A Review of Management Theory
and Volunteer Services Administration

prepared

for the Association for Administration
of Volunteer Services

by:

Sarah Jane Rehnborg C.A.V.S.
1979

Introduction

Numerous methods exist to identify the competencies required of volunteer services administrators in the execution fo their job related responsibilities. One technique is the analysis of the theoretical constructs underlying the occupation itself (Hall & Jones, 1976). In order to examine the competencies and performance requirements of the volunteer services administrator, it is helpful to identify skills generic to administration/management.

This literature review examines the classical components of the manager's job. The unique concerns and problems of managers in nonprofit, service institutions are identified and contrasted with classical management theory. The review concludes with a description of the position of volunteer services administration.

The competencies and performance criteria selected for the Performance-Based Assessment for the Certification of Administrators of Volunteer Services Programs are based in part on this review.

The Job of the Manager

Business management literature contains many alternative definitions and functional descriptions of job-related duties. Debate surrounds not only the duties and definition of the managerial function, but also its appropriate title.

Although they are generally considered synonymous (Drucker, 1974; Katz, 1974; Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972; Myers, 1970), the roles of the manager and the administrator are differentially defined by McFarland (1958) and Odiorne (1961). Based on the earlier work of Ordway Tead, McFarland differentiates the two titles in an hierarchical manner. Administration is the process of determining the aims of the organization, establishing the broad policy under which the organization is to function and providing general oversight of the continuing effectiveness of the organization in reaching its objectives. Management is the process of directing and guiding the operations of the organization in the realization of the established organizational aims. Within this conceptual framework, administrative functions comprise the duties of the upper level executives and management functions are the duties of middle or lower levels executives.

A less noble distinction of the jobs of the manager and the administrator is suggested by Odiorne (1961). In Odiorne's words, the practical difference between the two

> is that the manager makes things happen by whatever means are required, while the administrator follows certain procedures mechanically. . . . <u>whether they produce the results desired or not</u>. (p. 4)

The distinction is essentially one of an active vs a passive orientation toward a position that is drawn primarily to highlight the importance of actively working with people to accomplish organizational aims. With the two exceptions noted, these distinctions are not generally found in management literature. Because most authors do not differentiate the roles of managers and administrators according to titles, these two terms will be used synonymously and interchangeably throughout this study.

Who then, is a manager and what is a manager's job? The definition and descriptors are almost as numerous as the authors in the field. Based on a thorough review of management literature, Wilson (1976) succinctly defines the manager as "someone who works with and through others to accomplish organizational goals" (p. 25). An expansion of this definition is provided by Koontz & O'Donnell (1972)

> Managing is . . . the creation and maintenance of an internal environment in an enterprise where individals, working together in groups, can perform efficiently and effectively toward the attainment of group goals. . . . Essentially, managing is the art of doing, and management is the organized knowledge which underlies the art. (p. 1)

Levitt (1976) extends this definition by itemizing the various roles of the manager in the post-industrial society:

> Management consists of the rational assessment of a situation and the systematic selection of goals and purposes (what is to be done?); the systematic development of strategies to achieve these goals; the marshaling of the required resources; the rational design, organization, direction, and control of the activities

> required to attain the selected purposes; and, finally, the motivating and rewarding of people to do the work. (p. 73)

Drucker (1974) describes the work of the manager by defining two central management tasks. The work of the manager is analogous to that of the composer (planner and creator) and the conductor (organizer and director) of a symphony orchestra. According to Drucker (1974), the manager is responsible for ". . . the creation of a true whole that is larger the sum of its parts, a productive entity that turns out more than the sum of the resources put into it . . . " (p. 398). The manager is also held responsible "to harmonize in every decision and action the requirements of immediate and long-range future" (Drucker, 1974, p. 399).

While the overall job of the manager is the creation of an environment that will facilitate the realization of its goals, the principal resource available to the manager is the human resource (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972). Management is largely a social process involving interrelationships of human beings and as such, management takes place through people, and consists of people engaged in the process of creating, planning, deciding, guiding, leading, directing and supervising other people (McFarland, 1958). Broadly defined, the management role in eliciting cooperation and group action for the efficient accomplishment of organizational goals applies to any type of organization, be it business, military, religious, charitable or social (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972).

Managerial functions. The job of the manager is further defined by Drucker (1974) and Koontz & O'Donnell (1972). Each identifies five basic functions or operations of the manager (see Tables 1 and 2) while some variations are apparent in the delineation of the duties of the manager identified by these authors, the functional categories and their explanations indicate considerable agreement and overlap. The functional or operational categories are constant across all types of organizations (Drucker, 1974; Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972). Although it is identified as a separate function, coordination is

> . . . the essence of managership, for the achievement of harmony of individual effort toward the accomplishment of group goals is the purpose of management. Each of the managerial functions is an exercise in coordination. (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972, p. 50)

A pivotal task, that balances all other management functions, coordination involves the reconciliation of differences in approach, in timing, in effort or interest of individuals so that the work combines to achieve the group goals. Coordination can not be achieved through a mandate "to coordinate" but rather through interpersonal, horizontal and vertical relationships of people in the organization. The need for coordination and the reciprocal interchange of information is continuous and rooted in the earliest phases of planning and policy making.

Table 1

Five Basic Operations of the Manager
According to Peter F. Drucker (1974)

1. Set Objectives and Goals

The manager must set the objectives and goals for the organization (specifying what must be done to reach the objectives) and communicating these objectives to the persons who will fulfill them.

2. Organize

The manager must organize the work by analyzing, classifying and dividing the task and selecting persons to accomplish them.

3. Motivation and Communication

The manager is responsible for motivating and communicating with the work force. It is the manager's responsibility to make a team out of the persons responsible for the various aspects of the job through the development of cohesive working relationships. The manager has, as his tools in this process, the ability to make "people decisions" i.e., to pay, place, replace and promote people to accomplish the task. Regular communication with subordinates, supervisors and colleagues is critical to the development of a working team.

4. Measurement

Yardsticks must be identified to measure the performance of the overall organization and the contributions of

Table 1 (cont'd)

---

4. Measurement (cont'd)

the individuals toward the goals of organization.

5. Development

The manager is responsible for developing the persons working in the organization and for attending to their needs for professional development. "'Working' the human being always means developing him" (p. 402).

M. Scott Myers (1970) analyzes the management functions from the perspective of identifying working conditions that enhance interpersonal effectiveness in the work place. He maintains that every employee is, or should be a manager. Defining interpersonal effectiveness as "ideal relationships among people at work, united in the pursuit of compatible personal and organizational goals" (p. 25), Myers (1970) contends that managerial/supervisory style and the system within which people work are the key components facilitating effective working conditions. Much as McFarland divided administrative and management functions into upper level and lower level tasks, Myers contends that traditional management behavior creates a management (upper level), labor (lower level) dichotomy. Management traditionally functions to plan, organize, lead and control while labor traditionally functions to perform the task. Without input into the creative planning phase of the work itself, labor lacks commitment to the organizational aims to which their work leads. Each worker should engage in the three managerial functions of planning, doing and controlling, visualized as an ever-enlarging spiral.

