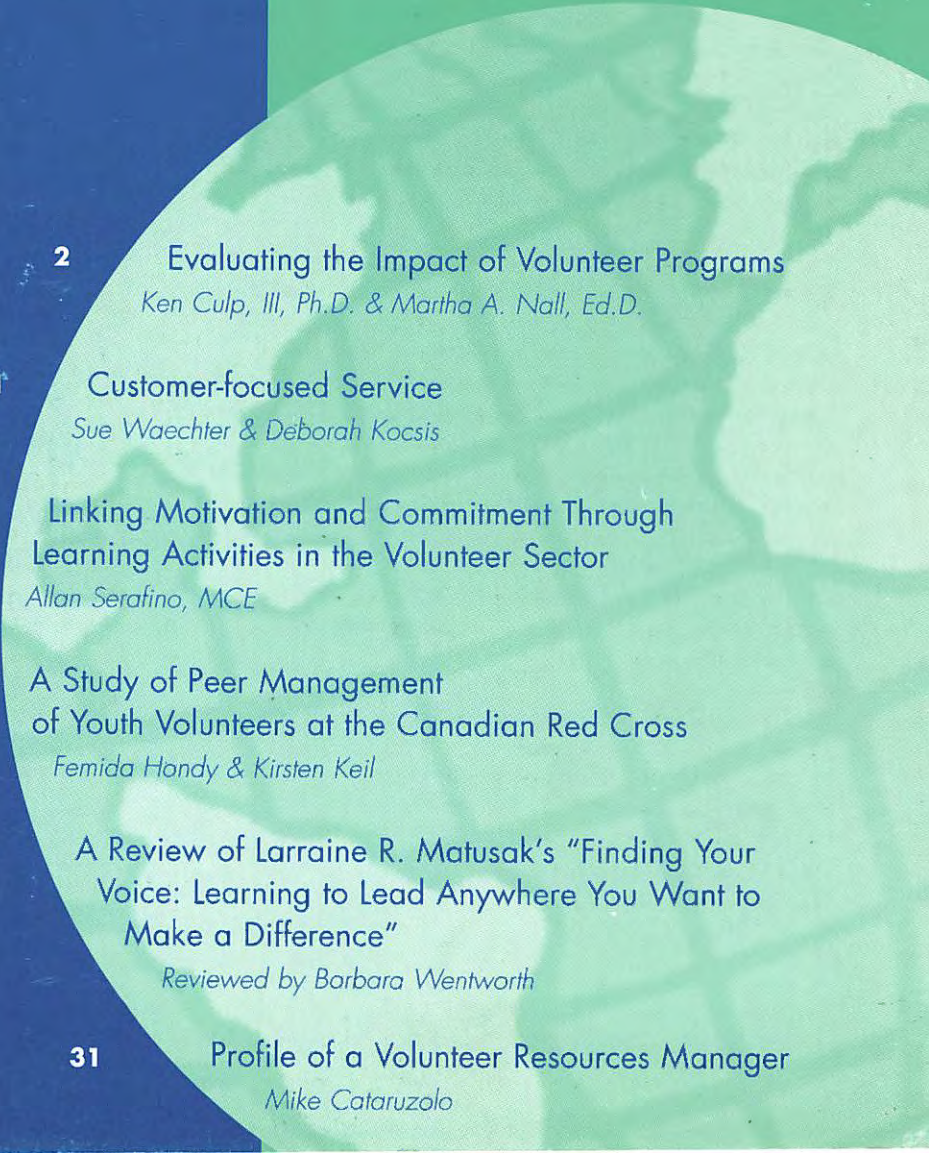


AVA

Association for Volunteer Administration

Volume 19
Number 4

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

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ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

The Association for Volunteer Administration, an international membership organization, enhances the competence of its members and strengthens the profession of volunteer resources management. Members include directors of volunteer resources in a wide variety of settings, agency executives, association officers, educators, researchers, consultants, students— anyone who shares a commitment to the effective utilization of volunteers.

