following is based on a highly simplified "rationalist" model of problem solving, in order to identify at the outset those states at which effective influential participation should occur.

also be made available at the meetings themselves. The greater the number of people who attend a meeting, the greater the difficulty in providing opportunities for everyone to offer their ideas and opinions. Moreover, public meetings are often dominated by aggressive, articulate individuals who frequently present others from being heard. As a result, those who are ignored (particularly the shy, the intimidated, or the uneducated) are likely to experience frustration and

| Problem Stage | What Citizens Can Contribute |
|---|---|
| Definition of the problem | Experiential-based information regarding problem data |
| Collection of data | |
| Identification of alternatives | Evaluation of alternatives and their impact |
| Selection of one alternative | Support or resistance |
| Implementation | Support, assistance, resistance, or apathy |

Citizen participation can be planned to occur at any of the problem-solving stages. Usually, however, opportunities for participation should be provided in the initial states. By being included early in the process, citizens can feel confident that no important decisions have already been made, and that they will share in the whole process.

The turbulent history of public hearings testifies to the importance of involving affected publics early. Conflicts are inevitable when major options have largely been closed, and alternatives decided upon, before affected groups are asked in.

Meetings should be scheduled, and announced, well in advance. Care should be taken to assure that meetings are not scheduled at times that conflict with important local events (sports events, or local celebrations). Announcements of scheduled meetings should be given the widest possible circulation, and should be repeated as often as the budget will allow. This is crucial, if a good turnout is to be expected. (Sometimes, of course, even after repeated announcement, the turnout is disappointing. This may indicate a different kind of problem.)

If affected publics are to participate in a meaningful manner, the meetings to which they are invited must be held where they are accessible. If a meeting place is not easily accessible to important affected groups, they will not turn out, no matter how good the intentions of the organizers. This may require breaking up a large geographic area into smaller sub-areas, within each of which all elements of the decision process take place. Or, in a rural area, it may require providing some type of transportation to the meeting.

Opportunities to participate must

resentment, and in all probability will drop out of the process.

At large meetings, special techniques must be utilized to create openings for all to participate, and to solicit their involvement. Such techniques and methods are readily available, and are finding increasing use in public decision-making processes. (Delbecq, Van de Venn, Gustaphson, 1975, p. 108). Most involve breaking large groups into groups of six to eight, structuring their interaction, and making the small groups results available to the larger group. (Appleby, 1977; Delbecq et al., 1975; Halperin and Burns, 1974) At this small group scale, many barriers to interaction experienced in large meetings disappear. The key point is that without such methods, otherwise effective efforts may fail to achieve the behavioral potentials of participation.

## STEP 5: Documenting the results — Making the process visible to all

*For the benefits of participation to be realized, participants must be able to perceive that they have influenced the decision process. Feelings of satisfaction, commitment, or responsibility are all contingent upon the perception of influence, as we have seen. This imposes the requirement that the effects of participation be made visible through documentation of the participants' part in the decision-making process.*

A well-documented involvement effort will keep all participants informed as to direction, progress, and results of the decision-making or planning effort. Documentation means making the entire process visible: reporting the results of surveys or workshops to the community and to participants, publicizing how the results have been or will be used, and what effect they have on the particular decision

or issue.

Such thorough documentation also helps to create a climate of greater trust between the community and staff planners or public officials. It also helps to dispel the all-to-common conception among the public that their involvement in a public issue won't make any difference to the outcome, and that involvement is, therefore, a waste of time.

In addition, when opportunities for involvement are made clear and are well documented, the results are more defensible should a new group come in at the last minute and claim to have been ignored. All in all, a highly visible, well-documented participation efforts provide a form of insurance to citizens that their work has not been wasted. This, in turn, increases the likelihood that citizens will be willing to participate in future public affairs.

CONCLUSION

The problems related to organizing effective citizen participation are highly diverse. They include the community context in which citizen participation is to occur, how the decision-making process is organized, and what techniques are required to assure equal opportunities for participation.

If citizen participation efforts are to be effective, they must deal with the concerns described in this article. In this sense, a public decision-making process, designed to provide for influential participation, must accomplish the following:

*Be a carefully considered, designed effort;

*Provide for timely involvement of affected "publics";

*Deal with crisis orientation, cost, and questions of representation;

*Offer varied and accessible opportunities for involvement;

*Provide for continuity of effort over long time periods when necessary;

*Be an open choice process, in which several alternatives are under consideration, and in which participants in the decision-making process share responsibility for the final decision.