> The plan phase includes the planning and organizing functions of work and consists of problem solving-goal setting and of planning the use of manpower, materials and systems. Planning is the ingredient of work which gives it meaning by aligning it with goals. The do phase is the implementation of the plan, ideally

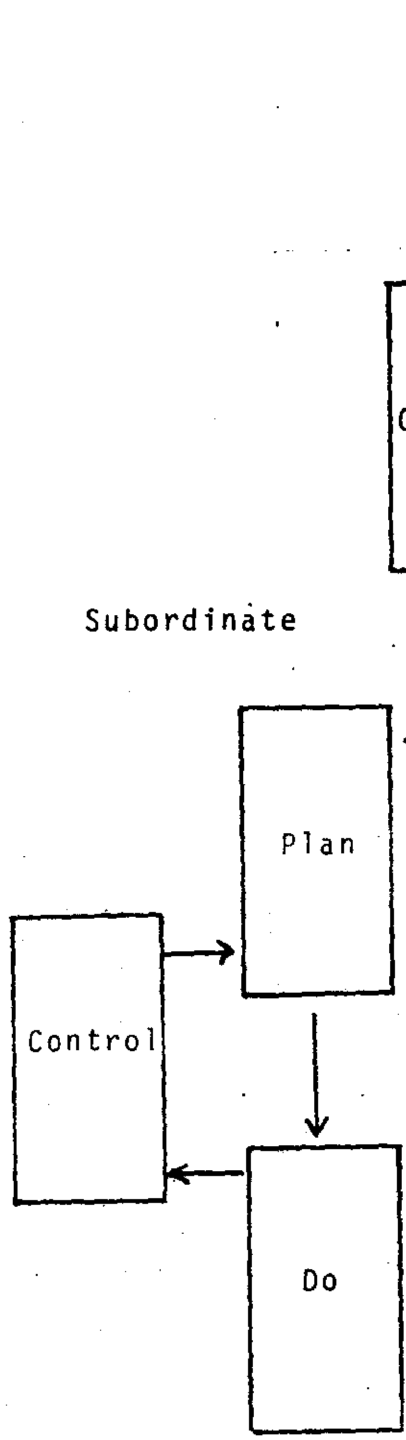
> involving the coordinated expenditure of physical and mental effort, utilizing aptitudes and special skills. Control includes measurement, evaluation, and correction--the feedback process for assessing achievements against goals. Feedback, even to a greater extent than planning, gives work its meaning, and its absence is a common cause of job dissatisfaction. The control phase is the basis for recycling planning, doing and controlling. (Myers, 1970, pp. 69-70; quote divided in three paragraphs)

Through participation in goal setting activities and job enrichment through the horizontal and vertical enlargement of the position, each employee can acquire planning, doing and controlling functions related to his position. Table 3 illustrates the plan-do-control cycle.

Managerial roles. Mintzberg (1975) takes exception to the classical analysis of the manager's role of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling. He suggests that the management function is considerably more complex than the classical view indicates, because it is intertwined with a combination of interpersonal, informational and decisional roles. Based on a number of analyses of managerial roles in all types of organizational settings Mintzberg contends that the classical analysis of management functions is largely folklore based more on myth than on fact. Defining the manager "as that person in charge of an organization or one of its subunits" (p. 54), each

Table 3

Plan, Do, Control Relationship Between a Manager and His Subordinate According to M. Scott Myers, Every Employee a Manager



manager is vested with certain formal authority over an organizational unit. From formal authority comes status, which leads in turn to particular interpersonal roles, informational roles and decisional roles. It is these various roles, or organized sets of behavior identified with the position, that lead to a description of the manager's job.

The manager's job involves three types of interpersonal roles. Through his position as the head of an organizational unit, the manager performs duties of a ceremonial nature identified as the manager's figurehead role. These duties may involve touring dignitaries, attending weddings, entertaining customers, or presiding over retirement dinners. Because of his responsibility for the work of other people in the unit, the manager also assumes a leader role. This role involves not only the hiring and training of staff, but also motivating and encouraging staff, and reconciling individual goals with organizational goals. In his liaison role the manager makes contact with his own superiors and with colleagues outside of his organizational unit.

By virtue of his interpersonal contacts, both within and outside of the organization, the manager emerges as the "nerve center" of his organizational unit. Processing of the information acquired through all of the various contacts of the manager and the communication of this information is a large part of the manager's work. Three roles describe the informational aspects of the manager's job. As a monitor the manager constantly scans his environment for information, questions his subordinates and his liaison contacts and processes unsolicited information. Sharing and distributing much of this information comprise the manager's <u>disseminator</u> role. As the <u>spokesman</u> for the unit, the manager sends some of his information to people outside of his organizational unit. The spokesman role may involve speeches to important constituencies, to lobbyists or legislators, to potential customers or keeping superiors informed of the accomplishments on the unit.

Information is not an end in itself. It is one of the vital components of the decision-making process. The manager is the key decision-maker in his unit. With the formal authority vested in the management position, the manager can commit or withhold resources governing future courses of action. Four descriptors indicate the decisional roles of the manager. As an <u>entrepreneur</u>, the manager seeks to improve his unit and to find new products or services in keeping with constantly changing conditions in the marketplace. The identification and development of new projects seldom involve single decisions. Frequently, they emerge from a series of small decisions and actions occurring over a period of time. A series of new projects may be in the formative stages of development at any one time.

In addition to his role as initiator of change, the manager performs the important function of <u>disturbance handler</u> responding to various disturbances. Extending Drucker's analysis of the manager as composer and conductor of a symphony, Mintzberg (1975) quotes Leonard R. Sayles analysis of the manager in explicating the role of the disturbance handler:

> [The manager] is like a symphony orchestra conductor, endeavoring to maintain a melodious performance in which the contributions of the various instruments are coordinated and sequenced, patterned and paced, while the orchestra members are having various personal difficulties, stage hands are moving music stands, alternating excessive heat and cold are creating audience and instrument problems, and the sponsor of the concert is insisting on irrational changes in the program. (p. 57)

The third decisional role of the manager is that of <u>resource allocator</u>. Not only must the manager determine what resources are to be allocated within his organizational unit, but he must carefully allocate his most unique resource, his own time. <u>Negotiator</u> is the fourth decisional role of the manager. Resolving disputes, settling grievances, and harmonizing approaches between competing projects must be handled by the manager because of his access to broader information and to his position of authority.

Form his analysis of the multiple role structure of the manager's job, Mintzberg contends that business schools ascribing to the classical management model are not educating managers, but rather, they are training organizational specialists, management scientists and marketing researchers. The total emphasis on cognitive learning inadequately prepares students for the reality of the manager's world. Educational programs should concentrate much greater effort on imparting management skills through various experiential techniques. It is doubtful, however, that basing an educational program on the Mintzberg model would prove any more fruitful to the potential manager. Dividing a student's time according to the roles recommended by Mintzbert would provide a simple activities model for the manager without offering the underlying knowledge base that has probably enabled successful managers to assume the roles described. Without an adequate cerebral map guiding the various roles, activities become meaningless and lack focus.

Managerial skills. Focusing on the skills which the manager must possess to be an effective administrative, Katz (1974) recommends a three-pronged approach. He purposely selects a skills approach in analyzing the abilities of the effective administrator because

> a skill implies an ability which can be developed, not necessarily inborn, and which is manifested in performance, not merely in potential. So the principal (sic) criterion of skillfulness must be effective action under varying conditions. (Katz, 1974, p. 91)

Defining the administrator as one who "(a) directs the activities of other persons and (b) undertakes the responsibility for achieving certain objectives through these efforts" (p. 91), Katz suggests that technical, human and conceptual skills are essential, in varying degree, for every successful manager.

Technical skill involves a specialized knowledge of the tools and techniques of a specific discipline. By implication, the effective administrator must have an understanding of, and proficiency in the specific kind of activity in which his organization or agency is involved. This technical skill may range from the knowledge and abilities necessary to be a musician, an engineer, an accountant or a surgeon. Katz suggests that a high degree of technical skill is most vital in lower or middle level administrative positions when the manager is in closest contact to the operation. Even in top level management positions with extensive staff assistance, the administrator requires some technical skills in order to ask effective questions, and evaluate operational accomplishments.

Human skill implies "the executive's ability to work effectively as a group member and to build cooperative effort within the team he leads" (Katz, 1974, p. 91). While this seems simple to apply, effective human skill requires that a manager

(a) recognize the feelings and sentiments which he brings to a situation;

(b) have an attitude about his own experiences which will enable him to re-evaluate and learn from them;

(c) develop ability in understanding what others by their actions and words (explicit or implicit) are trying to communicate to him; and

(d) develop ability in successfully communicating his ideas and attitudes to others. (Katz, 1974, p. 98)

With this understanding of self and others, the manager will be able to create a atmosphere of approval and security in which subordinates feel free to express themselves, and an environment conducive to accomplishing the aims of the organization.

In a retrospective commentary accompanying the second printing of his article, Katz (1974) further delineated the concept of human skills to include both intragroup and intergroup skills. Intragroup skills involve the manager's leadership ability within his own unit, while intergroup skills imply effective relationships among and between units in the organization.

Skills in intragroup relationships are particularly important in lower and middle level management positions, while intergroup skills become increasingly important as the manager assumes successively higher administrative positions. Although Katz focuses on a skills approach to management on the basis that skills can be taught, he demurs that ". . . outstanding capability in one of these roles is frequently accompanied by mediocre performance in the other. . . . Having both (inter and intragroup skills) is rarely possible" (p. 101).