Membership in AVA is open to salaried and non-salaried persons in all types of public, non-profit, and for-profit settings who choose to join with AVA to promote and support effective leadership in volunteerism.

AVA is an association run by its members. Active committees include: Professional Development, Fund Development, Organizational Relations, Communications, Member Services and Network Development. Members also plan the annual International Conference on Volunteer Administration, a major event held each year in a different city in the United States or Canada. This conference provides participants the opportunity to share common concerns and to focus on issues of importance to professionalism in volunteer administration.

Two major services that AVA provides, both for its members and for the field at large, are a professional credentialing program and an educational endorsement program. Through the process that recognizes leaders of volunteer programs who demonstrate professional performance standards, AVA furthers respect for and appreciation of the profession of volunteer administration. Similarly, AVA educational endorsement is given to those workshops, courses, conferences, and training events that provide opportunities for professional growth in volunteer resource management.

Finally, AVA produces publications including informational newsletters and booklets and *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*.

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The Journal of Volunteer Administration is published quarterly. Subscription fees are discounted for members of the Association for Volunteer Administration. Non-members may subscribe at a cost of \$45 per year. Subscribers in Canada and Mexico should add \$5 per year to cover additional postage and handling. Subscribers outside the United States, Canada, and Mexico should add \$15 per year for additional postage and handling costs. Checks or money orders (payable through a U.S. bank or in \$US) should be made payable to: Association for Volunteer Administration.

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ISSN 0733-6535

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Printed on acid-free paper with soy ink.

Introduction

Show me; don't tell me. In today's world, professionals in all fields are expected to demonstrate clearly the solutions they provide for a multitude of problems, ranging from slow internet connections to families so poor they can barely afford shelter, much less a computer. The same holds true for volunteer administrators, and rightly so. In this issue of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*, Drs. Ken Culp and Martha Nall provide an evaluation primer for managers of volunteer resources, stressing the necessity of measuring the impacts of volunteer programs on clients as well as volunteers.

Along similar lines, Sue Waechter and Deborah Kocsis remind readers that nonprofits must provide excellent customer service to all their constituents, just as for-profit companies must do to survive. Competition for volunteers and dollars is keen. Nonprofit organizations which focus on their clients are more likely to attract dedicated volunteers and funders.

While volunteers are motivated by a variety of factors, Allan Serafino states that volunteers who learn by methods best suited to them will be more motivated and committed to the organization. He makes a key point—what volunteers learn in their roles in the organization must be congruent with what they are allowed to do in the organization.

Leading by example continues to yield powerful results around the world. Peer youth leaders volunteering in Canadian Red Cross programs have increased retention of many young volunteers and have encouraged them to consider lifelong connections with the Red Cross. These peer leaders have learned what the author of this issue's featured book writes "leadership ... is a process, it is relational, it is making something happen—it is leaving a mark."

This issue closes with an interview of Mike Cataruzolo, CVA, a dedicated AVA member and volunteer administrator, who has shown what he is capable of accomplishing even though he is legally blind. Cataruzolo makes it clear to all of us that taking action can have far-reaching, positive impacts on individuals and communities around the world.

L. Paige Tucker, CVA, MPA
Interim Editor-in-Chief

ABSTRACT

A major challenge of volunteer driven organizations is the need to document the impact of volunteer efforts and accomplishments. Assessment and documentation are important to the organization, volunteer administrator(s), clientele, stakeholder groups and volunteers. Determining the impact of volunteer programs requires assessing the outcomes in terms of both the project and the growth and development of the volunteer. When evaluation is a planned part of program development and goals are determined for the impact on the target audience, the community as well as the volunteers, it is possible to truly assess the outcomes of the program.

Evaluating the Impact of Volunteer Programs

Ken Culp, III, Ph.D. and Martha A. Nall, Ed.D.

