VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

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Higher Education Programs

For Administrators Of Volunteers

by J. Malcolm Walker and
David Horton Smith

Since 1971 a number of groups have made recommendations as to the appropriate content of educational programs for voluntary action leaders, particularly volunteer program administrators. A few surveys have been conducted to identify the educational needs as perceived by such leaders.[1] However, we have had little systematic information about actual higher education programs themselves in this area, and too little sharing of such information. A sufficient number of colleges and universities now offer educational courses, workshops, or even programs (two or more different courses) in volunteer administration to provide at least some empirical basis for educational program recommendations in regard to existing programs or the implementation of new ones.

We report here the results of a very modest unfunded pilot research project designed to assess recent experiences with programs (not single courses) in volunteer administration in American institutions of higher education. *More specifically, our study is designed to assess: (1) progress in the development of such programs; (2)*

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strategies and processes of program initiation; (3) the content of such programs; and (4) factors that influence the success or failure of these programs.

Methodology

The institutions surveyed constitute a very special kind of purposive sample, divided into two parts. In essence, we studied what might be termed a "reputational sample" of institutions, in the sense that we chose each institution for our study on the basis of recommendations by a panel of knowledgeable experts in the field. One part of the sample consists (for practical reasons as well as historical ones) of 10 institutions in California drawn in this manner, while the other part of the sample was drawn from the rest of the nation.

In consulting with our panel of experts, we drew also on three national surveys of higher education opportunities for volunteer administrators: (1) a 1974 survey by the National Information Center on Volunteerism;[2] (2) a 1976 follow-up to the NICOV survey by S. Jane Rehnborg (unpublished); and (3) a 1976 survey of about 300 faculty members and voluntary action leaders conducted by the Research Task Force of the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars (which included information on course offerings in the field of voluntary action). The Rehnborg survey data were particularly important in our selection of the non-California portion of the sample.

The unpublished survey by Rehnborg deserves special comment here because it sheds some interesting light on the degree of turnover of higher education courses for volunteer administrators. Based on the list of institutions offering some kind of course (possibly only a workshop or institute) in the field, as indicated by the NICOV national survey in 1974, Rehnborg sent out 95 letters in August-September 1976 to the places listed asking about certification programs, workshops, etc. Replies were received eventually from about 60% of the institutions. Of these responding institutions, many had no courses or programs. It was clear that a large proportion of the institutions that had offered courses in 1974 were no longer doing so in 1976. However, some institutions still had their original courses or even additional ones, and new institutions had begun to offer such courses in the interim.

The appropriate conclusion from the Rehnborg study is that <u>turnover is very high in higher education courses for volunteer administrators.</u> They are frequently present one year and gone the next. This is the background in terms of which the present study of programs (defined as two or more higher education courses) of higher education for volunteer administrators must be understood. It also explains why we used the particular smapling method we did. We wanted to be sure that we were able to get information on at least 20 programs so that modest generalization might be attempted. So far as we can tell, we have studied a substantial portion of all <u>programs</u> existing in the United States or that have existed, though only a much small fraction of all <u>courses.</u>

Data were gathered for our study, then, in April and May of 1977 with one or more respondents at each of 20 institutions of higher education, 10 from California and another 10 from eight other states around the country (Washington, New York, Massachusetts, Colorado, Maryland, Illinois, Delaware and Ohio). For the full sample, there were as many community (two-year) colleges as there were four-year colleges and universities. However the California sample had 8 community colleges out of 10 institutions, while the national sample had just the reverse proportion. This probably reflects the "historical" factor alluded to earlier: the chancellor's Office of the California Community College system helped support and sponsor a study group that designed a community college curriculum in volunteer administration a few years ago.[3] That curriculum and its design process has served as a major stimulus to the formation of programs in

California institutions at the level studied.

The interviews conducted were, with only a couple of exceptions, made by telephone, using a semi-structured (focused) interview schedule created by the authors. Some screening had to be done with potential respondent institutions, in order to verify the existence, prior existence, or proposed existence of two or more different college level courses in volunteer administration. At some institutions, there were, are, or will be programs in related areas (e.g., in non-profit organization management, in voluntary association administration, in fund-raising management, in community services technology, etc.), but these were screened out of our sample.

Also, at many institutions there are various courses offering college credit for off-campus internships or volunteer work in community organizations, usually in conjunction with a periodic discussion of the off-campus experience at a seminar on-campus, and often with the requirement of a term paper or report on the off-campus experience. These programs were also screened out of our sample. Finally, there were educational activities called or thought to be programs by our panel of experts but which turned out to be single courses, occasional usages of independent study programs for volunteer administration degrees, or brief workshops. These too were generally left out of our sample (with the exception of two systematic workshop series that led to Certificates, with each brief one-day workshop called a "course").[4]

As a result of our survey, our final sample of 20 institutions was divided into four categories:

I. *Institutions which are conducting an on-going program in volunteer administration, with program being defined as a set of two or more different courses, completion of which results in a degree or in a certificate of completion or proficiency (which may itself partially satisfy requirements for a degree).*

II. *Institutions which offer at least one course in volunteer administration and either (a) are in the process of developing or of implementing (but not yet offering) a program; or (b) will definitely be offering a least two courses in the immediate future.*

III. *Institutions which have considered implementing a program, but have decided not to do so.*

IV. *Institutions which have offered a program but no longer do so.*

We define as successful, for present purposes, institutions in Category I (providing the programs are not about to be phased out), and in Category II. There are 13 institutions of this sort in our sample. The remaining 7 are unsuccessful by the above definition, about evenly divided between Categories III and IV. The 13 successful institutions are also about evenly divided between the two Categories involved (7 in I; 6 in II).

Overall Progress

Out data point up a number of aspects of the general progress made to date in higher education for volunteer administrators. To begin with, the field is obviously quite new in higher education. Most programs have been implemented or initiated (and sometimes rejected) in the past three years. Only 3 of the 20 programs were begun before 1970, all in the late 1960s. *We are in a period of considerable activity both in terms of new programs and expansion (in content and number of students) of existing programs.*

But progress seems to be very uneven. Programs in some institutions are in a no-growth state or have been (or are about to be) withdrawn. Some other institutions have decided not to implement programs after quite intensive investigation involving interaction with the volunteer community and needs identification surveys, with careful consideration by the institution's administration. However, most respondents at such institutions indicate that the decision not to go ahead is not a permanent one, but is subject to future review. Institutions are reluctant to take any risks on new programs in these times of general retrenchment in higher education, and programs for volunteer administrator education are often met with a hard-nosed fiscal scrutiny by higher education administrators.

There is general reluctance by higher education institutions to go ahead with such programs unless (a) a very substantial need can be demonstrated locally, thus guaranteeing the fiscal solvency of the new endeavor; or (b) the program can be begun at virtually no financial risk to the institution (or with that appearance, at least).

As suggested earlier, there is considerable variation with respect to the type of institution offering programs, including

two-year community colleges, four-year colleges with a few Masters Degree programs, and full universities offering Doctoral Degrees in various departments and professional schools. In California, perhaps for the special historical reasons described earlier, most programs and especially the successful ones are in community colleges. Elsewhere in the nation, this pattern does not hold, with successful programs being found as frequently in four-year colleges or universities as in two-year colleges. Not surprisingly, volunteer administration programs tend to be concentrated in higher education institutions in or near major population centers (metropolitan areas), where concentrations of volunteer programs and volunteer administrators can likewise be found.

Programs vary moderately in their breadth of content, though there is some core of common skills and knowledge found in most. There is considerably more variation in how the programs are organized and structured (hours of attendance required, pattern of course sessions, etc.). Outcomes also differ substantially among the programs studied. Some programs offer a Certificate for attendance at six one-day workshops (called "courses"), and one offered a Certificate for attendance at 12 two-hour workshops (it is now defunct). Other programs give their Certificate of satisfactory completion of one or two regular college level courses, while some require satisfactory completion of many more courses. One community college requires 50 quarter hours of credit in courses related to volunteer administration before awarding the Certificate. And a few institutions have volunteer administration as a specialization or major as part of a Masters Degree program in an allied field (e.g., Rehabilitation Administration, Planning and Administration).

Yet, when one considers both the current state of existing programs and trends in the development of these programs, the norm in the short run at least appears to be granting a Certificate for a rather modest amount of college work. Masters degree programs that have any specialization in volunteer administration are quite rare (only two in our sample).

Perhaps the most appropriate perspective from which to view the field of higher education in volunteer administration is as a field in process. On the basis of earlier analyses of developments in the field and our present findings, we would predict a general though probably

*gradual expandion of the field in the next
five years or so. After that, the pace
may quicken.*

A surprisingly significant number of
institutions seem to have implemented or
at least have considered implementing
programs. And the awareness of volunteer-
ism, voluntarism, and the voluntary sector
even among the latter institutions has
grown markedly in the past five years. We
can expect these trends to be reinforced by
the growing societal significance of vol-
untarism, combined with the increasing
pressure from certain voluntary organi-
zations for more and better education for
volunteer administrators (e.g., from the
Association for the Administration of
Volunteer Services, and from the Alliance
for Volunteerism).

It would be an error, then, to assess
the state of the field simply by examining
educational programs as they currently
exist. Rather, one must assess as well
what is being developed in the field, seek
to learn what works and what does not, and
try to understand why. Such an approach
can be expected to provide some guidelines
for the development of specific programs
and for the general development of the field
as well. Our findings throw some light on
these issues.

Program Initiation, Development and Implementation

Our findings indicate rather clearly
that program success, as defined earlier,
requires generally that the initiation,
development and implementation states of a
program be integrated. The most significant
factor in program success seems to be the
active, persistent, and continuing committed
involvement of one individual or a small
group of individuals, involved themselves
in or deeply concerned with the practice of
volunteer administration. Most of the
successful programs have been initiated,
developed, and implemented by such persons.
In some cases, such persons have only been
active in the initiation and development
phases with implementation begun, and then
subsequently carried out by someone else,
but this is not common among successful
programs. Most decisions not to implement
programs after serious consideration have
been made in institutions where such persons
have not been involved. Our interviews
indicate that the number of such persons is
increasing, which augurs well for the future
of the type of educational programs we are
studying.

*Several additional factors in turn
explain the critical importance of active,
committed, persistent practitioner involve-
ment. First, from the perspective of the
volunteerism field, there must be linkages*

*from educational ideas and proposals
developed by national organizations or
national leaders to implementation at the
local levels. Programs at specific
institutions are often legitimated by
local practitioner-activists by referring
to national developments--plans, books,
articles, curricula, conferences, etc.
This suggests the importance of the role
of such national organizations and leaders
in the continuing growth of voluntarism,
and particularly in the growth of higher
education programs in the field.*

At the local level, volunteer admin-
istration professional groups (formal or
informal) may often fail to act for a
variety of reasons even having discussed
their needs for higher educational programs
in volunteer administration: lack of time,
uncertainty as to how to act, insecurity
in the fact of "the higher education
establishment," discouragement at the
failure of initial contacts, doubts as to
the viability of such a program at a
local college or university, inability to
find someone on the "inside" of a local
institution who really seems to care.
For a practitioner to teach in a program
himself or herself, an advanced degree or
teaching credential may be required.

Considerable persistence and no little
sophistication is needed in dealing with
the bureaucratic procedures and internal
politics in most colleges and universities.
As most of our respondents stress, the
many complexities of program development
and implementation in higher education
institutions are not readily apparent to
"outsiders" (or even to many insiders),
and are difficult to deal with. Much
trial and error learning is usually re-
quired, and this takes the persistence we
referred to earlier. Most college adminis-
trators and faculty members have only a
rudimentary understanding of the field of
volunteerism, if any, and lack of an
awareness of its general role in our
society.