The third skill of the effective administrator, <u>conceptual skill</u>

> . . . involves the ability to see the enterprise as a whole; it includes recognizing how the various functions of the organization depend on one another, and how changes in any one part affect all the others; and it extends to visualizing the relationship of the individual business to the industry, the community, and the political, social, and economic forces of the nation as a whole. Recognizing these relationships and perceiving the significant elements in any situation, the administrator should then be able to act in a way which advances the overall welfare of the total organization. (Katz, 1974, p. 93)

Conceptual skill implies the ability to integrate and coordinate all of the interests and activities of the organization in meeting its immediate and long range objectives. This skill is of paramount importance to the top level administrator. While "coaching" of subordinates by their superiors is considered the optimal method in inculcate this all-important ability, Katz's retrospective commentary acknowledges that "skill" may be a misnomer for an ability which might more appropriately be considered "innate."

Table 4 presents a cumulative review of each of the management approaches reviewed to this point. With the exception of Katz, each of the authors contend that their analysis of the management process is generic across organizational lines and is equally applicable to profit, nonprofit and voluntary enterprises. Although Katz (1974)

Table 4

Five Approaches to Management

<u>Managerial Functions</u>					
1. Drucker:	Set Goals & Objectives	Organize	Motivate & Communicate	Measure	Develop
2. Koontz & O'Donnell:	Plan	Organize	Staff	Direct	Control
3. Myers:	Plan		Do		Control
<u>Managerial Roles</u>					
4. Mintzberg:	Interpersonal: figurehead, leader, liaison		Informational: monitor, disseminator, spokesman	Decisional: entrepreneur, disturbance handler, resource allocator, negotiator	
<u>Managerial Skills</u>					
5. Katz:	Human		Technical	Conceptual	

does not specifically address the issue of the transferability of his schema neither does he specifically delimit his findings. Attesting to the generic nature of the concepts presented, Wilson (1976) in her widely respected book on the management of volunteer programs draws from several of the authors noted here, and has adapted the Koontz & O'Donnell (1972) managerial task analysis to the field of volunteer services administration as illustrated in Table 5.

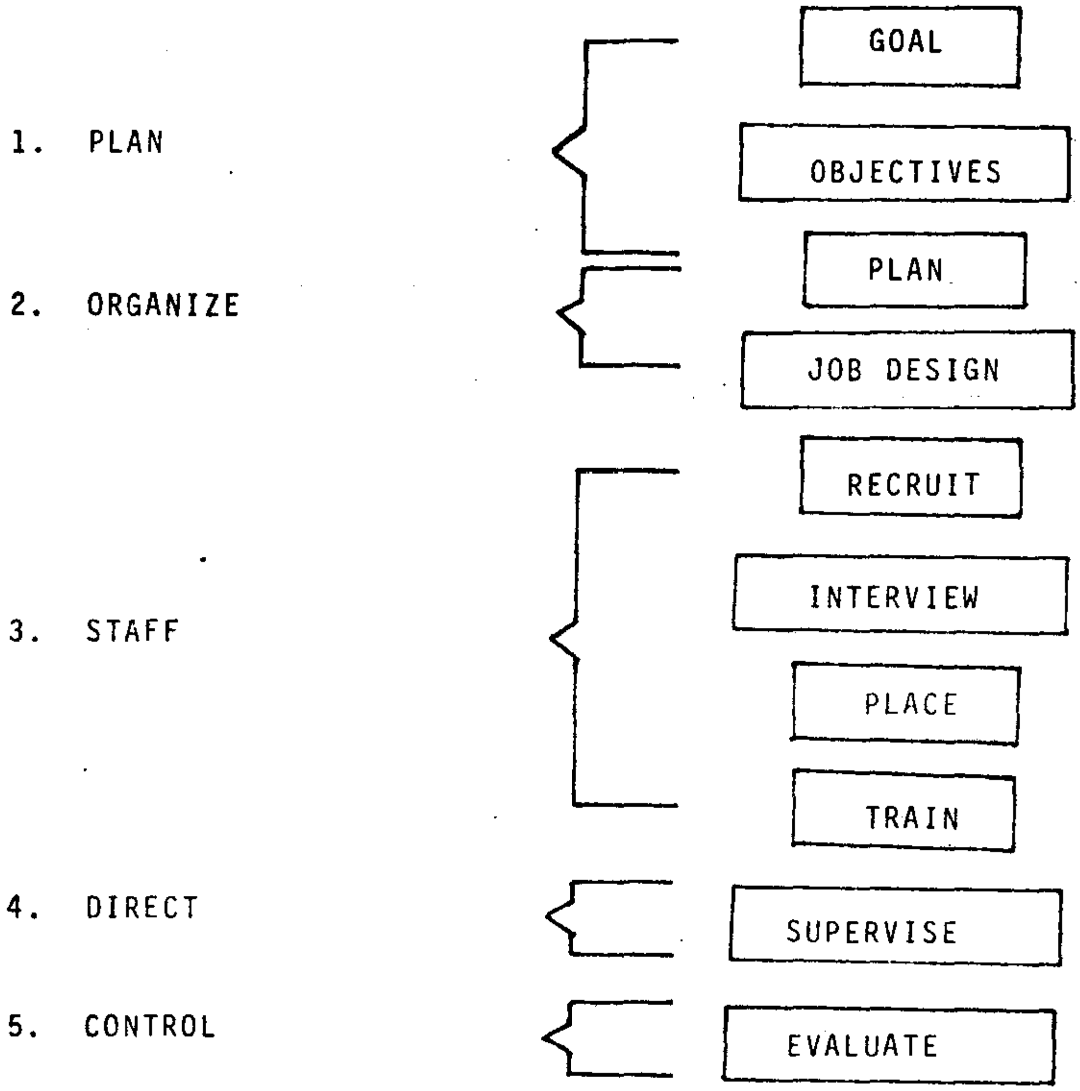
Managing Nonprofit, Service Institutions

The practical application of business management theory to service organizations may not be as analogous as suggested. In an article entitle "Managing the 'Third Sector'", Peter Drucker (1978) asserts that "the service institutions require more and better management--and they require different management" (p. 26:4). "Different" he goes on to say because service institutions are more complex than either private or public enterprises. Within Drucker's definition of service institutions are libraries, museums, hospitals, universities, symphony orchestras, theatres, the thousands of industrial trade associations and professional organizations, churches, civic groups, youth organizations, bowling leagues, and the infinite number of cause groups pleading for every conceivable (or inconceivable) social problem. Volunteers are an integral part of all of these agencies.

The term nonprofit is frequently used to refer to these organizations, but nonprofit refers only to a financial balance sheet, and this distinction alone may obscure the es-

Table 5

Management Functions Translated into the Terminology of Volunteer Administration



Taken from Wilson, M. The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs. Boulder, Co.: Volunteer Management Associates, 1976, p. 39.

sence of these organizations. Indeed these organizations are not intended to be financially profitable, but they do need to be "profitable" to the constituents, clients and other recipients of their services, as well as to the employees and volunteers staffing these organizations (Selby, 1978). Although all the benefits may not be directly computed in dollar terms, the results of the services are generally known to the client.

In defining the 'Third Sector', Drucker (1978) distinguishes service institutions from public agencies, in the sense of governmental institutions, and from the private sector, in the sense of private business enterprises. The latter distinction is appropriate, but the former raises several unique problems. 'Purely' public institutions are created by legislative mandate, financed solely by tax appropriations and designed to serve a cause which enables some governmental function. However, the growing impact of federal funding to many 'Third Sector' agencies tends to blur many of the distinctions separating service institutions from public ones. The special, or as Drucker (1978) suggests "different" management concerns of the 'Third Sector' are the subject of this section of Chapter II.

Organizational purpose. Managing the service institutions is the "central managerial challenge of a developed society . . . and . . . its greatest managerial need" (Drucker, 1974, p. 135). Central to any managerial task, is a clearly defined organizational purpose enabling the creation of specific organizational objectives and guiding the allocation of precious human and material resources (Drucker, 1974). When asked "What business are you in?" or "What are the objectives of your organization?" many service institutions experience considerable discomfort in articulating a response. In some cases, the executive director may be able to articulate a goal, or to produce the written vestiges of one, but seldom is there a shared and unified understanding of the organization's purpose throughout the ranks of the paid and nonpaid (volunteer) staff (Raymond & Greyser, 1978).