The American political system holds out a promise of equality, accessibility, accountability, and government by the people. Only through increased participation by citizens in decisions that af-

fect their lives can this promise be realized. Participatory public decision-making requires a commitment of time and resources. The choice is a significant one: between making the promise of American democracy real, and continuing the illusion of government by the people.

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# Volunteer Management in the Leisure Service Curriculum

*By Karla A. Henderson, Ph.D.*

In a time of inflation and shrinking budgets combined with an increase in the demands for leisure opportunities, professionals in public leisure service organizations are seeking ways to maintain and enhance current recreation and park programs. One of the ways to accomplish this is the increased use of volunteers.

Philosophically, utilizing volunteers, particularly in leisure programs, has a double pay-off. Volunteers provide assistance to the leisure service organization and volunteering is also an activity which can meet the free-time or leisure needs of individuals. Providing opportunities for people to volunteer is creating an additional recreation service. For this double pay-off to occur, it is imperative that volunteers be managed effectively. The intent of this article is: 1) to examine why volunteerism is an important area in leisure services; 2) to suggest steps which can be used in developing a volunteer management course as a part of the leisure service curriculum; and 3) to outline the objectives, course content methodology, and evaluation of a volunteer management course.

## Volunteerism in Leisure Services

Persons who have studied volunteer management realize that basically the same skills are required in managing paid personnel as in managing volunteers. However, for many students and professionals in human or leisure service fields, it is useful and necessary to specifically apply management theory directly to volunteer administration.

Volunteerism is considered an important aspect of most social service agencies. Leisure services have tradi-

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tionally used a number of volunteers in various capacities, such as Little League coaches, youth club leaders, advisory committees, and in nursing homes to mention only a few. The number of volunteers is continually increasing. Two approaches may be used in coordinating volunteers. Although some leisure service programs employ full-time volunteer coordinators or administrators, in many cases the coordination of volunteers within a particular recreation or park unit is the responsibility of the professional in charge of that unit. While there are merits to either approach, many times the leisure professional who spends a majority of time coordinating volunteers is not fully trained in how to be effective in managing these "unpaid" staff.

People generally volunteer during free time or leisure time. This time spent volunteering has been viewed as a constructive use of leisure. (Henderson, 1979) Service to others is suggested to be at the top of the hierarchy of leisure time use. (Jensen, 1977) The similarities between volunteerism and leisure may be a useful relationship to illustrate for both the leisure service provider and for others involved in managing volunteers. The following is a list of the attributes which might be in common to both volunteerism and leisure. Volunteerism and leisure both:

-*are chosen voluntarily;*

-*address higher level needs (i.e., self-esteem, self-actualization);*

-*usually occur during non-work time;*

-*are engaged in for their own sake and not for extrinsic reward;*

-*make life meaningful and well-rounded;*

-*contribute to an individual's personal growth.*

Granted, there are additional reasons for volunteering, such as serving others and career exploration, but these attributes listed above suggest the similarities between leisure and volunteering.

In studying both volunteerism and leisure from a professional standpoint, it is obvious that they are merging inter-disciplinary or multi-disciplinary sub-jects. Pure research related to either topic is in the neophyte stages as both are phenomenon that are reviewed and dis-cussed mainly as aspects of the contem-porary American lifestyle. That is not to say that both have not been around since the beginning of civilization, but neither has merited extensive study until the last half of this century. In a sense, the concepts of volunteerism and also of leisure have "come of age."

The interdisciplinary aspects of volunteerism and leisure enable them to have a meaningful emphasis in today's society. With the increased complexity of social and technological change, the search for personal meaning and identity, and the changing nature of work, achieve-ment, and consumption, volunteerism and leisure in a holistic framework provide meaning in today's society. The holism suggests that all elements of life are interrelated. Aspects of leisure can be found in work, school, and religion, as well as in volunteerism. Thus, the need to manage volunteers optimally for the sake of the individual volunteer is becoming more apparent.

## Considerations for Volunteer Management

Volunteers today, compared to volun-teers of the past, have an important com-bination of better skills, higher educa-tion, more experience, increased leisure, and a desire to use all of these capaci-ties. Certainly, the persons who super-vise these volunteers should also have better management skill, a broader educa-tion regarding people and society, and more understanding of the importance of volunteerism and leisure. Many profes-sional degree programs are beginning to design course work which includes volun-teer administration. (Schwartz, 1978) Most curriculums in leisure studies are designed to train and educate profession-als to be supervisors, managers, and ad-ministrators. Personnel administration courses or units may or may not include volunteers. More emphasis is needed on "how to work with volunteers" as an aspect of the professional education program and as a part of the continuing professional education program of all human service professions, especially the leisure service fields.