Higher education in volunteer ad-
ministration has no immediately obvious
"natural home" or power base in the insti-
tutional structure. (One of our respon-
dents commented that it took her six months
"to figure out who to deal with"). Few
institutions, indeed virtually none, pro-
vide much in the way of "start up" program
development expenses beyond in-kind contri-
butions of administrator of faculty time
and available space, classrooms or other
facilities. In those rare instances where
there have been development funds, they
have come from outside grants, usually
from a private foundation.

Beyond the crucial role of the key,
persistent, practitioner-activist in

bringing about most successful programs, our findings also suggest that successful programs are characterized by careful attention to the following factors:

(1) *Become involved with an institution that is innovative, flexible (at least in some of its internal divisions), and willing to take some modest risks* if they seem likely to have positive results in new and needed higher education programs.

(2) *Develop very early an understanding of the institution's financial system, especially budgetary implications and accountability requirements.* Virtually without exception, new programs are required to "pay for themselves" from tuition and fees from the very beginning (except when outside grant funds are available, and then the exception is only temporary--as long as the grant lasts.)

(3) *Develop very early an understanding of the institution's policies and procedures governing program implementation and development.* Learn the internal "ropes" and barriers, and how things have to be done if they are to be ultimately approved.

(4) *Identify and work directly and continuously with whomever has the authority to approve programs of the sort you want, or, more usually, with someone in the institution who has the authority and personal interest to move them through the often complex internal approval structure.* This is sometimes an administrator, sometimes a faculty member, sometimes someone who is both. Approval is facilitated if one works with an administrator who has the existing authority given his/her particular role and the nature of his/her unit in the larger institution, to approve and set up the program in the given unit with little or no clearance from other members of the higher administration. This situation is, however, rather rare. The best examples are perhaps Divisions of Continuing Education or the equivalent, which have a very broad existing mandate.

(5) *Pay careful attention to the appropriate structural location of the program within the institution.* There are variations among successful programs in this respect, though most tend to locate in the most innovative unit they can find on a particular campus. The most frequent locations of successful programs are in Continuing Edcuation, Human/Public/Social/Community Services, or in Business/Management Schools

or Divisions of the institution. However successful programs are found occasionally in other units (e.g., Rehabilitation).

(6) *Deal with the program's implications for related departments, schools, and divisions of the institution, especially trying to counteract fears as to possible resource reallocation away from those bases/units to the new program, and corresponding fears of intrusion on their curriculum "domain."* Timing is also important in this area. A volunteer administration program is more likely to be rejected when it is initiated at a time when related programs are being phased out (as happened in one of our unsuccessful cases). It may be prudent to wait a year or two at such times in order to achieve ultimate success. Informal relations in maintaining continual interest and pressure are especially important here, as are efforts to integrate curricula and to include other units or faculty in the program where they push for it.

(7) *Share experiences on a statewide or regional basis with others seeking to initiate, develop, or maintain higher education programs for volunteer administrators.* The California Community Colleges example mentioned earlier indicates that some substantial leverage can be obtained through statewide higher education coordinating units, especially when they contain representatives of institutions as well as practitioners. Given the nationwide trend toward developing statewide and regional coordinating boards or agencies, this source of leverage should become increasingly significant in the future. These entities help to build a power base for volunteerism in their areas, and can develop coordinated action plans to deal with educational bureaucracies that are more effective than plans coming from a single source to a single institution.

(8) *It is advantageous if the key practitioner-activist has his/her principal employment in the college or university, or can at least obtain "Adjunct" or similar faculty status* (which usually is dependent on the academic degrees held by such a person, a Masters Degree in something being almost mandatory). Such a person can, through long and intensive involvement within the institution, more effectively understand internal processes (formal and informal, unwritten ones) and learn

how to deal with them. Otherwise, the key person must be able to develop, or have already, a close relationship to a willing faculty member or administrator currently on the staff of the institution. One cannot change or fight the system regarding a new program without effective internal leverage.

(9) *However, if the faculty member or administrator in the institution is not active and experienced in voluntary action leadership himself/herself, the chances of success are diminished when such persons are the initiators or internal collaborators.* They are much less likely to have the emotional commitments and cognitive insights of voluntary sector activists, and much more likely to be conscious of more immediate priorities associated with clearer and faster payoffs (e.g., pay increments, tenure, promotion). We have a few cases in our sample where programs have been implemented by such "internal" people in response to outside requests from volunteer agency leaders. But more often than not, this approach leads to a rejection decision, to lack of persistent development follow-through in the first place, or to a program that, once started, fails for lack of sufficient relevance to practitioner needs.

(10) *If a college is responding to outside requests and pressure mainly, then such pressure is likely to be most successful when backed by a powerful and prominent local voluntary action coordinating group* (e.g., a local Voluntary Action Center, or a local council of leaders of volunteer programs or human service agencies). The availability of a convincing "market survey" or "needs identification survey" can help, as we shall note in a moment, *but the key is the degree to which the institution can be convinced that there are a sufficient number of people who will definitely take the program if offered.* The latter point was effectively dealt with by one group of practitioner-initiators by collecting firm commitments to pre-register in the program and then approaching the target institution for help in setting up the program they had in mind. In any case, where the real "market" or "need" for the program is misjudged seriously by the practitioners, the program is likely to fail fairly quickly for lack of sufficient enrollment. Real and continuing demand for the program is absolutely necessary in the catchment area (territory served) by the program over time if the program is to be successful and endure.

(11) *Do not assume that a needs identification survey or market survey will speak for itself to institution administrators.* Such surveys, whether informal or formal (and our study showed both kinds are frequent), are typically made using mailing lists pro-

vided by local Voluntary Action Centers or other coordinating bodies for local volunteer program and agencies. They usually attempt to assess the content and skills needed by potential program participants, the degree of student demand, relations to career opportunities, desirable program format, and appropriate timing, location, fees and outcomes. *But the key factor appears to be not the findings themselves, rather it is how these findings are interpreted and by whom.* College and university administrators not involved in voluntary action leadership tend to interpret findings in terms of what they show about full-time, paid career opportunities for volunteer administrators. Needless to say, findings interpreted in such terms do not provide much of a basis for enthusiastic support of college credit programs for volunteer administrators. This leads us directly to our next point.

(12) *Base your program, and interpret your "market survey," on a very broad definition of potential student clientele which includes not only paid staff, career-oriented coordinators or directors of volunteers,* but also volunteer staff in similar roles, students wishing to enter the field as a career or as volunteers, current volunteers who would like to become leaders (coordinators, directors, etc.), human service professionals who work in agencies with volunteer programs, human service professionals who work with volunteers in community contexts, students in professional schools or divisions, grassroots activitsts, voluntary association leaders, and citizens interested in voluntarism generally. Few programs can be developed and sustained in the long run with a clientele defined solely as paid, career volunteer administrators. Other narrow definitions also lead to failure (e.g., members of boards of trustees/directors of voluntary organizations).

(13) *The formation and use of an Advisory Board is not crucial to success, although a continuing involvement on some level with the local volunteer leadership community does seem to be quite important.* Such Advisory Boards are used about half the time, but sometimes the Education/ Training Committee of the local Voluntary Action Center or some other existing body is used by the program as its Advisory Board informally. These Advisory Boards, of whatever kind, tend to be effective when: (a) the key educational program person(s) is/are heavily involved in the local volunteer community and active on and with the Board; and (b) when the Board is a genuine working Board involved meaningfully in program development, publicizing the program to bring in participants, and working with the college

personnel in an on-going manner to evaluate and reshape the program from year to year in light of the feedback.

(14) *Finally, our data indicate that one should get something small going well, if possible, and then expand that course or set of workshops into a full-fledged program.* The "foot in the door" technique works as well in academia as anywhere else. Our survey shows that successful programs have developed from such varied bases as convention "institutes," workshops, student internship (off-campus service) programs, single course offerings, and courses with volunteer administration components in various related departments. Such initial efforts have provided both curriculum foundations, interested faculty, and concrete evidence of the existence of a varied student clientele for expanded programs in volunteer administration. It is rare for whole programs to begin starting from "scratch," so to speak, without some prior base.

Program Content and Evaluation

Programs vary considerably in terms of the number of credit hours required, as mentioned earlier. They also vary moderately in the breadth of the subject matter content involved. The objectives of all programs center round improving the practical effectiveness of volunteerism, broadly defined. Most emphasize both effective management of volunteer programs and either social services administration or social change through volunteerism, although programs differ with respect to the mix of these two thrusts. The critical determinant seems to be the personal philosophies of the individuals running the programs.

Most programs are grounded in the notion that knowledge and skills are transferable among the various program areas of volunteer administration. Most respondents view management and human services as the core disciplines in their body of knowledge and skills. Most programs aim to raise students' awareness of the importance of volunteerism, and the self-images of volunteers and of volunteer administrators. The development of specific practical skills is viewed as fundamental in all programs. Our respondents report that experienced volunteer administrators show a consistently strong preference for skills-oriented content, especially when management-oriented (budgeting, use of time, fund-raising, mobilizing boards, recruiting volunteers, etc.). They wish to get "tools" with which to solve their day-to-day problems.

Several of our respondents insist,

despite resistance from experienced students, that participants be exposed to conceptual material (e.g., management models and styles, community organization theorty, group dynamics theory, political organization theory). Such respondents view the broadening of students' basic knowledge and understanding as a distinctive component of higher education programs. In pro-programs with a broad student clientele, more emphasis is placed on the nature of volunteerism its societal significance, and the nature of one's community. Respondents emphasize that for all students the subject matter content must be grounded in the realities of the particular local community.

With respect to learning methods, credit for work experience or for independent study is rare, except where the latter is the central learning mode of the program in a few instances. Some programs included a practicum, in most cases through a student volunteer program or internship placement. However, in almost all programs the emphasis is placed primarily on in-class work and learning. There, cognitive-rational content and its associated lecture approach is used in conjunction with experiential-skill practice content and its student participation approach. Most of our respondents indicate that they use, and that the students favor, such activities as problem solving, developing check-lists and manuals of practice, sharing practical problems and experiences, outside projects, agency visits, and other forms of skill-practice or experiential learning. The lecture approach seems to be used more with students new to volunteerism and who are in the early stages of their program.

Teaching is done almost entirely by full-time voluntary action practitioners or by college personnel who are very active in the volunteer community, except in the two rare instances of Master's Degree programs. In all the successful programs these teachers have a high degree of control over program content and learning methods. Most of the successful programs use a modular approach, with the larger programs containing modules covering a wide variety of topics. Many of our respondents indicate that participants tend to resist weekly two-to-three hour courses. We have some evidence that suggests such a format inhibits program growth. Almost all of our respondents indicate that subject matter content and learning methods must be geared to the types of students who enroll.

Most of our respondents feel that the material generally available in the volunteerism field is not adequate for course content development and for use in teaching their programs. The most widely used of existing source materials seem to be those developed by the University of Colorado at Boulder program, by NCVA, and by NICOV, along with books by Naylor, Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt, and Wilson.[5] Our teacher respondents rely quite heavily on material that they have developed in their own volunteer administration work and educational experience. There is a need for short, basic texts related to skill-practice for most of the content areas of teaching in this field.

Perhaps because most programs are quite new, rigorous and long-term program evaluation is very rare. Most programs are evaluated only crudely in the light of drop-out rates, enrollment trends, student evaluation feedback immediately after course completion, and general feedback from the local volunteer leadership community. Several programs have been substantially revised in the light of such information, especially more successful ones, but other programs change little as a result of such evaluation. Few data have been accumulated with respect to impact on subsequent job performance and employment opportunities. Only impressions and anecdotes are offered as evidence here.

Drop-out rates are low in successful programs but often hard to determine where the program is new and uses a modular approach not requiring completion of the program within any fixed time period. Respondents indicate that teacher performance is the most critical factor in explaining student satisfaction or drop-outs. Other important factors include failure of participants to be offered the specific skills they want, moving from the locality, leaving the volunteerism field, inability to adjust to a higher education learning context many years after leaving it, or personal tensions that develop in social change components of some programs.