INTRODUCTION

A major challenge facing volunteer-driven organizations is the need to document the impact of volunteer efforts and accomplishments. Because volunteer administrators expend time, money and resources on volunteer involvement and development, it is essential to assess and document the impact of volunteer accomplishments as well as to justify the expense of volunteer programs (Ellis, 1986). Both assessment and documentation are of great importance and interest to the organization, volunteer administrator(s), clientele, stakeholder groups and funders, as well as the volunteers themselves. No one wants to contribute time, energy or resources to something which has no benefit, impact or useful outcome.

One of the most uncreative — and least helpful — questions posed to volunteer administrators is: “How many volunteers do we have and how many hours did they give

us last year?” (Ellis, 1986). For many volunteer administrators, documentation consists of counting numbers: of volunteers, volunteer hours served, program participants and clientele reached. However, simply presenting the number of hours served without analyzing what was accomplished during those hours is not worth compiling. One of the problems in evaluating volunteer achievement is that certain types of volunteer positions require services which are described in terms of quality rather than quantity such as mentoring, counseling and youth development roles. (Bradner, 1999). These usually have long-term outcomes that make annual assessment of impact impractical.

The increasing pressure to provide evidence of the effectiveness of social programs and initiatives has led to a strong focus on outcome evaluation. Demonstrating effectiveness and measuring outcomes and impact are important and valuable components of vol-

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unteer programs (Curnan & LaCava, 1998).

Part of the evaluative challenge facing volunteer administrators is to move beyond counting numbers of volunteers, program participants and hours served toward understanding other aspects of volunteer program evaluation. Another challenge facing volunteer administrators and leadership educators lies in helping program coordinators understand, interpret and articulate the differences between the terminology which is utilized in the profession to describe volunteer program evaluation as well as to determine the value of volunteer efforts. These terms include *evaluation*, *program assessment* and *impact*. Finally, volunteer administrators need to assess the level of evaluation which their organization is currently utilizing, as well as determining the most appropriate level for the volunteer program which is being conducted.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of literature will be divided into two sections. The first section will focus on defining the terms which are often utilized in volunteer program evaluation. The second section includes a discussion of three different program evaluation models.

Definition of Terms, as defined by Neufeldt and Guralnik (1988):

- **Evaluation:** 1) to find the value or amount; 2) to judge or determine the worth or quality; 3) to find the numeric value; expressed in numbers; 4) estimate.
- **Assessment:** 1) to set an estimate or value; 2) to estimate or determine the importance or value.
- **Impact:** 1) the power of an event or program; 2) to produce changes, move the feelings.

A comparison of terms finds three key similarities in the definitions of evaluation and assessment. These include the words "value," "estimate" and "determine." According to Neufeldt & Guralnik (1988), these terms are

nearly synonymous. Impact, however, has a different meaning. Whereas the definitions of evaluation and assessment involve establishing relative or immediate worth, or placing or estimating the value on a project, activity or program, the definition of impact focuses upon programmatic strength and the ability to produce change. Impact, therefore, is likely to involve an assessment or evaluation in the future.

Evaluation consists of gathering information to determine value and make decisions about program effectiveness. Data are often collected in order to make immediate programmatic adjustments. This is called process evaluation. Collecting data for use in long-term decision-making is called impact evaluation. Impact evaluation provides information that will assist the volunteer administrator in determining the current value or worth of a program or activity, as well as making a judgment about the power of the program and its ability to produce intended changes in the target audience—impact.

EVALUATION MODELS

Targeting Outcomes of Programs (TOP) Model

Rockwell and Bennett (1999) proposed a seven-step model that integrates volunteer activities (including volunteers and program participants, as well as their level of participation) into a hierarchy of evaluation, assessment and impact (see Figure 1.) The data collected at each level builds on information provided at the previous level of assessment, thus providing additional evidence of the program's effectiveness at each successive level (Rennekamp, 1998). The Rockwell and Bennett Model is a logic model for collecting evidence of program effectiveness leading to long-term impact. Data collection becomes increasingly difficult and expensive as the evaluator moves from assessing resources (the lowest level) to determining social, economic or environmental conditions that have changed over time (the highest level).