If a college or university offers a major in volunteer administration, then students in various helping professions can take advantage of some course work that relates directly to volunteer ad-ministration. In colleges and univer-sities where no formal major exists, there are two alternatives. Volunteer administration could be handled as an integral aspect of personnel management within a specific course such as park administration; or a separate course could be developed for persons interested in specifically exploring volunteer man-agement, such as a course entitled "Vol-unteer Programs in Leisure Services." (Henderson, 1978-1979) Whichever ap-proach is taken, volunteerism and volun-teer management is an aspect of human services that is here to stay. Leisure service, as well as other social service areas, must develop curriculum which in-corporate volunteers as one integral part of their philosophy and organiza-tion.

Marlene Wilson stated, "A good man-ager is an enabler of human resources." (Wilson, 1976) Whether a professional works with paid staff or with volunteers, that individual is a manager. A manager is someone who works with and through others to reach organizational goals.

Managers of volunteers have the same kind of tasks and responsibilities as do paid staff. Myths exist about volunteers which suggest that volunteers are much different than paid staff. Some people think you can't manage volunteers because you have no money with which to "bargain." Others think using volun-teers is like admitting inadequacy on the part of the professional. Some profes-sionals feel threatened by volunteers. These misconceptions and others can be discussed and dispelled if they are ad-dressed in preparation classes and planned experiences designed for persons who will be professional administrators involved with volunteers.

## Designing a Volunteer Management Course

Developing a course, a curriculum, a portion of a course, or a training session on volunteer management requires the consideration of several additional points. Tyler (1975) has suggested a method which may be helpful when applied to outlining a volunteer management pro-gram or course. Tyler assumes the educa-tional program should be based on the needs of the learners and the objectives are based on the organization of learning experiences. In addition, he suggests curriculum or program development is a step-wide process. The four questions Tyler says should be asked in curriculum development are: 1) what educational pur-poses (objectives) should be sought; 2) what educational experiences (course con-tent) are likely to attain these purposes; 3) how can these educational experiences be effectively organized (method of teach-ing); and 4) how can we determine whether these purposes are attained (evaluation). Based on these four steps in Tyler's model, aspects of volunteer management as a course or as a major component of a lei-sure service or human service curriculum will be discussed.

## 1. Objectives

The source of the objectives or the course purposes is based upon what the student or learner needs and is interested in, what is required in the field of volunteer management, societal problems, and the subject area itself. In this case, the learner is whomever the volunteer management program is addressing — either college recreation, park or leisure students or the professional who is seeking additional continuing professional education.

Objectives are the basis for organizing learning experiences. Objectives address what "should be" in the management of volunteers. These objectives can be very broad in nature or more narrowly defined. Some educators and teachers have the opportunity to work side by side with their learners or students to determine the particular needs of students. In other cases, the empirical knowledge available and previous experiences of the educator may provide the basis for determining which objectives should be sought. Choosing educational objectives relates to how the student should think, feel, act as a result of the learning. A list of broad objectives which apply to a volunteer management course might include the following:

The student will identify trends in the history and philosophy of volunteerism and relate these to the delivery of leisure services.

The student will apply management concepts to administration of volunteer services recreation and leisure service agencies.

The student will discuss and analyze techniques of recruiting, training, supervising, and evaluating volunteers.

The student will investigate methods of working with voluntary advisory boards and committees and the use of community resources.

The student will design volunteer job descriptions which can be used in leisure services.

The student will practice skills such as proposal writing, communication, and leadership techniques which are needed for effective and efficient volunteer management.

The student will develop problem-solving techniques as related to volunteer management.

The student will appreciate the role volunteers play in human and leisure service agencies.

In choosing objectives, the educator should ask the following questions: Can the objectives result from learning?; Are the objectives feasible?; Are the objectives or purposes educationally attainable?; Will there be opportunities to use this learning?; Are the objectives consistent?; Will the attainment of objectives result in new or changed behaviors? Analyzing the objectives is a way to assure that the objectives are going to relate to the needs identified and to the area of volunteer management.

## 2. Education Course Content

To a great extent, the volunteer management course content will be dependent upon the philosophy of learning. Generally, there are two kinds of learning: training and education. Training is the kind of learning in which the total pattern is given and learner follows exactly that which is taught. In future situations, the same learned pattern is used. Education, on the other hand, is the emphasis on trying to teach problem solving and alternative ways of thinking. Education extends beyond the time something is taught. Education emphasizes that learning is dynamic and not just repeated patterns. In general, the learning needed for volunteer administration can be a combination of both education and training emphasis. Aspects of administrative procedures and some specific techniques taught are considered training elements. The skills needed for human services require problem-solving skills which encompass the realm of education.