Some Further Implications

While education in volunteer administration at the college level is quite new, much is happening. The field is expanding and is characterized by much change. It has not yet had a major impact in higher education, but the foundations are being laid. Much can be learned from this on-going series of developments, as we have tried to show in this article. No one approach can be characterized as optimal, and the diversity within the voluntary sector is reflected in program diversity within higher education institutions. Individual program success depends upon a careful meshing of clientele, program content, instructors, program administration, approaches to learning, and the presence of one or more key practitioner-activist able to integrate this package with the mission of a specific institution of higher education.

As a field in process, we expect great diversity to characterize higher education for volunteer administrators for a considerable time into the future. Overall development of the field needs to be monitored, and information shared at the national level. There is a need for more leadership (based on objective study and analysis of on-going experience) at the national level in generating guidelines and encouraging action at the community level. Ideas and activity need to be coordinated at state and regional levels as well, especially in helping to get programs developed and implemented, to facilitate collaboration among institutions (we have found examples of destructive competition among institutions in a locality), and to encourage movement of programs into some universities once a solid base has been established in community or four-year colleges.

The higher education experience has general implications for the professionalization of the field of volunteer administration. It is clear form the history of professionalization in other field that this process is ultimately grounded in advances in higher education. Hence, the expansion of higher education programs for volunteer administrators augurs well for professionalization (in the sense of high competence and specialized knowledge and skills) in this field. Practitioners and activists have substantial control over setting up programs and teaching in them.

Yet there are some important complications. We are unable to justify a knowledge base currently adequate for a re relatively independent profession. Many educational programs are not oriented exclusively or even primarily to career-oriented volunteer administrators. To be successful, most programs must cater to a much broader clientele. However, this implies that such programs will be unable to satisfy the perceived needs of professionally oriented career volunteer administrators.

The experience of other occupational groups indicates that professionalization

is facilitated by locating educational programs in universities rather than in two-year institutions, and that the outcome should be a degree, preferably a higher degree. Our data indicate that such programs are unlikely to be widespread in the foreseeable future. Therefore, the best strategy for groups committed to a professionalization of volunteer administration as a career would appear to be to: (a) encourage regional institutions offering degrees through innovative delivery systems, including external degree programs, for experienced persons; and, (b) encourage universities in or near very large population centers to offer degree programs, especially at the Master's Degree level.

We are troubled by the weakness of the knowledge base underlying educational programs in volunteer administration. In particular, while management and human service administration are widely viewed as the core disciplines involved in program content, there exists very little scientific knowledge about volunteer program management either in terms of theory or empirical research. The great bulk of what is taught in the programs we have considered is either based on accumulated practical experience whose transferability to other contexts by other persons is untested, or else on the adaptation of accumulated knowledge and principles from other areas of management and administration without validation in the volunteer administration context.

Universities with advanced educational research programs should assume a much greater role in conducting and stimulating research into volunteer administration. At present, this is a sadly missing component in the total American educational enterprise. Thirty years ago, in the face of the inadequacy of the knowledge base underlying university education in business administration and management, two national studies were conducted. These led to the transformation of that knowledge base and of higher education in business management itself. It may well be time for a similar move to advance higher education for volunteer administration.

Finally, we need substantial research into the nature of training and education for volunteer administration itself. There is too little systematic sharing of on-going experience, and a dearth of careful empirical and comparative studies. Also recommendations and proposals for educational programs in this field are generated usually without adequate understanding of actual program experience elsewhere. It would be useful to have carefully developed, widely disseminated case studies of present and

past higher-educational programs in volunteer administration. Our own pilot study is not substitute for the latter. And given that the higher education situation is changing in America so rapidly, an extensively, well-funded, comparative research study of higher education for volunteer administration would be very valuable if conducted over a several year period beginning in a year or two.

Notes

1. *These are reviewed in David Horton Smith's, "Research," Voluntary Action Leadership, Spring-Summer, 1976, pp. 12-15.*

2. *National Information Center on Volunteerism, "Educational Opportunities for Volunteer Leaders," Voluntary Action Leadership, Spring-Summer, 1976, pp. 23-25.*

3. *California Community Colleges, Volunteer Program Management: A Suggested Community College Curriculum, Sacramento, Chancellor's Office, 1974.*

4. *This study does not cover, either, those institutions which offer various courses in one or more departments or professional schools that include material on some aspects of voluntary action. Such courses in community organization, voluntary associations, interest groups, etc. are quite numerous but do not constitute volunteer administration programs in the sense we have defined them.*

5. *Harriet Naylor, Volunteers Today: Finding, Training and Working With Them, New York, Dryden, 1973; Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ronald Lippitt, The Volunteer Community: Creative Use of Human Resources, Washington, D.C., Center for a' Voluntary Society, 1971; Marlene Wilson, The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs, Boulder,' Volunteer Management Associates, 1976.*

THE DOLL HOUSE:

An Adventure in Staff/Volunteer Cooperation

By Judith H. Cox

Although volunteering has a long and honorable history, and although the profession of the Director of Volunteer Services has been "emerging" for some time, there is still a tendency in too many agencies to view the volunteer aspect of planning as an add-on, bandaid type of service. Administrators make plans, set short and long-term goals, define objectives and then say, "Now, if we can find some really qualified volunteers . . ."

The miracle is that so many of these bandaid programs work as well as they do. However, by involving both staff and volunteer components in the initial planning, "miracles" turn out to be dependable, successful management procedures, with results that more than justify the time and effort spent in co-planning.

Recently, Goodwill Industries of Akron Inc. has been able to implement such a mutually planned project. Arising from a genuine staff need and embracing an area already using volunteers, a totally new program has been developed.

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Since 1957, Goodwill of Akron has been involved in "Dolly Derby"*, a special project in cooperation with the local Girl Scout Council. The Girl Scouts take dolls received by Goodwill from community donations, design and sew outfits for them, then return the dolls to Goodwill for judging on the basis of design suitability and workmanship. This provides the Scouts with a service project while providing Goodwill with dressed dolls for sale at our retail outlets.

The growth of this project created several problem areas for our local Goodwill. Excessive staff time was required for the detail work involved in coordinating the local and national displays. Storage space for the dolls was filled to overflowing. The number of troop leaders and girls coming into the plant to select dolls, while not steady or ongoing, still interrupted work in process in the Public Relations Department.

The final straw was a series of fires which totally eliminated our available storage space. At that time our problems in maintaining "Dolly Derby" became critical. We were faced, basically, with three choices: (1) eliminate our involvement with dolls (2) try to maintain our doll program in a more limited form; or (3) make a radical change in our approach to handling the dolls.

* Registered Trade Mark

It is significant that a push for
change, rather than program elimination,
came initially from staff, and bubbled up
through the informal, over-the-coffee-cups
channel of communication. This meant that
the brainstorming effort flowed freely and
creatively, unhampered by such territorial
imperatives as who would be in charge, how
we would finance it, or where we would find
room for it.

Fortunately, over the years we had
developed a volunteer component in our
doll program. To implement the changes we
were suggesting meant that we would have
to lean even more heavily on volunteer
participation and volunteer leadership.
Consequently, we started at the beginning
to involve both volunteers and staff in
our planning.

To solve the critical shortage of stor-
age space, we knew we would have to move
the dolls quickly, and that we would no
longer be able to stockpile for "Dolly
Derby." Therefore, we needed some arrange-
ment that would: (1) relieve the crowding;
(2) make dolls more easily available to the
Scouts; and (3) ease the work load for the
Public Relations department.

Our basic idea was to set aside an area
in our main Goodwill store where a sales
boutique -- The Doll House -- would be con-
structed. This shop would handle the sale
of dolls, doll clothes, doll accessories,
as well as coordinate the distribution of
dolls for "Dolly Derby." Additionally, it
would supply space for the display of
"Dolly Derby" winners. We envisioned the
shop being manned totally by volunteers,
under the direction of a volunteer Project
Coordinator. Staff supervision would
reside with the Public Relations Supervisor,
under the general direction of the Direc-
tor of Volunteer Services.

Step one of the plan was to acquaint
the Executive Director with our rough
plans and seek his approval and support
for the project. Once this approval was
obtained, we set up our first formal meeting
bringing together all staff and volunteers
who would have a direct part in implement-
ing the project. Staff members represented
Accounting, Operations, Sales, Maintenance,
Public Relations and Volunteer Services.
The volunteers were represented by the two
experienced Doll Volunteers who would be
co-ordinators of the project.

By the end of this meeting, we had
developed:

   1) A floor plan for the shop;

   2) A financial projection of
       $6,000 in yearly sales to
       justify the floor space;

   3) The names of two retired car-
       penters who might volunteer to
       do the actual construction;

   4) A request to the Goodwill
       Auxiliary for seed money for
       materials;

   5) Specific assignments for each
       participant;

   6) A target date of eight weeks to
       opening;

   7) Additional enthusiasm for the
       project.

Since we intended to be action-
oriented, we moved directly from planning
to implementation, with each participant
carrying out his individual assignment.
Areas of concern were:

   1) Accounting--Set up a budget;
       oversee purchasing of necessary
       materials;

   2) Operations/Sales--See that the
       designated store area was
       cleared and made available;

   3) Maintenance-- Generally oversee
       construction; possibly release
       one employee to assist the
       volunteer carpenters;

   4) Public Relations-- Develop
       radio/TV media releases; assist
       in recruitment of new volunteers;

   5) Volunteer Services-- Approach the
       Goodwill Auxiliary for seed
       money; develop job descriptions;
       plan and implement recruitment;
       develop a training program;
       establish (with Operations)
       overall policy;

   6) Doll Volunteers-- Line up vol-
       unteer carpenters (family members
       of one of the volunteers); assist
       with job descriptions; physical
       preparation of dolls for sale.

Although the Doll House was not
designed as a project for our Auxiliary,
it was felt to be beneficial to involve
Auxiliary membership as early as possible
in the process. We wanted to reassure them
that the new sales boutique would not
interfere with their established Gift

Shop, also located in the main store. Rather, we hoped that The Doll House and the Gift Shop would benefit mutually through an increase in customers. Nor would The Doll House be competing with the Auxiliary for the same volunteers. Primarily we would be reaching out for new volunteers, but this would in no way preclude these new volunteers from potential membership in the Auxiliary.

Actual construction started as soon as the selected store area was cleared. The shop, built by two volunteer carpenters assisted by one maintenance employee, incorporated pecan paneling, a thatched roof, and large display window. Inside, the walls were lined with shelves. Two showcases provided display and protection for the dolls, and a large bin in the center was set aside for smaller, less expensive items.

A public relations program began with radio spots and posters asking for volunteers. An article written by one of the volunteers was published in a local weekly paper. Feature articles appeared the the Akron Beacon Journal about both "Dolly Derby" and the Doll House. We were fortunate during this period to have national celebrities Nanette Fabray and Phyllis Diller, visit our Goodwill and The Doll House. The resulting TV coverage brought our need for volunteers before the public in a very positive manner.

With the help of our "Doll Vols," we drew up job descriptions for persons doing doll preparation, doll dressing, and doll sales, as well as for the position of Project Coordinator. These volunteers also had great imput into establishing the "do's" and don'ts" for sales volunteers. Volunteers have continued to work with the Director of Volunteer Services in the recruitment process. Their enthusiasm for the dolls and for the project has been directly instrumental in bringing new volunteers into the program.

Although the primary emphasis in the boutique is on doll sales, The Doll House volunteers worked cooperatively with the Auxiliary in manning the All-American "Dolly Derby" display at an Akron shopping mall. For the first time in the history of "Dolly Derby" it was not necessary for the Public Relations supervisor to use members of her paid staff to cover the activities at the mall, with the result that ongoing projects and day-to-day assignments were not interrupted or brought to a standstill by "Dolly Derby." This savings in staff time and effort was due solely to the cooperative efforts of both new and experienced volunteers.