FIGURE 1.

**Targeting Outcomes of Programs (TOP) Model
(Rockwell & Bennett, 1999)**

Levels of Program Evaluation



Resources focus on inputs expended. Resources may include the number of volunteers who staff the activity, the number of volunteer or staff hours contributed, the number of dollars (either actual or in-kind) spent, etc. Resources may also include educational materials, communication costs and transportation (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999).

Activities include inputs which are done in order to engage the volunteers and program participants (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). Activities include educational programs, events and activities, workshops, conferences and events, service, etc. Activities must be linked to KOSA (Knowledge, Opinions, Skills and Aspirations), Practice and SEEC (Social, Economic or Environmental Conditions) in order for a successful evaluation to be conducted and for any impact data to be gathered.

Participation, the first output level, focuses on the target audience, program deliverers as well as actual attendees (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). Simply stated, participation is who comes, who is expected to come and who delivers the program. This may include individuals, organizations, families or communities.

Reactions are an immediate participant response to the activity (Rockwell & Bennett,

1999). Reactions are often collected quantitatively via a written questionnaire or qualitatively by responding either in writing or verbally to open-ended questions. Reactions may also be collected qualitatively by debriefing or collecting feedback at the conclusion of the activity. The key information being sought at this level is "What is the participant's reaction to the activity?"

KOSA provide initial impact data (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). This data is collected at the conclusion of the activity and focuses on four key questions:

"As a result of participating in this activity...

- what new knowledge did the participants gain or learn?"
- what opinions did the participants change?"
- what skills did the participants develop?"
- what aspirations do the participants have?"

Practices are a modification or change in a practice in the participant's behavior or lifestyle. Practices are intermediate outcomes which are determined with some type of follow-up evaluation (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). In order to reach the Practices level, participants must maintain a behavioral change over a period of time. For example, if a volunteer presented a lesson on healthy after school snacks to a group of youth, the program could be evaluated initially by gathering Reactions and measuring KOSA.

Assessment of the degree to which the youth actually began choosing healthy snacks, i.e., practicing recommended behaviors, cannot be determined at an end-of-meeting evaluation. It requires follow-up measurements which allow the youth to have an opportunity to choose a healthy snack, thus indicating a change of practice. Knowing and doing are two different levels. A person may know what foods are healthy, but may choose less healthy alternatives. Assessment at this level builds on KOSA and indicates practices, a higher level of evaluation.

Social, Economic or Environmental Conditions (SEEC) must be both observable and measurable and are improved as a result of having participated in the activity (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999). These are long-term outcomes which impact either social, economic or environmental conditions. The three foci of this impact level will not be obtainable for every activity and rarely on an annual basis. However, volunteer administrators should consider at least one foci (social, economic or environmental) during program planning in order to arrive at a measurable outcome in the future.

The authors expanded the TOP Model (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999) to categorize the type of measurement which can be collected at each level and the length of time needed to collect the necessary data at each level of program evaluation. To satisfy the request of an increasing number of funders, measurement at the impact level is necessary. Not only is impact measurement the most time-consuming and expensive information to collect and document, but it also depends upon the collection of information at previous levels (see Figure 2.)