Any kind of learning takes place only when an individual learner or student relates to an experience. The course content of volunteer management should include opportunities to explore skills, knowledges, values or attitudes, and concepts.

Examples of topics which might be explored in a core volunteer management course might include:

1. What is volunteerism?
2. Trends/history of volunteers
3. Volunteerism and leisure
4. Volunteerism and the women's movement
5. Voluntary Action Centers and other volunteer and community organizations
6. Roles of volunteer coordinators/managers
7. Goal setting/objective writing
8. Organizational behavior
9. Needs assessment
10. Using job descriptions
11. Recruiting volunteers
12. Placing volunteers

13. Motivating volunteers
14. Supervising volunteers
15. Orientating and training volunteers
16. Communication
17. Legal aspects of volunteerism
18. Group processes
19. Problem solving
20. Rewarding/recognizing volunteers
21. Working with paid and unpaid staff
22. Volunteers in leisure activities
23. Proposal writing
24. Volunteer boards and committees
25. Evaluating volunteer programs
26. Record keeping
27. The future of volunteerism

These learning experiences should evoke the desired behavior (i.e., better volunteer management), give the learner an active involvement, deal with the content of volunteer management, and give the learner an opportunity for achievement and satisfaction.

### 3. Organizing Educational Methods

The course content is of little benefit until it is organized into directed learning experiences. This involves the development of specific and general methods for teaching and learning. The criteria for this organization is integrated, sequenced experiences. An example of a specific sequential learning experience would be having students read about leadership styles, discuss these in class, role play the styler, and, finally, have students write a reaction to their own analysis of a personal leadership style.

In addition to the traditional educational approaches of reading written materials, lectures, tests and class discussions, there are a number of educational methods which may be used in a volunteer management course. These include:

Guest speakers who are volunteer coordinators/managers.

Students actually volunteering in the community in conjunction with the class.

Students interviewing human or leisure service professionals in the community in regard to the volunteer manager's roles.

Writing a volunteer handbook or manual as an individual or group project.

Role play interviewing/orienting sessions in class.

Using case studies for problem solving discussions.

Each student write a case study of a situation which might happen in volunteer management.

Write and/or analyze volunteer job descriptions.

Analyze personal communication skills via a short paper.

Write a grant proposal (as a group or individual) for funding a volunteer program in an agency — include statement of the problem, objectives, plans, budget, method of evaluation.

Write a program proposal for using volunteers in a human leisure service agency (include philosophy of volunteering, objectives, recruitment techniques, job description, a training plan, record-keeping system, evaluation techniques).

Design a recruitment brochure or poster.

Develop 100 ways to recognize and reward volunteers.

Visit a human or leisure service agency and analyze their board and/or committee structure.

Analyze the component of effective training by attending volunteer training meetings.

Students write a written evaluation of their potential as volunteer coordinators.

Because volunteer management involves both broad and specific skills, the methods used in the course should provide opportunities for broadening and deepening the subject matter. These experiences should provide both specific and general information and address both real and abstract concepts. A variety of methods are necessary because managing volunteer experiences requires an interdisciplinary approach with a variety of skills and expertise required.

### 4. Evaluation

The last aspect in the course development is evaluation. Evaluation is the process of determining the value or worth of something relative to the given purposes or objectives. Evaluation generally includes examining the behavior changes using some kind of collection method, relating the changes to the stated objectives, and making judgments about the overall value of the course.

Evaluation methods might include knowledge tests, evaluation of specific skills, observation of skills, noted attitude changes, or by written or oral evaluation of specific individual and class projects.

## Summary

Volunteer programs in leisure service agencies, as well as in other human services, can extend, enhance, and expand current services. In addition, when volunteers are humanistically managed, the volunteering itself becomes more rewarding and important to the individual. Volunteering can provide a meaningful use of leisure. Loeser stated, "There is a real danger that people will fritter away the new time of the mechanics of living, on busy work, on activities that waste time without increasing the happiness of either the individual or the group in society." (Loeser, 1974) Volunteer managers in any human service have the responsibility of facilitating volunteers to increase the happiness of the individual and the society. Good volunteer management developed through a leisure service curriculum can provide for the growth of individuals as well as organizations.

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