To our delight, we were able to adhere closely to our time schedule, opening The Doll House just one week beyond our original projection. The shop is currently manned twenty-four hours per week. Gross income has exceeded expectations. Although it is far too soon to predict a yearly sales figure, we are running well ahead of the $1,500 per quarter ($6,000 per year) break-even figure we had originally set.

To help insure ongoing success, staff and volunteers are continuing to work closely together. Doll Project meetings are held monthly with all volunteers and any interested staff member invited to attend. Through these regular sessions, problem areas or interpersonal frictions can be brought into the open and resolved before they create difficulties which might jeopardize the overall project. Too, as we gain experience, we can institute changes with the informed knowledge of all participants.

Even with such a high degree of staff/volunteer cooperation, we have stumbled into an occasional pitfall. Our "basic sketch" floor plans left much to be desired by those who did the actual construction; the unavoidable noise and debris of construction caused some problems; one or two of the Auxiliary members continue to feel threatened by the project; and some of our staff members who really enjoyed working with the dolls have been reluctant to let the volunteers function as independently as we would like them to.

Also at the suggestion of our Finance Director and our Store Manager, we have revised our reporting procedures and our method of handling funds.

Our original problems have been solved. Instead of limiting or abandoning our doll program, we have enlarged its size, function and scope. Staff has been freed from the demands of "Dolly Derby" detail work. The display and sale of dolls has reduced our storage problems to manageable size. Girl Scouts and leaders wishing to select dolls no longer have to enter the production areas but can pick out their dolls at The Doll House.

From a genuine crisis situation we have moved toward productivity and earned income. Staff and volunteers alike are reaping the dividends of their mutual investment of time, effort and action. By working together from the very beginning, staff and volunteers have brought about meaningful results:

1) Staff and volunteers developed
   a commitment to the success of
   the project from the very be-
   ginning through the process
   of shared planning;

2) Potential problems have been
   avoided by meeting coopera-
   tively during the period of
   implementation;

3) The project itself came to frui-
   tion quickly, due to concur-
   rent assignments during the plan-
   ning process;

4) Necessary adjustments and changes
   were made in the original plan
   with a minimum of friction;

5) Staff and volunteers developed
   confidence in the project, in
   themselves, and in each other.

We are optimistic for the future. With
the steady growth in volunteer staff, we
hope to expand The Doll House operations
from four hours a day (six days a week)
to full day operations within the next year.
We feel confident that we will meet and,
hopefully, surpass our original sales esti-
mate of $6,000 per year. And we foresee
even greater volunteer participation in the
"Dolly Derby" process.

*A miracle? No, just the cooperation of
staff and volunteers from the very beginning,
not only in the planning, but in the work as
well.*

MSW Attitudes Toward

Direct Service Volunteers

By L. S. "Arty" Trost

STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Problem

In recent years the field of voluntarism has rapidly expanded to include services previously provided by professionally trained social work personnel.[1] In many social service situations the role of the MSW has become one of coordinating and facilitating the efforts of "delivery of service" teams composed of themselves, volunteers, and paraproffesionals.

The traditionally clear distinction between the role of the professional and the role of the volunteer is becoming ambiguous as volunteers are utilized in positions that require direct contact with clients, often in stressful situations. As the widespread utilization of volunteers in more significant roles increases, professional tension and resistance develops.[2]

At present, while there are many statements made about professional resistance to volunteers, and many discussions about staff-volunteer relations, there is a paucity of research in this area. Questions such as the following, if answered, would be help-

ful in beginning to understand the relationship between professional social workers and direct service volunteers.

1. *What are MSW perceptions of, and attitudes toward, direct service volunteers?*

2. *Do MSWs employed in public agencies have different perceptions of and attitudes toward direct service volunteers than MSWs employed in voluntary agencies?*

3. *Is there a correlation between previous personal experience as a volunteer and present attitudes and perceptions of volunteers?*

4. *Is there a difference in perceptions and attitudes between those MSWs who work directly with direct service volunteers and those who do not?*

Purpose and Method of Study

The purpose of this study was to describe attitudes and perceptions of MSWs in public and voluntary agencies toward direct service volunteers. Data were collected from MSWs working in Riverside and San Bernardino Counties in

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California by two instruments, a five point
Likert scale with twenty items and a
seven point Semantic Differential scale
with ten items. (Appendix A). Data were
analyzed by a Kolmogorov-Smirnov test for
material obtained on the Likert scale and an
analysis of variance for the Semantic Differ-
ential. Demographic data were also collected.

A list of 465 MSWs was obtained through
the assistance of NASW and human service
agencies in both counties. The test instru-
ments were mailed to a randomly selected
sample population of 160 MSWs. Six sub-
sample groups of twenty MSW were formed
on the following basis:

MSWs employed full time in a <u>public agency</u>
who:

1. have had <u>both</u> personal experience
   as a volunteer <u>and</u> direct contact
   professionally with volunteers
   within the past seven years;

2. have had <u>either</u> personal experience
   as a volunteer <u>or</u> direct contact
   professionally with volunteers
   within the past seven years;

3. have had <u>neither</u> personal experi-
   ence as a volunteer <u>nor</u> direct
   contact professionally with vol-
   unteers within the past seven
   years.

MSWs employed full time in a <u>voluntary
agency</u> who:

4. have had <u>both</u> personal experience
   as a volunteer <u>and</u> direct contact
   professionally with volunteers
   within the past seven years;

5. have had <u>either</u> personal experience
   as a volunteer <u>or</u> direct contact
   professionally with volunteers
   within the past seven years;

6. have had <u>neither</u> personal experi-
   ence as a volunteer <u>nor</u> direct
   contact professionally with vol-
   unteers within the past seven
   years.

Basic Hypotheses

There are three working hypotheses:

1. *As a group, MSWs in both public
   and voluntary agencies will tend
   to view direct service volunteers
   in a negative manner.*

2. *MSWs in voluntary agencies will
   have less positive attitude to-
   ward direct service volunteers
   than MSWs in public agencies.*

3. *These negative attributions may
   be modified by familiarity with
   the role of the volunteer.*

   *Sub-hypothesis: MSWs in both
   public and voluntary agencies
   who have had both personal ex-
   perience as a volunteer and
   direct contact professionally
   with volunteers within the past
   seven years will view direct
   service volunteers in a more
   positive manner than will MSWs
   without either personal experi-
   ence or direct contact.*

Significance of the Study

The subject of manpower in human
services appears to be a crucial one at
this time. On the one hand there is the
continuous expansion of the need for
social services. On the other hand there
are cutbacks in federal, state, and local
funding for provision of these services.
In the past decade much has been written
about the acute shortage of professional
social workers. There was a general
consensus that graduate schools of social
work would not be able to train enough
social workers to fill the service needs.[3]
In the early 1970's, this problem was
compounded by the lack of funds to hire
professionally trained social workers.

At present, additional manpower in
the social services comes from two sources:
the paid paraprofessional and the volun-
teer. During the past three administra-
tions there has been a great emphasis on
citizen and consumer participation in
the social services: informed laymen who
can participate with professionals on
agency advisory boards and committees
and nonprofessionals who can provide
direct services which complement and
supplement professional services to agency
clients.

It appears that the human services
field is faced with a dichotomy. There
appears to be an oversupply of MSWs, as
new graduates are unable to find employ-
ment and others are losing positions due
to funding cutbacks. Yet, there is a short-
age of MSWs in terms of the ratio of
MSWs to clients and potential clients --
a shortage which probably would not be
alleviated even if all persons with an
MSW degree were fully employed.

If we accept the idea that there is indeed a critical manpower shortage in terms of services provided, and that it can be partially alleviated through the judicious utilization of volunteers, then it will be necessary for the professional to take another look at attitudes and actions toward direct service volunteers. It will be necessary for graduate schools of social work to add to their curriculum courses in volunteer administration and for agencies to offer similar seminars and workshops for their staff, in order that volunteers may be utilized to the optimum extend possible.

Definition of Terms

MSW: *an individual who has received a master's degree from an accredited school of social work. For the purpose of this study, the word "professional" will be used as a synonym for MSW. It is important, however, to note that "the antonym for volunteer is 'paid,' not 'professional' ...4*

Volunteer: *an individual who freely contributes his services without remuneration to a public or voluntary agency or organization. An "indirect service volunteer" is one who provides ancillary services such as office help, fund raising, membership on boards or committees, etc. A "direct service volunteer" is one who works directly with agency clientele.*

Public Agency: *a governmental agency financed by public funds which is engaged in preventing, controlling, or ameliorating the affects of social, physical, or mental health problems experienced by individuals, groups, or communities.*

Voluntary Agency: *an agency financed by voluntary contributions and/or fees which is engaged in preventing, controlling, or ameliorating the affects of social, physical, or mental health problems experienced by individuals, groups, or communities.*

Background of the Study

Today's volunteers in social welfare are carrying on a great tradition in American life. Voluntarism has been an accepted part of community life ever since the barn raising activities of the early colonists. The contribution of time and energy to help others, to organize and serve in community and religious causes has been an historic factor in the growth of the United States.[5]

As one observer noted,

The pioneers in social welfare were

volunteers. Before the caseworkers, before the group workers, before the medical specialists, there were the laymen who saw unmet human needs in their own communities and moved to meet them.[6]

These volunteers, motivated by religious precepts and humanitarian concerns, established and operated settlement houses, children's homes, services for individuals and families, and many other agencies of assistance. They laid down the foundation for the social work structure which we know today.[7]

As the problems of industrialization and urbanization multiplied, these early agencies began to employ facilitating staff. But while "agents," clerks, and bookkeepers were given some delegated responsibilities, the volunteers continued to supply most of the direct services. As pressures continued to mount, the trend toward delegation of responsibility to paid staff continued. There were those who were concerned about this trend and Mary Richmond suggested that the "professional worker" could not become the "complete and satisfactory substitute" for the volunteer.[8]

As the concept of social welfare expanded and became more institutionalized in voluntary and public agencies in the early 1900's, participation of the volunteer in direct service declined as professionalism emerged. The volunteer withdrew from the client and served on boards and committees, making policy and planning decisions. The professionalism of social welfare agencies accelerated during the 1940's and 1950's and "...protected the client from direct contact with volunteers."[9] Professionals soon forgot the contribution of volunteers to social welfare and began to talk of the "damage" that unskilled people could do to a client in stress.

However, by the early 1960's, the pendulum began to swing back, and more and more service volunteers were recruited to strengthen agency programs. Wolozin calculated that, when estimated at the lowest possible wage scale, volunteers provided more that $14 billion of services for voluntary agencies in 1970 alone.[10]

Considerable impetus to the voluntary action movement has been given by the federal government. In the 1962 Social Security Act amendments

Congress made volunteer services an integral part of the national policy by providing 75% matching federal grants-in-aid to states for support of statewide plans of volunteer service.[11]

When states were slow to respond to this "carrot," the 1967 Social Security Act amendments mandated the use of volunteers in state public welfare plans by July 1, 1969.

Nixon, in his inaugural address, said:

We are approaching the limits of what government can do alone. Our greatest need now is to reach beyond government, to enlist the legions of the concerned and committed. What has to be done has to be done by government and people together or it will not be done at all.[12]

He followed up on this statement by establishing the Office of Voluntary Action, which was to "encourage and stimulate more widespread effective voluntary action for solving domestic problems."[13] The parallel branch to the public Office of Voluntary Action at HUD became the non-profit, non-partisan National Center for Voluntary Action, financed solely through voluntary contributions. Both are enjoined to inform, educate, and assist individuals and groups about the possibility of volunteer service.