The issue is not that of having an intangible mission. Most all organizations, private, public and service alike, are faced with largely intangible missions (Drucker, 1974). It is the fact that mission statements, if they exist at all are frequently laudable social concerns so global in scope and idealistic in content, as not to focus activity in any specific direction. Individual staff members, confronted with such amorphous causes, tend to either ignore or forget the mission statement entirely, or to personally redesign the purpose to make it consistent with a pet project, a new fundable cause, or a professional career aspirations. In this situation, personal goals quickly overwhelm organizational goals (Raymond & Greyser, 1978).

The author witnessed one local agency with the purpose of "eradicating the causes of poverty" octopus its activities in so many directions as to accomplish little other than high staff turnover due to pointless overwork and frustration.

Equally damaging is the reverse of this situation. A small agency with a limited budget and few staff members with several pages of clear and specific goals and objectives based on a very broad mission statement. Fragmentation results from multiple goals beyond the scope of the resources the agency has to allocate.

For the sake of survival, let alone prosperity, the service institutions must define itself realistically in terms of distinctiveness, versus both broad (often unrealistic) social aims and the purpose of other organizations operating in the same general field. The need for clarity of purpose and distinctiveness of objectives is especially important when more than one agency or organization has its banner raised in a geographic or service area already served by other enterprises with somewhat similar purposes. The rapid proliferation of service institutions has resulted in a situation that private business would call "crowded product category." To ascertain its niche in the marketplace, the enterprise must define what differentiates it from other, similar service providers (Raymond & Greyser, 1978).

Clarity and distinctiveness of purpose is only one ingredient of a successful mission statement. The organization needs a mission statement that is shared. Persons working with and for the organization should understand and support the mission, as well as the constituency receiving the service (Raymond & Greyser, 1978). Broad public knowledge of an agencies mission is not without its problems. A clearly understood and broadly known agency purpose may alienate members of the community who may withdraw needed financial and volunteer support from the agency (Selby, 1978). However, Drucker (1974) maintains that risk is the essence of decision making and decision making is what the manager is paid to do:

> . . . the service institution manager can do unpopular and highly controversial things only if he himself faces up to the risk-taking decision as to what the business of his institution is, will be, and should be. (p. 148)

<u>Performance measures and the budget</u>. It is only with a clear and shared definition of purpose, that performance, or results can be measured. Herein lies one of the major differences between the sectors. Herlinger (1977) captures a portion of the performance dilemma: "since output is generally nonsold, it is impossible to measure it in financial terms by assigning a market value" (p. 86). Because most service institutions do not produce incomes (either entirely, or in sufficient quantity to sustain their operations) they are dependent upon budget allocations to maintain their existence. This means that the consumer of the service, or the taxpayer does not pay the agency for results or services performed. Drucker (1974) discusses the implications of this form of financing.

> Being paid out of a budget allocation changes what is meant by performance, or results. Results in the bud-

> get-based institution mean a larger budget. Performance is the ability to maintain or to increase one's budget. Results, as the term is commonly understood, that is, contributions to the market or achievement toward goal and objectives, are, in effect, secondary. The first test of a budget-based institution and the first requirement for its survival is to obtain the budget. And the budget is not, by definition, related to contribution but to good intentions. (p. 142)

Dependency on a budget allocation militates against setting priorities and concentrating resources on service goals and objectives. The primary objective is the budget, and anything which sustains the allocation. But without the concentration of resources on a small number of objectives, nothing is ever accomplished (Drucker, 1974).

Measuring institutional performance on a budget allocation system results in several complex situations. More efficient service, when it results may mean a reduction in required budget allocation, meets with little encouragement. A smaller budget or a reduction in staff size, is not considered performance (Drucker, 1974). Volunteer assistance, if it promotes the same result is meant by understandable agency resistence. Ever threatened by a reduction in budget, service institutions have a tendency to cling to yesterday and sustain all services that were ever offered in order to justify and maintain their budget. Frequently, agencies' best professional talent is devoted to defending and maintaining traditional services in spite of their utility (Drucker, 1974).

Planning for abandonment--the willingness "to accept that success always means organizing for abandoning what has been achieved" (Drucker, 1978, p. 26:4)--represents a radical deviation from acceptable service practice. It is precisely because results in service institutions are not easy to measure, that Drucker suggests the need for organized abandonment exists. The manager must constantly be asking "Is this the best possible way to deliver services?" or "Knowing what we now know, would we have entered into this service if we were not already there?" Growth requires change and constantly seeking improved methods to reach objectives (Drucker, 1978).

The nature of the service product and the client market warrants attention. Service institutions often provide "need-oriented" products rather than "want-oriented" products (Drucker, 1978; Selby, 1978). A need-oriented product, such as medical care, leads to a degree of dependency on the part of the client. Although there may be a choice of service deliverers to choose among, the consumer market is generally much larger than the number of agencies providing the service. (The "crowded product category" of service institutions is generally constricted to the want-oriented service products such as cultural entertainment and recreational services.) Consumer dependency effectively constrains the client from feeding back information to the provider that would contribute to the redesign or improved delivery of the service. When the beneficiary is robbed of meaningful choice, the service institution is endowed with monopoly powers.

The origins of the budget allocation excerbate the dilemma confronting the consumer for some need-oriented services. In the case of public schools, the dissatisfied consumer does not even have the power to withhold payment for unsatisfactory services. The police power of the state extracts the financial tax contribution that creates the budget allocation (Drucker, 1974).

Systems that would open the service institutions to the market test of satisfying the consumer have been devised, but have never departed from the realm of textbook rhetoric. Redeemable vouchers given directly to the consumer, rather than funding the service provider, are one such option (Herzlinger, 1977). The citizen tax revolt, typified by the Proposition 13 movement in California, illustrates the consumers' dissatisfaction with their current, seemingly powerless position to influence service institutions. But whether this budget reduction will result in greater accountability and more efficient service remains to be seen. Without changes in performance measures, it may conceivably result in more intense competition for budget allocations.

The same budget allocation system directly effects managerial motivation.

Like a business, a public organization is expected to

> serve society. But without a market to determine effectiveness, the process of measuring becomes diffuse and complex. Moreover, if the executives of an effective public organization distribute the surplus resources they control (that is the excess revenues over expenditures) among the executives whose skills produce the surplus, the officials are put in jail when apprehended. (Bower, 1977, p. 132)

Hence, corporate efficiency and effectiveness, as measured by the profit margin, is not only tangible and observable, but it also directly benefits management and stockholders. In the service sector, the "profits" if measured by efficient and effective service, go to the receiver of the service, with only altruistic and ideological "profits" accruing to the managers and service providers. It is only as these "profits" lead to organizational survival and therefore to job retention and security that any "tangible" reward accrues to the service organization manager. If the manager desires a larger budget in future years, or for that matter one that stays even with inflation, it is the manager's job to demonstrate future need by spending his full current allocation (Selby, 1978). Consequently managerial behavior that might be termed fiscally irresponsible in the private sector becomes characteristic, if not valued in the Third Sector.

Little reinforcement accompanies the attributes of quantitative prowess or managerial shrewdness, while those qualities may be valued and rewarded in the private sector, they are of secondary concern to the service sector. Top management in the latter sector is praised for behaviors seen as caring, innovative, creative, scholarly, compassionate and sensitive. The valued qualities of effective management are regarded differently by the two sectors (Herzlinger, 1977).

Multiple constituencies, diffused accountability. Because direct financial reward for exceptional agency performance is not available to top management in the service sector, a work incentive focusing on self-satisfaction develops, often to the detriment of teamwork. Further undermining the teamwork concept is a diffused structure of accountability, and conflicting agency governance regulations and controls. In a corporation, the board of directors appoints the chief officers and invest in them authority and responsibility to achieve organizational aims. Direct lines of accountability are less clear in the service sector. Who the "owners" are and to whom either the top management or the board of directors should be held accountable is ambiguous.

When the budget is allocated from general income tax revenue, practically everybody could be considered the "owners" of the service institution (Drucker, 1974). With such a broadly shared power base, the agency executive is forced to respond to the initiatives and actions of diverse power groups in order to placate all constituencies (Lynn & Seidle, 1977). Accentuating the impact of this issue has been the gradual sociological change reaching its peak in the late 1960's. Society developed a broader respect and tolerance for the minority viewpoint; "power to the people" became the modus operandi (Selby, 1978).