STRATEGY FOR ACCOUNTABILITY:

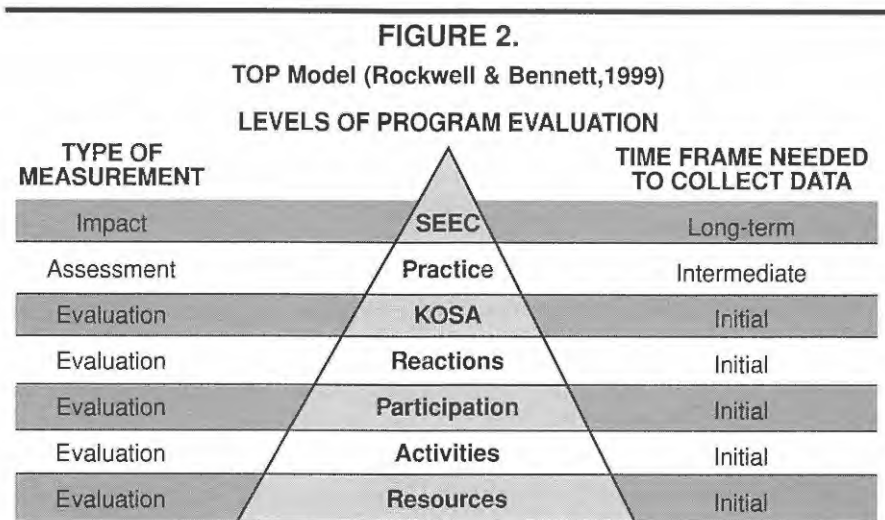
Ladewig (1999) described three performance measurement categories. These three categories include relevance, quality and accomplishments. Ladewig's performance

measurement categories were further defined by Nall (1999).

Relevance includes the processes used to identify issues and develop educational activities. Program relevance would include a description of the factors which led to the identification of the issue or need as well as the creation of the program or activity. Describing the target audience, involving planning groups, creating collaborations, conducting needs assessments, establishing priorities and projecting outcomes all provide data related to program relevance. Examples of measurable program relevance include: describing the situation which led to needs identification; the specific people or groups involved in developing and/or conducting the educational program or activity, and the process utilized to develop and implement the educational program or activity (Nall, 1999.)

Quality measurements include a variety of data. These include:

- Frequency and types of participation of target audiences
- Importance of the educational program or activity to the participants and stakeholders
- Educational methods utilized to deliver the educational activity
- Demographic information about the participants (including race, gender, age and economic status)



- Level of appropriateness (age, cultural and educational) of the educational activities for the participants
- Standards, criteria or goal achievement in certification programs or curricula
- Participant reactions (Nall, 1999).

Accomplishment measurements provide evidence and data which answer the question: What difference did this activity make to the participants? The accomplishment performance measurement determines if the participants made behavioral or practice changes. Questions to be answered may include: Did the public benefit? Was capacity built through knowledge gained, skills developed or opinions changed?" (Nall, 1999.)

STAGES OF VOLUNTEER PROGRAM EVALUATION:

Culp (1999) identified four stages of volunteer program evaluation (see Figure 3.) These four stages included: inputs, outputs, outcomes and impacts. As illustrated in Figure 3, the Stages of Volunteer Program Evaluation are steps, whereby each build upon the previous.

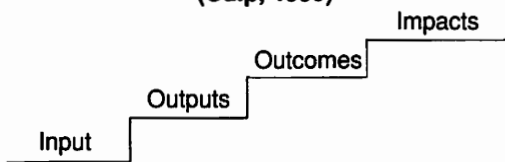
examples include: the numbers and demographic profiles of program participants who were reached or served through volunteer efforts and the participants efforts which result from the programs or activities delivered through volunteers efforts (Culp, 1999).

Outcomes are the third stage and are the output results. Outcomes are necessary in order to impact the participants. Examples of outcomes include tangible results which are expressed in numbers — the number of homes built, the amount of food collected for a food drive or the dollars realized in salary savings as a result of volunteer contributions (Culp, 1999). Additional examples of outcomes include the number of homeless people who received housing and the number of pre-cancer cases that were identified through cancer-awareness screening.