But today's resurgence of voluntary action has its problems and the conflict between professional and volunteer is one of them.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The shortage of manpower in the helping professions has been extensively documented.[14] Service which is provided by a relatively small group of specially trained professionals is a viable method for limited programs but cannot be effective in programs which hope to provide massive benefits. This is especially true at a time when our country's aspirations for health, educational, and social services are rising more rapidly than the usual channels can accomodate. The needs for human service go far beyond the economic potential for paid services, especially now when we are seeing a reluctance at the federal level to fund services even at previous levels. This constitutes a challenge to the social work profession to explore, develop, and utilize all available manpower resources in the interest of extending services to as many as possible.[15]

Volunteer service has long played an important role in health, welfare, education, and recreation agencies. It is a means of expanding programs, bringing special skills to the programs' enrichment, and effectively interpreting the agency's programs to the community. Volunteers can provide services to those people who might otherwise "fall between the cracks" of the eligibility requirements of public assistance programs.

The direct service volunteer movement is growing rapidly, and more and more types of work which were formerly labeled as professional are now being entrusted to skilled volunteers. The human services sector utilizes hundred of thousands of volunteers in a wide variety of direct service positions. Volunteers work in governmental agencies such as welfare, probation, social security, and rehabilitation; in hospitals, psychiatric institutions, and treatment centers; on hot lines and in character building agencies, to mention only a few.[16] Throughout the country there is a wave of positivism and optimism of what can be accomplished through volunteer manpower.[17]

Unfortunately, along with the enthusiasm for well-trained, well-placed volunteers, there is an increasing awareness of the problems which can and do develop between volunteers and professional staff members. In discussing "The Professional and the Volunteer in Corrections: Truce or Consequences," the Volunteer Courts Newsletter states that the "big block to Court Voluntarism is not volunteer recruiting; it is not training of volunteers; it is not lack of communications or poverty of funding. It is the corrections professional."[18] Dorothy Becker writes that "there has been little exploration of the roots of the unexpressed but determined resistance of the social work profession to extending the use of direct service volunteers."[19]

Resistance to change is not a new concept; many books on organization theory deal with it. While this study will not attempt to analyze the effect of volunteers on an organization, it should be obvious that volunteers do bring changes in the system. As most MSWs are employed by various types of organizations, it is appropriate to discuss the theory of resistance to change and how it applies to professional resistance to volunteers.

In their book Management and Organizational Behavior, Hodge and Johnson list eight areas of change where resistance usually occurs.[20]

1. *Changes that are perceived to lower status or prestige.*

2. *Changes that cause fear.*

3. *Changes that affect job content and/or pay.*

4. *Changes that reduce authority or freedom of acting.*

5. *Changes that disrupt established work routines.*

6. *Changes that rearrange formal and informal group relationships.*

7. *Changes that are forced without explanation or employee participation.*

8. *Changes that are resisted because of mental and/or physical lethargy.*

To understand better the underlying factors in social workers' resistance to volunteers, it will be helpful to examine these areas, which often overlap. The following descriptions of each of the areas suggest variables for measurement, and have been the basis for the selection of measurement instruments used in the study.[21]

Changes that affect job content and disrupt established work routines. A main area of concern on the part of the professional is about the quality of service rendered by volunteers, and the potential danger to clients from insensitive and unskilled helpers.

Changes that are perceived to lower status or prestige. The idea that volunteers with relatively brief training can be expected to do some of the things that the professional spent years getting trained for is a threat and a source of genuine professional concern.

Changes that cause fear. The term "fear" is equated here with uncertainty and hesitation, in relation to the role changes social workers undergo with the implementation of volunteer programs.

Changes that reduce authority or freedom of acting. On the one hand, volunteers increase a professional's authority and responsibility, but volunteers may also reduce his authority and freedom to act in relation to his clients. The volunteer may question the social worker's judgment about a particular client. Since volunteers do not belong to the professional culture, they are more likely to challenge its basic assumptions. One assumption that professionals fear volunteers will challenge is the tradition of confidentiality.

Changes that rearrange formal and informal group relationships. Some professionals feel that the need for more manpower can be better met by paraprofessionals than by volunteers. They feel more comfortable with paraprofessionals who know their place in the organizational hierarchy and are ready to take supervision as paid staff members. Professionals feel that volunteers do not fit

as readily into defined role relationships and are less predictable in terms of commitment to supervision.[22]

Changes that are forced without explanation or employee participation. Many authorities agree that there is a direct relationship between the amount of employee participation in change and the degree of employee acceptance of change.[23] Unfortunately, professionals are often not consulted or involved in planning volunteer programs.

This section has attempted to relate professional resistance to volunteers to organizational theory on resistance to change. There are, of course, many more facets that this study has not attempted to deal with, such as how formal and informal organizational structures are altered by the inclusion of volunteers, how volunteers perceive the organizational structure, and how volunteers perceive professional social workers, to mention only a few. As the volunteer movement continues to grow, so does the scope of the literature.

SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS

Are Volunteers Here to Stay?

One of the reasons that this particular topic was selected for a master's essay is that the whole picture of voluntarism in the social services is changing rapidly and will probably continue to change in the 1970's and 1980's. These changes have and will continue to affect the service professions, professional education, and professional practice, as well as the function of agencies and institutions. These changes-- and the response to these changes--need to be known and dealt with.

Professional MSWs seem to be very aware of the new climate of voluntarism and the rapid acceleration of volunteer activity, whether they welcome or resist it; whether they are excited or upset by it; whether they see it as a challenge to their creativity or a meddler in traditions. The extremely high response to the mailed questionnaire (91.8%) is an evidence of their interest in the subject matter. Not only did 91.8% take time to respond, but of that number 10% took time to add additional comments, sometimes a page in length. Their comments show how aware they are of the changes taking place in the social services, in part due to the national developments focusing on volunteers. Some were particularly interested in the outcome of this study as they felt that professionals were being unfairly maligned for resistance to volunteers.

MSW Attitudes Toward Volunteers: An Overview

The statistics gathered in this study show that the respondents are neither positive nor negative in their overall view of volunteers. They are very close to neutral when summarizi ng over the 30 scales, and so a sweeping hypothesis such as "MSWs . . . will tend to view direct service volunteers in a negative manner" will have to be rejected. As one respondent wrote:

> *I have found that the success of this depended entirely on the personal quality of the volunteers. I have found that some volunteers could be trusted with nearly the entire responsibility of therapy while others could not be counted on to mix paints or sharpen pencils.*

The second hypothesis, "MSWs in voluntary agencies will have a less positive attitude toward direct service volunteers than MSWs in public agencies," must also be rejected. There was absolutely no difference between the groups on the basis of the type of agency they worked in, when the variable of amount of exposure was factored out. There was not even a suggestion of a trend.

The bulk of the findings relate to the third hypothesis: that ". . . negative attributions may be modified by familiarity with the role of the volunteer." MSWs who had no direct professional experience with volunteers nor previous personal contact with volunteers (Groups 3 and 6 on page 15) were significantly more negative on 14 of the 30 scales than were MSWs who had either direct pro-fessional contact with volunteers or previous personal experience as a volunteer (Groups 2 and 5). MSWs who had both direct professional contact with volunteers and previous personal experience as a volunteer (Groups 1 and 4) were significantly less negative on 19 out of the 30 scales than were Groups 3 and 6, who had none.

Groups 1, (both) and 4 (both) rated volunteers as significantly more beneficial, good, strong, successful, important, valuable, and helpful than did Groups 3 (none) and 6 (none). There was no significant difference on the other three scales.

Continuing to compare these four groups according to the variable of amount of exposure, Groups 3 (none) and 6 (none) were significantly more concerned about the possible loss of jobs and prestige than were Groups 1 and 4. In areas that affected job content and/or pay they were again significantly more negative, reacting on five of the six scales in this area. Groups 3 and 6 were significantly more reluctant to allow volunteers

access to confidential records, feel that volunteers are less responsive to supervision, have less commitment to agency policies, tend to come and go as they please, tend to become over-involved with clients, and generally are not worth the time and effort involved.

When comparing Groups 2 (either) and 5 (either) with Groups 3 (none) and 6 (none), we do not find them reacting differently on as many scales. Groups 2 and 5 rated volunteers as being significantly more beneficial, strong, important, successful, and valuable than Groups 3 and 6. Again, Groups 2 and 5 were less concerned with the possible loss of jobs and prestige than were Groups 3 and 6. Groups 3 and 6 felt that volunteers tended to make snap judgments, were unable to work in highly sensitive areas, and did not have the skills and knowledge necessary to work with clients, at a significantly higher level than did Groups 2 and 5.

Groups 3 and 6 continued to be significantly more reluctant to allow volunteers access to confidential records, felt that they were less responsive to supervision, and have less commitment to agency policies, tend to come and go as they please, and become over-involved with clients than did Groups 2 and 5.

Increasing the amount of exposure to volunteers does not seem to increase the amount of the favorable attitude, so that there was no significant difference between Groups 1 (both) and 2 (either) nor between Groups 4 (both) and 5 (either). Cross-matching accross type of agency also showed no significant differences, e.g., Group 4 (both) vs. 2 (either) and Group 1 (both) vs. Group 5 (either). There is a definite trend for Groups 1 (both) and 4 (both) to be more positive toward volunteers than Groups 2(either) and 5 (either) but not at statistical levels of significance.

Implications

What does all this mean? What are the implications for the field of social work? We see that MSWs in this study are more favorable to volunteers if they have exposure to volunteers. We also see that there are certain areas of change that are particularly threatening, especially as the addition of volunteers to social services involves changes in job content. The continuous assumption in the literature that professionals will resist volunteers may not necessarily be true. Again, it is important to remember that verbal attitudes are not necessarily congruent with action attitudes. But it appears that

There is reason to believe that MSWs have a more open mind on the subject of direct-service volunteers than has been thought.

It is significant to note that virtually every MSW in the study agreed with the statement: Professionals need training in the skills of conducting successful volunteer programs. *The implication here is that graduate schools of social work should take another look at their curriculum and give serious thought to providing courses in Volunteer Administration. A few schools have begun to do this, but very few. It also means that agencies should endeavor to provide time for training workshops, conferences, and seminars in the field of Volunteer Administration for their staffs.*

Professional and agency functions are changing and will have to continue to change if they are to remain relevant. As the functions of the volunteer continue to expand, volunteer programs cannot continue to develop in the hit-and-miss way that most such programs have been developed so far. Professional social workers must be involved in the planning and ongoing administration of volunteer programs if they are to be utilized to their fullest potential. Professional staff will need training and retraining to work as teammates with volunteers, as they now work as teammates with other professionals. Professionals will need training with volunteers, rather than training volunteers and professionals separately and then assuming that they will be able to work together.

The point is that the volunteer has an' important, unique contribution to make--a contribution that neither parallels nor duplicates the tasks, functions, or the methods of the professional. Only frustration and disappointment can result if the volunteer is viewed as a pinch-hitter for an overworked staff. Neither the psychiatrist, social worker, nor psychologist can be pinch-hitters for each other, but together they form a unique team whose end product is greater than the sum of its parts.

Involving the volunteer requires acceptance of change, but resistance to change is normal. Inertia is a recognized phenomenon of the physical world, and we must realize that it operates in the social world as well.

Now the spotlight is on the professional and the volunteer. The questions is whether the professional will invite the volunteer to share the stage and what role the volunteer will play. Professional staff who have been fearful, unconvinced, and overprotective of

their clients must now begin to work hard at including the volunteer and easing the restrictions and caveats which have discouraged volunteers from playing a meaningful part in the social services.

Footnotes

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4. Harriet H. Naylor, Volunteers Today (New York: Association Press, 1967), pp. 27-8

5. Nathan E. Cohen, The Citizen Volunteer: His Responsibility, Role and Opportunity in Modern Society (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1960), passim.

6. The Volunteer Bureau: Purpose, Organization, Operation (New York: United Community Funds and Councils of America, 1959), p. 3

7. Violet M. Seider, "Volunteers", Encyclopedia of Social Work (New York: NASW, 1971) II, 1528

8. Mary E. Richmond, "The Case for the Volunteer", The Long View (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1930), p. 343.