That every action produces a reaction, was equally true as the power base shifted to the "people." Corporations and foundations came to question their support of "liberal" causes that denigrated the capitalist system creating the profits sustaining or enhancing many service institutions. The Harvard Business Review entertained the editorial comments of Mallott (1978) and Cabot (1978) debating the efficacy of corporate contributions to institutions of higher education where certain students and faculty members vocally rejected business values.

As consumer groups and other external influencers have grown more vocal in demanding services delivered to their specifications, the agencies and some funding sources have been forced to bow to their demands. Other funding sources have chosen to redirect their efforts creating a financial vacuum filled by federal funds. Federal funding has also increased because the sheer volume of dollars needed by service institutions exceeds the capability of private resources.

At least two consequences result from federally financing service agencies. Staff devote increasing large segments of professional time to proposal writing, report completion and related functions such as committee meetings.

Less time is available for direct client contact. Volunteers may be available to extend the outreach of over-burdened staff to clients, but this option is greeted with mixed accord. Volunteers require supervision and training further depleting precious professional time. And if the volunteer works directly with the client, they rob the staff person of his/her contact with the client, the source of professional satisfaction. Staff members generally find less and less time for volunteers and volunteers find less interest in the agency. The agency needs more funds to compensate for depleted human resources, so staff write more proposals and the cycle continues to spiral (Selby, 1978).

Federal funding guidelines have an impact on the service institution. Not only does it take time to seek and acquire federal funds, but they bring mixed blessings. In responding to legislative and public demands for accountability to justify massive expenditures, unrealistic and ill-conceived performance measures are often attached to the federal dollar. In order to satisfy the requirements of the funding sources, agencies are forced to direct their attention away from the real social problems they strive to resolve and focus their service on recipients who are likely to produce the required results (probably even without agency assistance) accountability demands (Herzlinger, 1977). Service institutions are also forced into operating within the tight time constraints enacted by a ever changing legislative system governed by the ultimate boss of the election schedule. Not only must results be produced within the time frame of the legislation governing the federal funding source, but the next congressional body is likely to change the entire focus of a funding stream at the point when the agency has just cultivated the appropriate consumer constituency. It has been said that the private sector is governed by "the art of imbalance"; the choice to apply massive resources to a few carefully chosen objectives. The third sector, particularly recipients of public funds, is governed by "the art of the imperfect"; the application of limited and shared resources to global and rapidly changing objectives (Bower, 1977).

Multiple management hierarchies. Confused and diffused accountability results from the numerous constituencies "owning" the service institutions and from the multiple sources allocating financial resources to them. Confounding the situation further is the multiple, parallel and interacting management hierarchies (Raymond & Greyser, 1978; Selby, 1978).

Many service institutions provide professional services that can only be delivered by professional staff. One need only examine hospitals to gather the implications of the situation. Physicians and certain other health professionals are the only persons authorized to provide medical treatment. As a rule, physicians have their own management hierarchy reporting directly to the board of trustees and not to the top hospital administrator (Selby, 1978). The authority of the board of trustees is limited in its jurisdiction over physicians by the state licensing board and standards established by the professional association, the American Medical Association (Rehnborg, 1979). Volunteer auxiliaries repeat this process often circumventing the director of volunteer services (who they may even hire) reporting directly to the top administrator or a committee of the board. This same situation occurs in universities, in museums with curators and managers of equal status, and in the performing arts with artistic directors and administrators, to name just a few (Raymond & Greyer, 1978).

With multiple and interacting management networks, each sharing in the responsibility for the delivery of service, accountability is very difficult to clarify let alone can feedback be guaranteed about the quality and nature of the service. With individual and specialized management hierarchies reporting to the board of directors, the board of directors, rather than top manager appointed by the board, assumes responsibility for coordinating and rationalizing professional and administrative issues (Selby, 1978). Yet it has only been in recent years that boards of directors have come to realize the extent of the administrative responsibilities that accompany their legal and fiscal responsibilities. The traditional board of directors of the past, stereotyped as 'encrusted bastions of the elite' are only now giving way to concerned, committed volunteers dedicated to the awesome management task they face (Raymond &

Greÿser, 1978).

<u>The issue of authority</u>. Challenged, and in some cases even undermined, by competing, parallel managerial hierarchies, the top administrator is faced with a management job nearly devoid of meaningful authority. If one subscribes to classical business management theory, one recognizes the dilemma this poses:

> Authority is the key to the management job. It is the right inherent in a position to utilize discretion in such a way that enterprise or department objectives are set and achieved. (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972, p. 56)

Koontz & O'Donnell (1972) go on to say:

> . . . The authority vested in a managerial position is the right to use discretion, the right to create and maintain an environment for the performance of individuals working together in groups. . . . Authority is the basis for responsibility and is the binding force in organization. . . . The essence of responsibility is obligation--the obligation to one's superior to perform assigned duties. . . . managers have authority <u>delegated</u> to them, responsibility <u>exacted</u> from them, and duties <u>assigned</u> to them, all as pertain to their position. (p. 57)

The source of managerial authority is variably attributed to three different theories. The Formal Authority Theory ascribes the source of authority to the institution of private property and the complex web of rights, laws and traditions vesting in a person power over material resources. Theoretically, the Formal Authority Theory transcends all form of institutions, business, social or governmental. Each possesses certain private properties. Ultimately the origin of authority is traceable to basic elements of human group behavior that vests power in property. As basic elements of human group behavior change, so too does the social institution of authority change (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972). Based on the previous discussion of the complex constituency issues faced by service institutions, the basic truth of this theory is grossly overshadowed by the complexity of social change. Private property rights may vest certain amounts of authority in the manager in a business setting; human group behavior and group rights seems to have divested the service sector manager of authority.

The second theory, the Acceptance Theory holds that the real source of managerial authority lies with the subordinates who may accept or reject the power the manager holds over them. Central to this theory is the assent of the individual to have the superior establish authority over him. The position holds

> That a subordinate will 'accept' the authority of a command if he understands it, if he believes it consistent with organization purpose and compatible with his own interests, and if he is mentally and physically able to comply with it. (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972, p. 59)

Within the employment content, the most important advantages of accepting authority, and disadvantage of rejecting authority, arise from the manager's power to grant or withhold financial rewards or to dismiss the subordinate. Acceptance can hardly be considered genuine where the subordinate's alternative is to quit his job or be fired. Economic necessity dictates the "acceptance" of certain managerial commands. If acceptance were truly the genuine source of authority, the manager would be in a position of not knowing from one command to another if he would be obeyed and until he was obeyed, he would have no authority to command.

Perhaps then, the acceptance theory is actually discussing the conditions of leadership rather than authority. Within the volunteer content, the acceptance theory may partially suggest the basis of managerial authority over a workforce where

> (1) no one ever <u>needs</u> to take these jobs; (2) no one is ever <u>forced</u> to stay with a job; (3) the time that one gives to these jobs is defined by the person themselves; (4) there is no paycheck. (Stringer, 1979, p. 10)

Leadership skills, more than formal managerial authority may be a crucial ingredient in harnessing and directing volunteers. The choice component for a volunteer workforce is radically different from the economic necessity of the employee. Leadership skills may also be the key ingredient in coordinating groups of professionals with independent and parallel management hierarchies. Devoid of formal authority, the service institution manager must build concensus with those whom he must work to accomplish the service delivery aims of the organization.

The Competence Theory offers the third explanation of the origins of managerial authority (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972). With a closer affinity to the acceptance theory, rather than the formal authority theory, this belief holds that authority derives from personal qualities or technical competence. Through sheer strength of personality and some specific professional competence, the manager is able to exert influence on subordinates by offering sound advice or furnishing answers.

Managers versus leaders. If managerial authority in the service sector derives largely from personal qualities of leadership, a significant dilemma is posed to the tradition interpretations of the manager's role. The motivations, personal histories, actions and thoughts of managers are qualitatively very different from those characteristics of leaders (Zaleznik, 1977).