9. Sedier, op cit., p. 1528

10. Harold Wolozin, "Volunteer Manpower in the United States", Federal Programs for Development of Human Resources Vol. I (Washington D.C.: Subcommittee on Economic Progress Joint Economic Committee, U.S. Congress, 1971), pp. 203-214

11. Seidner, op. cit., p. 1529

12. Joseph Neuman (ed.), People Helping People: U.S. Volunteers in Action (Washington, D.C.: U.S. News and World Report Books, 1971), p. 14

13. Horn, op. cit. p. 6

14. As mentioned in Significance of Study, p. 15, there is an apparent over-supply of MSWs because of funding cutbacks. The term "shortage" is in reference to the need for provision of services of MSWs.

15. See Brager, op. cit., p. 33; Grosser, Henry, and Kelley, op. cit., pp. 6-7; William C. Richan, "A theoretical Scheme for Determining Role of Professional and Non Professional Personnel," Social Work, VI, 4 (October 1961), 22; Glenn M. Parker, "New Careers in Public Welfare: Creative Possibilities and Some Problems," Public Welfare, XXVII, 4 (April, 1969), 113.

16. Newman, op. cit., passim.

17. Opinion expressed by Wilbur J. Cohen in an address to the Junior League (Volunteers: A Creative Force in America") in Los Angeles, Oct. 10, 1967: Rosemary Morrissey (recorder), "Strengthening Public Welfare Services Through the Use of Volunteers", (summary of material presented by an American Public Welfare Association Institute, Oct. 26-28, 1960, Chicago, Illinois), 16-24; George Pickering, "Voluntarism and the American Way", Occasional Paper #7 (Washington, D.C.: Center for a Voluntary Society, October, 1970), 9-11; and Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt, op. cit., passim.

18. "The Professional and the Volunteer in Corrections: Truce or Consequences", Volunteer Courts Newsletter, I (February, 1969), cited by Cynthia Nathon in an address ("The Volunteer on a Special Kind of Team") to the Child Welfare League of America in San Francisco, Feb. 24, 1969.

19. Dorothy G. Becker, "Exit Lady Bountiful: The Volunteer and the Professional Social Worker", Social Service Review, 38 (March, 1964), 57-8.

20. Billy J. Hodge and Herbert J. Johnson, Management and Organizational Behavior (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1970), pp. 432-433.

21. Number 21, will not be amplified, as it is self-explanatory.

22. Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt, op. cit., p. 41.

23. R.C. Davis, Fundamentals of Top Management (New York: Harper, 1951), p. 200; Gordon L. Lippitt, Organizational Renewal (New York: Meredith, 1969), p. 146; William G. Scott, Human Relations in Management (Homewood, Illinois: Richard Irwin, 1962), p. 232.

Likert-type Opinion Scale

The first section of the questionnaire was a Likert-type opinion scale with twenty items. Each item related to one of the eight areas of resistance to change, discussed on pages 17 and 18. The questions relating to each of the eight items are listed below.

Respondents were given the option of replying "strongly agree," "agree," "undecided," "disagree," or "strongly disagree" to each statement item. The responses were scored so that a response indicative of a strongly favorable attitude was given a score of "1" while a response indicative of a strongly unfavorable attitude would be given a score of "5."

I. Changes that were perceived to lower status or prestige:

If volunteers are trained to provide services that professionals are now providing, it will mean loss of professional jobs and prestige.

II. Changes that cause fear:

Professionals can best utilize their skills by training and supervising direct-service volunteers, rather than providing services to a more limited number of clients.

The communication gaps and distrust that often arise between professionals and clients don't happen when local volunteers are involved.

Professionals need training in the skills of conducting successful volunteer programs.

III. Changes that affect job content and/or pay:

Personal counseling services should be done by volunteers under professional leadership and supervision.

When volunteers provide direct services to clients, the professional gives up the reward of direct contact with the client.

Volunteers lack perspective and tend to make snap judgments.

Volunteers don't have the knowledge and/or skills necessary to work with clients.

Volunteers are trying to meet their own psychological needs and not the needs of the clients.

Volunteers are able to work with clients in highly sensitive areas.

IV. Changes that reduce authority or freedom of acting:

Volunteers should be given assignments even if they require access to confidential records.

The best delivery of service is by a volunteer-professional team, as each brings different knowledge and skills to serve the client.

V. Changes that disrupt established work routines:

Volunteers, because of their flexible schedules, can offer services to clients outside of professional working hours.

' Volunteers don't get paid, so they come and go as they please.

VI. Changes that rearrange formal and informal group relationships:

Volunteers work only a few hours a week and are not as committed as the professional.

Volunteers are as responsive to supervision as paid staff.

Volunteers lack commitment to agency policies.

VII. Changes that are forced without explanation or employee participation:

There were no statement items on the questionnaire that directly related to this area of resistence ot change.

VIII. Changes that are resisted because of mental and/or physical lethargy:

Volunteers don't remain with the agency long enough to justify the time and effort necessary to properly train and supervise them.

Semantic Differential Scale

The concept "volunteer" was judged against a ten scale differential consisting of the following bi-polar adjectives:

1. harmful - beneficial

2. healthy - sick

3. bad - good

4. active - passive

5. weak - strong

6. successful - unsuccessful

7. unimportant - important

8. calm - excitable

9. worthless - valuable

10. helpful - hindering

HOT LINES: Preliminary Information About Callers and Volunteers

By Joseph P. Caliguri

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this article, which is a report of a study of two hot-line agencies, is to examine functions performed by these agencies, their accomplishments and difficulties, and the perceptions of volunteers toward a variety of operational concerns. With respect to the agencies in this study, one was a 24 hour line, financed primarily by donations and a small state grant from the community services unit for a period of time. The scheduler of volunteers for shift duty was the only paid person receiving a minimal monthly fee. The volunteer board and administrative leadership have managed to sustain the program for the last eight years. It is the only 24 hour hot-line in a metropolitan area serving approximately 1,250,000 people.

The other hot-line, an evening program subsidized by donations and a small state grant, was ancillary to the agency's regular services for children and family counseling and could refer some callers to its regular counseling services. The agency administrative staff supervised the hot-line for three years. The program and the grant were terminated in 1975.

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Generally, hot-line programs are financed by private donations and grants from appropriate city or state community services departments. A small number of paid or unpaid leaders and a large number of volunteer staffs are notable features of these organizations. Though not documented, survival rates may average about six months. In one newspaper report (Snider, 1975), one agency head exclaimed, "We are barely keeping our heads above water. The budget is cut to the bone, and we have to cut back on our telephone hours. The United Fund will not include the agency in its funding."[1]

While usually serving all ages, some hot-lines focus on such areas as child abuse, drug abuse, runaways, and suicide. In terms of overall functions, these programs may be partly crisis intervention for people overwhelmed by stress, partly referral for people desiring basic needs assistance from appropriate community agencies, and partly therapeutic for people needing help in sorting out their feelings about various concerns. *Two apparent operating principles for hot-lines are* anonymity *or the right of callers to remain unidentified, and sociocentricity or the value of "caring about people" as a major criterion for volunteer selection.*

In reference to justification for the study, other than newspaper reports, very little systematic information is available about the characteristics and

impact of these programs. Included in this article will be the methodology, results, and discussion of the exploratory study of the two agencies mentioned previously. Data for the study were collected in the Spring of 1975. It was anticipated that the results would be useful for agency leaders in regard to information management tasks and program functions and problems. However, the results are generalizable only to hot-lines with similar characteristics.

METHODOLOGY OF THE STUDY

Purposes of the study were: (1) to examine the 1973-74 call sheet records for indications of patterns in regard to personal problems of callers and other associated characteristics; and (2) to secure additional information from ad hoc interviews of volunteers regarding role satisfactions/dissatisfactions.

More specifically, major categories of the call sheet included a problem checklist, disposition of the call, assessment of behavior checklist, evaluation of service, and added sections for psychiatric and medical information. Interview questions were based mainly on volunteer perceptions of the call sheet tasks, the anonymity principle, the sociocentric value criterion, chronic callers, referral feedback from callers, and the selection and training program for volunteers.

Twenty, or about 25 percent of each agency's volunteer staff who were accessible and receptive, were interviewed. The total number of interviews was forty and the mean time was one hour. Interview data were recorded during the interview for the most part. Characteristics of the ad hoc samples are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

As indicated in Table 1, the group of 24 hour Hot-line volunteers was highly skewed toward females and a small differential spread of age levels. Overall, the mean age was 40 and the range of service was from six months to a year. The mean period of service was two years. Other than six housewives and three college students, occupational background varied.

As indicated in Table 2 (page 26), the evening Hot-line male/female ratio was not skewed. The majority of volunteers were in the 20/30 age level. The mean age was 26 and the mean service was sixteen months. The range of service was from six months to 3 years. Half of the group was in college and half had undergraduate degrees and worked in varied fields. It was thus apparent that the 24 hour volunteer group differed in age and sex, and to a degree in service and college credentials in contrast to the evening line group.

In reference to data analysis, the monthly summaries of call sheet figures were systematically examined and, where appropriate, frequency distributions and yearly percent tabulations were developed. Analysis of interview data was made on the basis of reading and rereading interview protocols to develop two data reduction categories-diagnostic interpretation of logical reasoning responses and evaluative assertion or personal opinion responses. A panel of five graduate students provided a reliability check on these categories in the 75 to 85 percent range from coding portions of the data. Within these categories under each questions, the comments of volunteers were read and re-read. Major inferences were drawn from both categories only when responses were high in agreement or disagreement or tended to be most noticeable.

RESULTS

It should be noted in reviewing the nature and content of calls that classifications, problem patterns, and the age and sex attributes of volunteers can furnish some systematic information about the callers and the volunteers for the involved agencies. Differences in service hours, with the exception of call totals, may not be as significant a factor on the nature and content of calls as age, sex, and performance attributes of volunteers and the resulting responses of callers to the program service. This point will be explored further in the discussion section.

TABLE I

Age and Sex of the 24 Hour

Hot-line Volunteers

	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-70	Total
Male	4	0	0	2	6
Female	5	2	3	4	14
N	9	2	3	6	20

TABLE 2

Age and Sex of the Evening

Hot-line Volunteers

	20-30	31-40	41-50	51-70	Total
Male	10	1	0	0	11
Female	7	1	1	0	9
N	17	2	1	0	20

As an added note, comparison of 1973-74 data within the agency is important in revealing consistencies and changes in regard to caller characteristics and problem patterns which may be emerging.

During the 1973-74 period, the 24 hour line received 145,209 calls and the evening line received 50,286 calls. *Three kinds of calls were predominant. Incomplete or hang-ups were defined as calls in which the caller hangs up immediately or several minutes later with no conversational enclosure. Client calls were defined as callers who sought assistance on a problem through referral advice or indirect counseling. Chronic calls were defined as repeat calls with no definite purposes or an attempt to develop dependency relations with volunteers.*

For the 24 hour line, about half (52.3 percent, 50.3 percent) the calls in the two year period were categorized as incompletes. Client calls dropped from 12.5 percent in 1973 to 6.3 percent in 1974, while chronic calls increased from 7.9 percent in 1973 to 15.1 percent in 1974. Remaining call categories represented miscellani in varied percents.

For the evening line, almost half the calls for the two year period were hang-ups. Client calls were 14 and 15 percent, respectively, and chronic calls were 23.8 percent for 1973 and 37 percent for 1974. Remaining call categories in varied percents were similar to the 24 hour line. It seemed apparent that both programs had a common problem with hang-ups and a noticeable problem with chronic calls. Additional tabulated data are shown in the following tables.

Table 3 (page 27) shows that slightly over a fourth of the 24 hour service calls in 1974 from clients were about loneliness and depression consistent with 1973 data. Problems with spouse were also consistent with 1973 information. The remaining categories revealed slight changes in frequency compared to 1973, although both boy-girl and medical-physical problem calls increased from 1973 figures of 2.2 percent and 0 percent respectively. In regard to chronic

callers, Table 4 (page 27) breaks down callers by age and sex. Noticeable were males between the ages of 16 and 17 calling most frequently, followed by males between the ages of 41 and 60. In contrast, females between the ages of 41 and 60 called most frequently, followed by females between the ages of 16 and 17.

Table 5 (page 27) is presented next for information about suicide crisis calls. Two thirds of the suicide crisis calls were from females in 1974 and 1973. Almost one fourth, or 24.7 percent, of the suicide crisis calls from males were from the age group of 41-60 and 16.9 percent were from males in the 10-15 age group. With the exception of the 10-15 age figure, the overall age distribution was similar to that found for males in 1973. For females, no single age category seemed to contain a significantly greater percentage in 1973 and 1974. Data for chronic and crisis calls were not available for the evening Hot-line records for comparison with age and sex. However, information on the kinds of problem calls is presented in Table 6 (page 28).

During 1974, 59 percent of the problem calls included chronic, dating, and lonely and depressed, an order consistent with the 1973 figures. Chronic calls increased 13.2 percent while dating decreased 4.8 percent and lonely and depressed decreased 3.5 percent in 1974. The remaining categories showed slight frequency changes and were generally consistent with 1973 tabulations. Comparison of the 24 and the evening hour data in Tables 3 and 6 can only be speculative. Additional data in regard to age and sex of client calls and percent of calls by shifts and days are contained in the original report for both agencies.

STUDY INFERENCES

It is acknowledged that the volunteer boards and the administrative leadership of the two agencies were not included in the study. It was assumed that the

*TABLE 3

Kinds of Problems by Frequency

and Percent--1974 24 Hour Line

Category	Frequency	Percent
Lonely & Depressed	1,819	27.0%
Spouse	636	9.4%
Crisis	449	6.7%
Drugs	386	5.9%
Sexual	392	5.8%
Parental	389	5.8%
Boy-girl	359	5.3%
Drinking	335	5.0%
Mental	331	4.9%
Act or Threat	328	4.9%
Medical-Physical	302	4.5%
Suicidal History	262	3.9%
Financial	210	3.1%
Pregnancy	163	2.4%
Miscellaneous	161	2.4%
Employment	141	2.1%
School	58	.7%
Police Called	18	.3%
	6,749	

TABLE 4

Chronic Callers by Age and Sex

1974   24 Hour Line

Age	10-15	16-17	18-20	21-25	26-30	31-40	41-60	Over 60	Un	Totals
Male	.1%	39.0%	14.3%	14.4%	.3%	.07%	31.0%	.3%	0	43%
Female	3.8%	10.0%	4.1%	.2%	3.1%	9.7%	69.0%	0	0	57%
Totals	2.2%	22.5%	8.5%	6.3%	1.8%	5.6%	53.0%	.1%	0	

TABLE 5

Suicide Crisis Calls by Age and

Sex Percent 1974 - 24 Hour Line

Age	10-15	16-17	18-20	21-25	26-30	31-40	41-60	Over 60	Un	Totals
Male	16.9%	6.7%	3.4%	12.4%	12.4%	11.2%	24.7%	1.1%	11.2%	33.7%
Female	.6%	8.6%	15.4%	22.3%	17.1%	22.3%	7.4%	1.1%	5.1%	66.3%
Totals	6.1%	8.0%	11.4%	18.9%	15.5%	18.6%	13.3%	1.1%	7.2%	

*   Volunteers were instructed to mark more than one category on the problem checklist
     of the call sheet if applicable in their judgment. Therefore, category totals
     would not be equated with individual call counts and the above cited figures
     must be viewed as approximations for Tables 3 and 6.

TABLE 6

Kinds of Problems by Frequency and

Percent-1974 Evening Hour Line

Category	Frequency	Percent
Chronic	3,182	39.0%
Dating	1,193	13.9%
Lonely and Depressed	699	8.1%
Family	563	6.6%
Pregnancy	556	6.5%
Sexual	547	6.4%
Drugs	466	5.4%
Situational	417	4.9%
Peers	200	2.3%
Marital	142	1.7%
Runaway	124	1.4%
School	110	1.3%
Obscene	102	1.1%
Crime	86	1.0%
Alcohol/Smoking	77	.9%
Suicide	68	.8%
Legal	47	.7%
	8,579	

volunteers represented the most significant operational aspect upon which to focus. The interview data provide some noticeable indication about the management of information and the volunteer role ambiguities, conflicts and congruency. Overall, volunteer boards and administrative leadership within the limitations of this study may find the information useful in identifying issues of major concern to volunteers and their performance. The major inferences from interview data were as follows:

Interview Data

1. *Call Sheet Form*--A majority of the experienced volunteers responded that the call sheet could be improved by (a) reducing overlapping categories and poorly defined terms, (b) devising single and multiple problem checklists to decrease distortion between counts of callers and counts of problems, and (c) developing a cross indexing format for chronic and client calls by age and sex. A separate record form for chronic calls could also facilitate record-keeping and analysis tasks.

2. *Call Sheet Process*--Each agency's supervisor responsible for the record-keeping agreed with noticeable logical reasoning and evaluative responses of volunteers that a major dysfunction was failure of volunteers generally to cross-check records or to cross-communicate with other volunteers about call sheet interpretations of callers who talk to different volunteers.

3. *The Anonymity Principle*--Overall, volunteers highly agreed that this principle provided self-disclosure opportunities for callers, especially for tension reduction. One noteable comment was that callers said things they would never say to family, friends, or fellow workers. On the other hand, anonymity also stimulated many callers to attempt to develop a dependency link on volunteers.

4. *The Sociocentric Value*--In terms of need gratification, it was highly acknowledged by the respondents that they were expressing care for people and receiving gratification in return as an exchange or *quid pro quo* concept.

5. *Incomplete and Chronic Callers*--The most noticeable role dissatisfaction or tension exhibited in volunteer responses related to recognition of feelings of powerlessness or lack of goal achievement in dealing with incomplete and chronic calls. A common expression was, "We take a lot of abuse; they hang up and then call right back to scapegoat us." Another comment of note was, "We need assistance in handling chronic callers who try to manipulate us. The ten minute limit on a call is not really a solution."

6. *The Referral Process*--An added noticeable role dissatisfaction of the volunteers related to limited feedback from callers in regard to referral advice. In a large

sense, the anonymity principle was perceived as an obstacle in this context.

7. *The Selection Process for Volunteers*--Volunteers, selected on the basis of application form information and interviews, were generally satisfied with the selection process, though a small number of experienced volunteers indicated that professional assistance should be sought to improve the weeding out task. A significant comment was, "We do a good job of weeding out Super Savers of the world and thrill seekers, but some are selected who have more hang-ups than callers."

8. *In-Service Training*--A majority of the volunteers indicated that these programs had problems of attendance and carry-over value. Exemplar comments were: "The Hot-line experiences should be worked up for in-service activities. We liked the role playing. Professional speakers too often get off on their own thing rather than use actual cases."

DISCUSSION

Though the study was conducted under a number of methodology and situation restrictions, the call sheet findings and the selective inferences from interview data merit cautionary discussion. The call sheet is a basic phase of the information management system. Even when a number of dysfunctions are acknowledged, the sheet can still provide reasonable information feedback useful for volunteer educational activity and periodic re-assessment of agency goals and resources. Nevertheless, more attention through leadership and volunteer staff involvement should be given to call sheet design, procedures, and tasks in order to develop a simplified system to increase volunteer support, task effectiveness, and more comprehensive statistical reports.

Most evident from the call sheet findings and interview inferences is the problem of chronic callers. It seems apparent that professional assistance should be sought by agency leaders to increase the coping skills of volunteers and, in turn, to reduce volunteer frustration-agression or stress behavior affecting their performance. Other selective clues are in order at this point. In relation to the selection process, other than professional aid, agency leaders could utilize experience and competent volunteers to assist in developing more effective monitoring activities of volunteers during the probationary period as well as to devise a fair releasing procedure.

In a related sense, no attempt was made to probe interviewees about their perceptions of 24 and evening hour service differences or factors. It may be noted, however, that skewed age and sex attributes may influence volunteer groups' cohesiveness as well as performance in serving callers with different age or background characteristics. Unless a Hot-line program desires to service a special group, some attention should be given to developing and maintaining or appropriate mix or heterogenity.

In regard to in-service training, more promising incentives than rhetorical appeal may be feedback sessions on volunteer Hot-line experiences, group evaluation of volunteer performances, and a more adequate matching of in-service leader expertise with generally expressed needs of volunteers and the major findings from call sheet analysis.

On balance, it seems clear that Hot-line programs can operate on low budgets and high volunteer thrusts for varying periods of time. Also, Hot-lines can perform a valuable community service, but alternatives should be pursued to assist leaders in developing more significant funding strategies for survival.

For instance, 24 hour lines with established repute could explore the possibilities of negotiating with public or private community agencies to handle these agencies' "off hours" referrals for information, counseling assistance, or crisis situations on a prorated fee structure. Another alternative would relate to exploring opportunities to provide staff training programs on a fee basis to area organizations performing similar telephone and crisis tasks or organizations which can use the expertise and experiences of Hot-line programs to deal with their staffs' personal problems more adequately. One other alternative is the United or Community fund agency. Hot-line programs which can develop valuable information on delivery services available to community populations may well persuade the agency decision-makers to provide financial assistance for maintenance or survival costs at the least. However, no data on the impact of limited funding appear to be available in the literature.

The 24 hour line involved in this study has survived for eight years primarily on the basis of committed board members with professional affiliations and a dynamic administrative head with back-

ground experience in public service. In this context, the problems of enlarging services with paid positions and thereby creating the bureaucratic congruence of financing and role conflict implications of paid and volunteer staffs has been delimited.

Since research studies are lacking, two possible areas relate to volunteerism and Hot-line organizations. On volunteerism, research probes could focus on helping volunteers to know what they can and cannot do and what their unique functions and responsibilities are. Indeed, volunteers are motivated from a variety of needs and values to serve in the interests of others. Yet little is known about the impact of volunteers on the organization and the impact of the organization on the volunteer concerning role ambiguities, role conflict and role congruence. The lack of communication techniques to increase coordinative efforts of volunteers in their performance and follow-up efforts with some callers as well as limited feedback from callers to volunteers about referral contacts were tentatively evident aspects.

As stated earlier in regard to role conflict, it seemed more apparent that callers who attempted to identify with volunteers or became chronic callers affected the application of the anonymity principle by volunteers as well as volunteer security. Another tension producing factor appeared to be volunteers with evident "hang-ups" of their own as perceived by volunteers interested in developing cooperative task sharing obligations. Role conflict influence also seemed evident in reference to in-service programming weaknesses affecting the growth and development of volunteer staff. Perhaps the most noticeable example of role congruence as a third factor in this focus was the application of the sociocentric principle or the needs gratification exchange model. It was clearly evident that volunteers received noteable satisfaction from feeling needed when they showed concern about peoples' problems.

In relations to evaluation research on a final note, comparative evaluation designs are needed to document critical dimensions of success or failure of various Hot-line programs. Other than administrative and operational dimentions, research interest in volunteer values should be encouraged, especially since values are an influential factor on volunteer gravitation toward public service programs.

If Hot-line programs are to become an integral delivery system for a number of peoples' needs rather than a passing fad or a constant struggle to survive financially, valid and reliable information will be a continuing requirement to sustain the direction and efforts of the Hot-line operation in American society.

Notes:

References

Snider, Arthur J., "Sex Problem? Try the Hot-line," Chicago Daily News, March 3, 1975, p.8.

How To Make A Museum Volunteer
Out Of Anyone

By Nancy Johnston Hall
and Karla McGray

WANTED: VOLUNTEERS FOR SCIENCE MUSEUM
(FOR EVERY KIND OF JOB IMAGINABLE).
ANYONE AND EVERYONE QUALIFIED.
THOSE INTERESTED PLEASE APPLY

This ad could easily have been written
by The Science Museum of Minnesota (SMM), an
institution dedicated to the premise that
anyone has a valuable talent or ability use-
ful to the Museum.