Persons described as "leaders" rely on power to influence the thoughts and actions of other people. They often accept high risk positions and tend to prefer intense, emotional relationship with a few significant friends. A leader seldom takes things for granted and is continuously struggling for a sense of order. Leaders tend to feel separate from most other people. While they may work in an organization, they never really "belong" to it. Their sense of who they are does not depend on membership, work roles or other indicators of social identity. Williams James' concept of being "twice born" applies to the leader; their sense of self derives from intense self understanding and introspection usually resulting from some personal crisis situation they have had to resolve. While there is no known way to train leaders, their development is enhanced through a close mentor type of relationship (Zeleznik, 1977).

The manager, on the other hand, is characterized as a problem-solver and a harmonizer of conflict situations. Managers identify with the institution they are a member of and their sense of mission in life and general well being is derived from this affiliation. Managers prefer to work with people, avoiding solitary activity because it makes them anxious. Managers avoide intense emotional relationships, in favor of reconciling differences, seeking compromise and establishing new balances of power. Managers see themselves as conservators and regulators of an existing order of agency affairs with which they personally identify and from which they gain rewards. Their sense of authority derives from their position within the organization and the resources they may allocate in accomplishing the goals of the organization. Not only are managers and leaders different from one another, but the type of environment conducive to the development and support of the one, if often antithical to the other (Zaleznik, 1977).

Where then does this management/leadership/authority dilemma leave the "manager" of service institutions? He is given the title of manager, but robbed of meaningful authority. He is placed in command of an institution of professionals reporting to other professionals. He is asked to harness volunteer resources without controls to guarantee their compliance. He is told to accomplish certain organizational aims, but demanded to satisfy numerous and competing demands from multiple diverse constituencies. He must efficiently and effectively administer a budget, but the rewards of this effective performance accrues to the consumer. He is forced to rely on skills of leadership in winning compliance, or at least placating dissidents, but may lack leadership skills which cannot be "taught." He must rely on a board of directors to harmonize agency functions, but boards meet infrequently and often lack the time, ability or understanding necessary to address the complex task they face. And finally, his most tangible measure of performance is the size of his budget as service delivery measures are more difficult to identify, quantity and evaluate.

<u>Managers of Volunteer Service Program</u>

According to the <u>Standards and Guidelines for the Field of Volunteerism</u> (Jacobson, 1978) the manager of a volunteer services program, is defined as the "person responsible for developing and implementing [the] volunteer program of a given agency/organization, and managing volunteers" (p. 32). This person typically works in a service organization, although there are notable exceptions to this role. The Exxon Corporation hires a full time director for its Voluntary Involvement Program (VIP) to facilitate the volunteer activity of its employees in community service projects ("An Invitation to Action," 1974; Hoey, 1973). The growing numbers of volunteer administrators in private corporations in New York City has given rise to a local professional association to address the needs of this unique group, the Corporate Volunteer Coordinators Council. While this exception is notable and suggests a future trend in volunteer services administration, the group remains comparatively small and nonrepresentative of the general population.

Goals, performance measures and motivation. Operating within service institutions, volunteer services program administrators generally encounter many of the same organizational problems discussed throughout this section. The lack of a clear, generally shared organizational purpose directly effects the operation of a volunteer services program. Stenzel and Feeney (1976) indicated that volunteers differ from paid staff persons in that their service involvement in an organization is often directly related to the goal of the agency. Lacking a clearly defined organizational goal volunteer involvement may be difficult to achieve, or may occur for personal reasons not entirely consistent with the organizations purpose. Careful program planning based upon a clearly defined goal and measurable objectives is the subject of a considerable volume of literature in the field (ACTION, 1974; Sorum, 1977; Wesby, 1978; Wilson, 1976). Not only must the program identify its directions, but the volunteer effort needs to fit into the overall organizational content to be meaningful (Wesby, 1978).

The logical extension of performance measures based on organizational and program goals are of particular significance to the volunteer administrator. As discussed, a budget-based system militates against setting priorities and focuses primarily on the maintenance and growth of enabling funding (Drucker, 1974). This system indirectly rewards staff in that jobs are maintained (Selby, 1978), but offers no reinforcement whatsoever to the direct service volunteer and only minimal reinforcement to the policy making and/or board member volunteer.

Mechanism must be found to motivate and sustain the interest and commitment of volunteers. This is a key function of the volunteer services program administrator (Abrahamson, 1954; Blumberg & Arsenian, 1960; Gidron, 1978; Hardy, 1978; Jacobson, 1978; Karelitz, 1977; Kelly, 1978; Knowles, 1971; Loeser, 1979; McAlea, 1978; Naylor, 1973, 1976; Nehnevajsa & Karelitz, 1976; Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt, 1975; Stockman, 1977; Wilson, 1976). The motivational theories of Maslow, Herzberg, Atkinson, McClelland, Lewin and other psychologists, industrial psychologists, and management experts, have been applied to the field (Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt, 1975; Wilson, 1976). Augmenting these approaches, Kotler's (1975) marketing techniques based on an exchange of values methodology, have been tried and recommended as a way to enhance the appeal of volunteer service opportunities (Barbeito & Hoel, 1977; Sparks & George, 1979). Career exploration and skills development through volunteer activity has gained considerable momentum as a motivational technique in the wake of the women's movement (CNO, 1977; Lobb, 1976; Loeser, 1974, 1979). Without direct monetary rewards or readily measurable performance standards to evaluate volunteer contributions, the ongoing task of sustaining a volunteer's interest, is a central concern to the administrator.

Internal and community relations. The need to recruit, retain and recognize volunteer activity contributes to the major public relations responsibility of the administrator. Speeches to public service groups, feature stories in newspapers, public service spot announcements, and promotional brochures are just a few of the techniques employed by the administrator (Drake, 1974). The diversity of techniques suggests the diversity of competencies required by the administrator to fulfill this one function. In addition to public relations skills, the administrator needs skills in interviewing volunteers, designing appropriate volunteer placements and job descriptions and ability for ongoing supervision of volunteers (Jacobson, 1978; ee, 1977; Naylor, 1973, 1976; New York Mayor's Office, 1972; Schindler-

Rainman & Lippitt, 1975; Wilson, 1976). Because a volunteer workforce is very diversified and may include students, minorities, retired persons and middle age persons with varying degrees of education and from multiple socio-economic backgrounds, the administrator must be capable of working well with all types of persons and sensitive to widely divergent needs and aspirations.

The qualifications and experiences volunteers bring to the job cannot be categorized, nor standardized. Consequently the administrator assumes major training responsibilities. In Volunteer Training and Development, Stenzel & Feeney (1976) detail the training functions of the administrator and recommend approaches to orientation, pre-service and in-service education programs. Training needs were identified as the key, critical issue facing volunteer action centers (Spencer, 1977).

The non-profit sector is faced with multiple constituencies to work with and satisfy, so too is the volunteer services administrator. Schwartz (1978) identifies four major constituencies. The volunteer group itself is the primary constituency which must be handled and satisfied. This group alone is infinitely complex. Persons from every conceivably station in life may volunteer for an equally wide range of motivational factors. The growing interest in advocacy volunteerism suggests that the administrator becomes a conduit for change within an agency (Hatfield, 1978) as well as the supervisor and sustainer of direct service personnel. Maintaining a harmonious climate among volunteers with differing perceptions of their role is no mean task.

Volunteers are members of the larger community surrounding the agency. Recruitment efforts designed to attract volunteers inevitably convey a message about the agency to the larger community. The type of message delivered effects the agencies' external public image. Are volunteers needed because the agency just lost funds and public support, or are they essential to extend the outreach of an agency concerned about its responsibility to deliver personalized service? Public speaking engagements, newspaper articles and brochures reach many more persons than the actual number of volunteers recruited as a result of their efforts. The administrator is responsible for building and helping maintain a positive public image of the agency to recruit immediate volunteers and to interest potential ones (Bower, 1977; Wilson, 1976).

The second clientele of the administrator is the professional staff, administrators and support personnel within an agency (Schwartz, 1978). Agency staff nonsupport of volunteers is a major and pervasive impediment to effective program operations (CNO, 1963; Magoon, 1972; Scheier, 1972, 1977, 1978; Wilson, 1976). Staff fear that volunteers will threaten their job security; will be unprofessional; may expose the weakness of the agency to public scrutiny, will be uncontrollable and unreliable, and may actually harm the client (Scheier, 1972, 1978). The administrator is called upon to provide training to staff about voluntarism and volunteer utilization (Cox, 1977; Trost, 1977; Schwartz, 1977) and must be adept at problem-solving, conflict resolution, and harmonizing multiple work forces. The issue of multiple management hierarchies within an organization compounds the importance of this relationship issue. Distinct approaches may be necessary to convince social workers, physicians and nurses of the value of volunteer involvement in an agency.