The Science Museum of Minnesota is
currently dispelling the myth that the
typical volunteer is the white, middle aged
woman with school age or grown children, and
extra time on her hands. Karla McGray,
Coordinator of Human Resources of SMM, is
looking for ways to involve any member of the
community in the Museum's program -- people
who might even be surprised themselves to
discover there is a place for them at the
Museum.

There are several reasons why this
approach is a natural and necessary one for
SMM. The Museum is in the process of a
major expansion program. This expansion in-
cludes a domed Omnitheater and three floors
of exhibit hall space connected by a skyway
to the present Museum in St. Paul.

---

*Nancy Johnston Hall is a Science Writer
at The Science Museum of Minnesota; and, Karla
McGray is a Staff Writer at The Science
Museum of Minnesota.*

In an effort to make this new facility
a "people" museum (as opposed to an
electro-mechanical museum), involve the
community at a maximum level and provide
interpreters for the increased Museum pro-
gram space, the natural solution was a full
scope volunteer program (or "human re-
sources" program as SMM has chosen to call
it). In making the decision to add this
human dimension to all Museum programs and
exhibits, the SMM staff has designed the
entire Museum with a strong emphasis on
participatory activities which can be
enriched by volunteer individuals. In
this way the volunteer program is an
integral part of the overall interpretive
design of the new facility.

This humanistic approach pervades
the whole Museum in several ways. "Man"
is the theme which will unify the three
sciences represented -- the physical,
cultural and biological. Each of the
three floors will explore one aspect of
man. The first floor deals with man's own
perceptions of himself and the physical
world, the second with man as a cultural
being, and the third with man as a living
animal.

*Therefore, any subject which deals
with Man is appropriate for study in the
Museum. As a consequence, a volunteer
with almost any area of interest can fit
into this far-reaching program. A vol-
unteer need not have a science background
nor an academic background to feel comfort-
able with his or her own contribution.*

The Museum will be seeking many levels of volunteers. A very important group will be the interpreters and demonstrators who will assist the visitors in adding depth to their museum experience. These volunteers will dramatize, and personalize Museum programs. In addition to interpreters and demonstrators, the Museum will be using maintenance volunteers - individuals who will virtually help to keep the Museum running. The biology labs will need animal and insect caretakers, plant growers and even beekeepers. Volunteers with mechanical and electrical abilities will assist in keeping exhibits in good operating order and contribute their expertise in alternative ways of planning exhibits.

Those volunteers with expertise in specialized areas may be used as volunteer trainers. Volunteers with educational backgrounds may provide in-service workshops on communication skills and learning theories. A specialist from the Heart Association might train volunteers to work in an exhibit area on the circulatory system. Or a professional potter might assist in training a volunteer to demonstrate for visitors how primitive cooking pots were made. A volunteer from the Weavers Guild may teach or interpret Mayan back strap weaving.

Karla McGray will also be looking for "volunteer managers" to assist her in coordinating this complex volunteer Program. "A person with extensive volunteer experience and knowledge of basic management skills could very easily function in a volunteer-volunteer management position here."

Besides recruiting people with a wide diversity of talent, training and interests, the Museum will be making a special effort to involve many age levels of volunteers and many sectors of the community in its volunteer program.

Physically handicapped persons, for example, will be recruited to be an essential part of the Handicapped Resource Center in the new Museum. The Resource Center, located near the Museum entrance, has been developed as a place where the handicapped visitor can find information on specially designed equipment and programs and obtain general advice on how they can maximize their visit to the Museum. This area is an excellent place for the handicapped volunteer -- one who understands the unique problems which face the disabled visitor.

The exhibits and activities in this area will also give the non-handicapped visitor an opportunity to understand what it is like to have a disability. With the help of audio-distortion equipment, for instance, the visitors can discover for themselves what deafness is like. Formal or informal presentations by handicapped volunteers will add significant meaning to this program area.

The Museum is also exploring programs in the Twin Cities area for mentally retarded persons. Hopefully this versatile facility will serve to provide itself as a resource for programs seeking ways to involve mentally retarded individuals in meaningful experiences in the community.

A variety of ethnic groups from the metropolitan area will be recruited and can offer special enrichment to the cultural exhibit areas. By sharing cultural crafts and traditions, these volunteers may add a new dimension to programs on an on-going basis or for special events related to ethnic holidays.

During the next year, the Museum will be inviting senior citizens to volunteer, informing them that they are very much needed. This thrust will be a part of the Museum's involvement in a statewide "life long learning" program supported by Vice President Mondale. The Museum feels that this particular group can enrich almost any area by sharing personal life experiences of historical value or contributing special acquired skills. In the Weather Station an older person may recount the "great Drought" of the 30's or share the experience of the Armistice Day blizzard. A retired television engineer could act as a consultant on the Communications Center and interpret this area to visitors once it is in operation. The Museum is already borrowing the knowledge and help of a retired 3M Company scientist in setting up a physics workshop.

This workshop will also be used by volunteers from the other end of the age spectrum. Interested junior high and high school age students will be able to work on special projects here with the aid of "advisor" volunteers from the scientific or educational community.

Staff members in the Museum have been assessing ways to involve children more directly in the Museum as volunteers. Traditionally this group visits the Museum with parents or teachers and is not given the opportunity to share their own perspectives with others. Being in the Museum environment as a volunteer would help to stimulate a young person's enthusiasm for learning and enhance his personal growth while facilitating other children in learning.

The Science Museum of Minnesota will approach the corporate and business community with information about volunteer opportunities uniquely designed for working individuals. Exploring the concept of "release time," the Museum hopes to assist companies in fulfilling community involvement contributions. For companies not affording their employees this benefit, evening and weekend commitments will be negotiated for those individuals needing personal satisfaction and gratification outside of their work experience.

To aid many parents who would like to volunteer, the Museum is exploring the possibility of developing a day care situation, perhaps even in the Museum itself. This may be an area to involve University child development students or a 4H student needing to fulfill a child care project. It's an exciting concept and could facilitate unpaid staff in making their volunteer experience easier to arrange.

For every volunteer, involvement with the Museum will be an educational experience. Ongoing in-service workshops and training programs conducted by specialists and staff will provide valuable experiences for volunteers interested in acquiring additional job skills. The Science Museum will be keeping detailed records of training and skills acquired by each volunteer. These records will help the SMM staff in writing job recommendations for volunteers seeking future employment and can be a valuable addition to their resumes. The Museum plans to negotiate with Twin Cities Universities to offer its volunteers the opportunity to have their experiences evaluated and assessed for college credit.

Volunteering at The Science Museum of Minnesota will also be a form of community education. A volunteer will be able to select or be placed in an area of interest, expand his/her knowledge in this area through an intense training program and spend as much time volunteering in this area as he/she chooses. When the volunteer is ready for additional growth, he/she can either receive additional training in the same area or select another area of interest and add on to their skills with a new program. This "add-on" educational approach allows the volunteer flexibility plus the opportunity to increase his/her knowledge and skills at a speed that is comfortable for them.

The Museum will be making a special effort over the next year and a half to develop this Human Resources program and recruit and involve volunteers from many diverse communities. Each volunteer will have something special to contribute drawing from his or her own personal or professional background. In bringing this variety of personal experiences to the Museum programs, SMM will be a continually growing and changing place. The Science Museum of Minnesota's all-inclusive volunteer program drew this response from Barbara Fertig, Coordinator, Center for Museum Education, *"To my knowledge, no other museum or science center is attempting to involve so many kinds of volunteers on so many levels...(it) points an exciting new direction for museums."*

VOLUNTEER BUREAUS — THE CRITICAL ISSUES

By Charles B. Spencer

What do Volunteer Bureaus and Voluntary Action Centers see as the most critical issues confronting them today? What are the principal factors determining their effectiveness as initiators and administrators of community-based volunteer recruitment and training programs?

These fundamental questions were recently addressed in a survey conducted by the Association of Volunteer Bureaus (AVE) and reported upon at the Association's national conference in May of this year. A second AVB survey will be employed as the basis for development of recommendations as to the most effective resolution of the issues identified by the first. The surveys are regarded by AVB as a major step in the achievement of increasingly productive interchange among its 132 constituent members.

In this initial survey, member-organizations were asked to select and prioritize locally-determinant issues from a list of fifteen provided by AVB, and to append such explanatory comment as they deemed appropriate.

As revealed by the survey, the top three priorities of Volunteer Bureaus and

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Voluntary Action Centers (VACs) across the country were identified as: *training needs; relations with the public;* and *relations with United Way,* (the major funding source of most bureaus). These three top priorities were rated almost equal in importance by respondents, and together, accounted for just over half of the number-one piority vote. They also received 38% of all priority ratings designated one through five.

Relations with community power structure was rated fourth in comparative importance. Considered as a group, the three priority-areas dealing with community relations (the public, the United Way, and the community power structure) accounted for about 40% of all number-one priority votes.

Increased mileage deduction for volunteers was rated fifth, while *deductions for baby-sitting and per-hour service valuation* were also significantly rated. The high aggregate score achieved by the three tax-deduction priorities was viewed as indicating a widespread belief on the part of Volunteer Bureaus and VACs that the cost of volunteering constitutes a major obstacle to the development of citizen participation in community.

Of the fifteen issues considered, only three others were widely rated as determinant. These were: *volunteer experience on job applications, insurance for volunteers,* and *increased citizen participation*

in government decision-making. The domi-
nance of the eight highest-rated priorities
is underscored by the fact that the remaining
seven together (including among others,
relations with organized labor, NOW and
ACTION), received only about one-sixth of
all priority designations in the first five.

In addition to identifying national
priorities of Volunteer Bureaus and VACs, AVB
wished to determine whether such factors as
geographic location, funding patterns or
comparative size affected local orders of
priority. Accordingly, questionnaires were
sub-tabulated by AVB region, relationship
with United Way, and by number of volunteers
annually referred. While the size of these
sub-samples was, in certain cases, too small
for strict statistical reliance, analysis
indicated that with regard to the relative
importance of the first eight priority-areas,
none of the sub-samples differed significant-
ly from the national pattern. This uniform-
ity was interpreted as reinforcing the
validity of the priorities established by
the sample as a whole, and these priorities,
as determined by a 58% response, are
considered by AVB as representative of its
entire membership.

As indicated in paragraph two, the
question of how best to deal with the
priorities identified in this first survey
will be explored by AVB in a follow-up
survey scheduled for completion by fall of
this year. *However, the high priority assign-
ed to the need for improvement in all
aspects of community relations produced a
preliminary recommendation to increase
emphasis on further development of member
skills in such areas as public relations,
funding and board-building.*

Please rank each subject according to the priority of importance for your Bureau/VAC. #1 is highest priority. Do not duplicate numbers.

Relations with:

     ACTION   _____   _____
     NOW
     United Way
     Community Power Structure
     Community (public)
     Organized Labor

Tax deductions for volunteers:
     Increased mileage deduction
     Baby-sitting cost deduction
     Per hour value service deduction

Training needs

Standardized terminology

Insurance for volunteers

Volunteer experience on job
 applications

Increased citizen participation in
 government decision-making through you_____

Lower dues in sister organizations
 for AVB members

Other: (please specify)

_____

Complete VB/VAC name_____
Address (Street) _____
(City,State,Zip) _____
Telephone   ( )_____
Director's Name & Title _____
Organization status:
    _____ Division or part of United Way. Which one? _____
    _____ Independent Agency funded by United Way _____
    _____ Independent Agency not funded by United Way _____
    _____ Other (please specify _____
Date established _____
Population served _____
Number of volunteers referred annually (est.)_____
Number of programs operated _____
Names of programs operated _____

Number of branch offices _____ (Please list name, address, director, phone)

_____

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