The volunteer administrator must also work effectively with the agency executive director and board of directors (Schwartz, 1978). The role of the volunteer must be clarified, and their contribution to the agency documented in experiential and financial terms. Documenting the cost-effectiveness of a volunteer services programs rests with the administrator (Moore, 1978). While the board of directors of the agency is generally comprised of volunteers this, in and of itself, insures no greater ease of relationships (Root, 1978; Wilson, 1976). The board seldom regards itself as "volunteers" (except when expedient to do so) and loses sight of the important support function volunteers provide to the agency. Effective relationships with the policy making members of the agency is necessary to insure a favorable allocation of financial resources to the program (Hanson & Marmaduke, 1972).

The last, and also internally diversified constituency facing the administrator, is that of the clients receiving volunteer services (Schwartz, 1978). Does the client want volunteer assistance, and if so, what type of service and from whom, must be ascertained to insure a harmonious match between the volunteer and the client.

The volunteer administrator is on the "cutting-edge" of the multiple constituency issue facing service institutions (Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt, 1975; Wilson, 1976). A change in public sentiment about an agency will immediately impact a volunteer services program. Volunteers have the choice to serve and the choice to leave an agency if it loses public favor. Confusion and strain resulting from poor staff relations or a change in management philosophy equally effects volunteer performance. The traditions, philosophy and goals of the agency must be interpreted to the volunteer workforce as well as concerns facing the agency which receive public attention or effect agency policy. With a vacuum of financial rewards, volunteers require an understanding of the agency to maintain commitment to the operational policies effecting the achievement of organizational aims. The volunteers' relationship with other community groups magnifies the importance of this concern. A knowledgeable, satisfied volunteer workforce will enhance an agency's reputation in the community.

With multiple constituencies to work with, effective communication skills are essential. The administrator must work with and harmonize the efforts and concerns of the multiple constituencies described, must have the ability to speak before public audiences, must be capable of conveying in writing the mission of the agency and the contribution of volunteers and must be able to train the volunteer to perform essential services (Hanlon, 1975; O'Connell, 1976; Schwartz, 1977, 1978; Stenzel & Feeney, 1976; Wilson, 1976). Wilson (1976) suggests the importance of the pervasive and dynamic ingredient of communication to all phases of the administrator's position:

> - The Role of a Manager is basically one of communication--the giving and receiving of information and sharing of experiences and meaning as they affect all else we do. The style of leadership determines the mode of communication.
> - The Organizational Climate is determined by communications as they exist between manager and staff; staff and volunteers; staff and client; volunteer and client; and, volunteer and volunteer.
> - Motivation is impossible to determine or maintain if a person is not effectively heard and the message acted upon; and
> - Planning, Evaluation, Job Design, Interviewing, and Training, all are inextricably linked to effective communications. (p. 162)

Deriving managerial authority from the acceptance theory and the competence theory (Koontz & O'Donnell, 1972) the importance of communication skills escalates. The leader of meet each of these responsibilities essential to job performance.

References

Abrahamson, J. Who volunteers? and why? Adult Leadership, 1954, 3, 14-16; 36.

ACTION. American volunteers-1974 (ACTION Pamphlet No. 4000-17). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, February 1975.

ACTION. Planning by objectives (ACTION Pamphlet No. 400-15). Washington, D.C.: ACTION's National Student Volunteer Program, June 1974.

Adams, J. S. Interviewing procedures. Chapel Hill, N.C.: University of North Carolina, 1958.

Allen, K. K., & Schindler, A. Is volunteerism in trouble? Voluntary Action Leadership, Summer 1978, 35-36.

An invitation to action. HQ Houston, November 1974, 2-5.

Balderston, F. E. Managing today's university. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1974. "Constituencies and academic organizations"

Barbeito, C. L., & Hoel, R. Recruitment: A super market of volunteers. Voluntary Action Leadership, Summer 1977, 13-16.

Blumberg, A., & Arsenian, S. A deeper look at volunteers: What motivates these important people. Adult Leadership, June 1950, 9; 11.

Bower, J. L. Effective public management. Harvard Business Review, 1977, 55 (2), 131- .

Cabot, L. W. Corporate support of education: No strings attached. Harvard Business Review, 1978, 51 (4), 13 - .

Career lattice enhances volunteer job mobility. Voluntary Action News, June 1974, 2.

College curricula for the leadership of human service volunteer programs: A report of a conference. Boulder, Co., November 9-10, 1970 (NICOV-VIC) (NICOV).

Council of National Organizations for Adult Education (CNO). Probing volunteer-staff relations. New York: Association Press, 1963.

Council of National Organizations for Adult Education (CNO). I CAN: A tool for assessing skills acquired through volunteer service. New York: RAMCO Associates, 1977.

Cox, J. H. The doll house: An adventure in staff/volunteer cooperation. Volunteer Administration, 1977, 10 (3), 10-13.

Drake, S. C. PR techniques for student volunteer programs. Synergist, 1974, 3 (2), 30-38.

Drucker, P. F. Management: Tasks, responsibilities, practices. New York: Harper & Row, 1974.

Drucker, P. F. Managing the third sector. Wall Street Journal, October 3, 1978, 24; 4.

Ellis, S. J., & Noyes, K. H. By the people. Philadelphia: Energize, 1978.

First National Conference on Education for Voluntary Action. Ann Arbor, Michigan, October 21-24, 1973.

Gedron, B. Volunteer work and its rewards. Volunteer Administration, 1979, 11 (3), 18-32.

Gordon, R. L. Interviewing: Strategies, techniques and tactics. Homewood, Ill.: Dorsey Press, 1969.

Gowdey, A. C., Cooper, R., & Scheier, I. H. Report on an educational needs survey for the leadership of volunteers. Boulder, Co.: National Information Center on Volunteerism, 1976.

Hadfield, D. L. The director of volunteers as a change agent. Volunteer Administration, 1978, 11 (1), 1-6.

Hanlon, B. Is anybody listening: Training in a new listening technique enhances the effectiveness of service volunteers. Voluntary Action Leadership, Summer 1975, 21-24; 30-32.

Hanson, P. L., & Marmaduke, C. T. The board member--decision maker for the nonprofit corporation. Sacramento, Ca.: Han/Mar Publications, 1972.

Hardy, P. Experience and training records: Volunteer recognition that counts. Volunteer Administration, 1978, 11 (1), 27-31.

Herzlinger, R. Why data systems in nonprofit organization fail. Harvard Business Review, 1977, 55 (1), 81-86.

Hoey, C. V., Jr. Bridge builders, role models and change agents--how to involve business in voluntarism. Paper presented at the Annual Forum of the National Conference on Social Welfare, Atlantic City, New Jersey, May 29, 1973.

Hootman (Rehnborg), S. J. AAVSC-research questionnaire results. Boulder, Co.: Association for Administration of Volunteer Services, March 1975.

Hyman, H. H. Interviewing in social research. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954.

Ilsley, P. Preparing and training the volunteer coordinator: A model for program management. In J. A. Niemi and E. M. Stone (Eds.), Volunteerism at the crossroads: A challenge for adult educators. Hillside, Ill.: Northern Illinois University, 1978b.

Ilsley, P. Voluntarism: An action proposal for adult educators. In J. A. Niemi and E. M. Stone (Eds.), Volunteerism at the crossroads: A challenge for adult educators. Hillside, Ill.: Northern Illinois University, 1978a.

Jacobson, A. (Ed.). Standards and guidelines for the field of Volunteerism. Arlington, Va.: Association of Volunteer Bureaus, Inc., 1978.

Jordan, V. E., Jr. Voluntarism in America: We cannot live for ourselves alone. Vital Speeches, July 1, 1977, 43, 493-495.

Karelitz, A. P. Motivations for volunteering. In Some views on volunteering (UCUR-77-V5). Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, University Center for Urban Research, December 1977.

Katz, R. L. Skills of an effective administrator. Harvard Business Review, 1974, 52 (5), 90-102.

Kelly, D. Motivating volunteers: The human energy crisis. Voluntary Action Leadership, Summer 1978, 23-27.

Knowles, M. S. Motivation in volunteerism; Synopsis of a theory. Journal of Voluntary Action Research, 1971, 1 (2), 27-29.

Koontz, H., & O'Donnell, C. Principles of management: An analysis of managerial functions (5th ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1972.

Kotler, P. Marketing for nonprofit organizations. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1975.

Lee, J. J. Preparing for the personnel interview. In L. F. Moore & J. C. Anderson (Eds.), Volunteer administration: Readings for the practitioner. Vancouver, B.C.: Voluntary Action Resource Center, 1977.

Leppert, A. Voluntarism: State of the art. In J. A. Niemi and E. M. Stone (Eds.), Volunteerism at the crossroads: A challenge for adult educators. Hillside, Ill.: Northern Illinois University, 1978.

Levitt, T. Management and the post industrial society. The Public Interest, Summer 1976, Lobb, C. Exploring careers through volunteerism. New York: Richard Rosen Press, 1972.

Loeser, H. Women, work and volunteering. Boston: Beacon Press, 1974.

Loeser, H. Volunteer careers and skill development. Volunteer Administration, 1978/1979, 11 (4), 14-17.

Lynn, L. E., Jr., & Seidl, J. M. 'Bottom-line' management for public agencies. Harvard Business Review, 1977, 55 (1), 144- .

Magoon, E. Volunteer-staff relationships: A team approach. In L. F. Moore & J. C. Anderson (Eds.), Volunteer Administration: Readings for the practitioner. Vancouver, B. C.: Voluntary Action Resource Center, 1977.

Mallott, R. H. Corporate support for education: Some strings attached. Harvard Business Review, 1978, 56 (4), 13 - .

Manser, G., & Cass, R. H. Volunteerism at the crossroads. New York: Family Services Association of America, 1976.

McAlea, S. Motivating volunteers: Preparing the volunteer for work. Voluntary Action Leadership, Summer 1978, 27-28.

McFarland, D. E. Management principles and practices. New York: Macmillan, 1958.

Mintzberg, H. The manager's job: Folklore and fact. Harvard Business Review, 1975, 53 (4), 49-61.

Moore, N. A.. The application of cost-benefit analysis to volunteer programs. Volunteer Administration, 1978, 11 (1), 7-12.

Myers, M. S. Every employee a manager. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1970.

National Association of Neighborhoods (NAN)/Alliance for Volunteerism. Urban Partnership Project, Minutes of the first meeting, Pittsburgh, November 21, 1978.

National Information Center on Volunteerism (NICOV). Educational opportunities for volunteer leaders. Voluntary Action Leadership, Spring/Summer 1976, 17-18; 23-25.

Naylor, H. H. Needed: Professional competence for volunteer administration.. Paper presented at the First National Conference: Education for Voluntary Action, Ann Arbor, Michigan, October 1973.

Naylor, H. H. Volunteers today--finding, training and working with them (2nd ed.). Dryden, N.Y.: Dryden Associates, 1973.

Naylor, H. H. The need for education in volunteerism. Washington, D.C. Office of Volunteer Development, Department of Health, Education & Welfare, 1975.

Naylor, H. H. Leadership for volunteering. Dryden, N.Y.: Dryden Associates, 1976.

New York Mayor's Office for Volunteers. Guidelines for interviewers. New York: Voluntary Action Center of New York City, 1972.

Niemi, J. A. A model for the assessment of needed volunteer skills. In J. A. Niemi and E. M. Stone (Eds.), Volunteerism at the crossroads: A challenge for adult educators. Hillside, Ill.: Northern Illinois University, 1978.

Nehnevajsa, J., & Karelitz, A. P. Perspectives on motivations of volunteers: Pittsburgh SMSA (ACTION Contract No. 75-043-1047). Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh, Center for Urban Research, July 1976.

O'Connell, B. Effective leadership in voluntary organizations. New York: Association Press, 1976.

Odiorne, G. S. How managers make things happen (Rev. ed.). Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1978.

Okin, T. An address given at the Association of Volunteer Bureaus Conference, May 1973.

Proudfoot, M. B. Communication skills: A must for effective volunteer leadership. Volunteer Administration, 1978, 11 (1), 32-37.

Raymond, T. J. C., & Greyser, S. A. The business of managing the arts. Harvard Business Review, 1978, 56 (4), 123-132.

Rehnborg, S. J. Proposed certificate program on volunteer administration. Unpublished manuscript, Adelphi University, 1978.

Rehnborg, S. J. Passages in the life of a profession: A discussion of professional certification and the administration of volunteer services programs. Unpublished manuscript, University of Pittsburgh, 1979.

Root, N. D. The volunteer board as "community." Volunteer Administration, 1976, 9 (2-3), 11-19.

Scheier, I. H. Orienting staff to volunteers: A guidebook. Boulder, Co.: National Information Center on Volunteerism, 1972.

Scheier, U. H. NICOV takes a look at ... staff nonsupport of volunteers. Voluntary Action Leadership, Fall 1977, 32-36.

Scheier, I. H. Winning with staff: A new look at staff support for volunteers. Boulder, Co.: National Information Center on Volunteerism, 1978.

Schindler-Rainman, E., & Lippitt, R. The volunteer community (2nd. ed.). Fairfax, Va.: NTL Learning Resources Corporation, 1975.

Schwartz, F. S. Training a professional staff to work with the program volunteer. Volunteer Administration, 1977, 10 (1), 10-14.

Schwartz, F. S. Volunteerism in the social work curriculum. Volunteer Administration, 1978, 11 (1), 38-42.

Seidler, V. M. The historical origins of the American volunteer. In Wm. A. Glaser & D. L. Sills (Eds.), The government of associations. Tokowa, N. J.: Bedminister Press, 1966.

Shaw, M. B., & Stubblefield, H. W. The professional preparation of practicing voluntary action leaders: A role for the university. In H. W. Stubblefield, T. M. Sherman & W. L. Saunders, Jr. (Eds.), Roles of colleges and universities in volunteerism. Blacksburg, Va.: Donaldson Brown Center for Continuing Education, 1977.

Smith, D. H. Types of volunteers and voluntary action. Volunteer Administration, July 1972, 3-10.

Smith, D. H. Research. Voluntary Action Leadership, Spring/Summer 1976, 12-15.

Sorum, J. Results-oriented thinking. Unpublished manuscript, 1977. (Available from[author's address]).

Sparks, D. M., & George, W. R. Marketing for volunteer service organizations: A case study. Volunteer Administration, 1978/1979, 11 (4), 1-7.

Spencer, C. B. Volunteer bureaus--the critical issues. Volunteer Administration, 1977, 10 (3), 34-36.

Stenzel, A. K., & Feeney, H. M. Volunteer training and development: A manual. New York: Seabury Press, 1976.

Stockman, L. The youthful volunteer in the seventies: A tarnished vision. Volunteer Administration, 1977, 10 (2), 19-25.

Straus, E. S. The volunteer professional. New York: Straus Communications, 1972.

Stringer, G. E. Turmoil at the top. Volunteer Administration, 1978/1979, 11 (4), 8-13.

Trost, A. Volunteer program management: A suggested community college curriculum. Sacramento, Calif.: California Community Colleges Chancellor's Office, circa 1975. (undated).

Trost, L. S. MSW attitudes toward direct service volunteers. Volunteer Administration, 1977, 10 (3), 14-23.

Walker, J. M., & Smith, D. H. Higher education programs for administrators of volunteers. Volunteer Administration, 10 (3), 1-9.

Wesby, M. Volunteer program planning: MBO--what it is and what it can do for you. Voluntary Action Leadership, Fall 1978, 23-26.

Wilson, M. The effective management of volunteer programs. Boulder, Co.: Volunteer Management Associates, 1976.

Wilson, R. R. Brief survey of practitioner's observations and attitudes about volunteerism in America today. Paper presented at the First National Conference on Education for Voluntary Action, Ann Arbor, Michigan, October 21-24, 1973.

Wolozin, H. The value of volunteer services in the United States (ACTION Pamphlet No. 3530-4). Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September 1976.

Zaleznik, A. Managers and leaders: Are they different? Harvard Business Review, 1977, 55 (3), 67-