Impacts constitute the fourth stage of volunteer program evaluation. Impacts document the resulting impact of the program or activity upon the participants, the volunteers, clientele, stakeholders, community and the sponsoring organization. Examples of impacts include: the number of homeless people who became employed and improved their lifestyle and standard of living as a result of receiving housing or the number of individuals who underwent cancer screening, were diagnosed with pre-cancer and began initial treatment (Culp, 1999).

FIGURE 3:

Four Stages of Volunteer Program Evaluation (Culp, 1999)



Inputs are the initial stage and include those resources that are necessary to obtain the desired outputs. Examples of inputs include: the number of volunteers, the number of hours which the volunteers devoted to an activity, the value of the volunteer’s time, specific volunteer performance, financial and curricular educational resources (Culp, 1999).

Outputs are the second stage of volunteer program evaluation and are needed to achieve the expected outcome of the activity. Output

DISCUSSION

The work of volunteer administrators and leadership educators is often multi-faceted. Volunteer administrators need to serve the needs of clientele and fulfill the mission of the volunteer organization. They teach concepts related to the task or project such as program management, organization and leadership development. Volunteer administrators provide an opportunity for individuals to gain subject matter knowledge and skills necessary to reach a goal as well as organizational/management skills to facilitate a process also needed to reach the goal.

Volunteer administrators and leadership educators develop curriculum and teach topics such as: planning, delegation, communication, collaboration, meeting management, parliamentary procedure, group decision making, critical thinking, active and reflective listening, teamwork, group work and dynamics, conflict management, community structures and creative thinking. This infinite list of topics reflects the knowledge and skills needed to serve in various volunteer and leadership roles. There is a body of knowledge and experiences that lead to skill development that the administrator facilitates. This is usually in addition to the subject matter and content related to the project or activity. Thus, the *impact* of educational programs include what the volunteer knows and does (KOSA and Practice) as well as the social, economic or environmental conditions that are changed (SEEC) as a result of the volunteer's service (Practice).

The challenge in determining the *impact* of volunteer programs is in determining what happens as a *result* of the educational program. Accountability requires that volunteer administrators know what happens as a result of the professionals' educational efforts and what happens as a result of the volunteers' efforts. At best, volunteer administrators need to determine the accomplishments related to their programs. Volunteer administrators may know that a volunteer will use the skills and knowledge learned from educational efforts and later provide service in the community, but volunteer administrators cannot always document it.

Volunteer administrators feel the pressure to determine the outcomes and impact of volunteers who have participated in our programs. Accomplishments described in terms of what was taught, who participated and participant reactions may help volunteer administrators to determine cost effectiveness, appropriateness of methodology and the degree to which target audiences were reached (Renekamp, 1995). However, for many stake-

holders and program administrators, this is considered insufficient. Most want additional information related to knowledge gained, practices changed and social, economic or environmental conditions that are changed as a result of the volunteer administrator's efforts. To truly *evaluate* the program and determine impact, higher level data is required.

The Rockwell and Bennett hierarchy (1999) is a model for targeting outcomes of programs and has been adapted as a program development model used in planning and evaluating programs. Data may be collected at each level of the hierarchy. The data collected at the KOSA level provides stakeholders some evidence of impact and is a "stair step" to determining practice change (Rockwell & Bennett). As volunteer administrators work toward assessing impact at the SEEC level, the resources that are necessary in order to collect data and determine impact also increase. As the hierarchy is ascended, it becomes increasingly difficult to identify program outcomes that directly result from educational efforts. Because of the time lag required to determine practice changes and SEEC outcomes, it is difficult to separate program impacts from other sources of change.

See Appendix for examples of data at each level for three types of volunteer development efforts: a series of workshops, a day camp and an advisory council.

GETTING TO IMPACT

If measurable goals and objectives are articulated for the volunteer leadership program in the beginning, it will obviously be possible to ask whether these have been met (Ellis, 1986). Determining impact begins with the planning process. In order for any program evaluation or assessment to be effective, the initial step must be an identification of measurable goals and objectives. If it is important to know what the participants learned, the volunteer administrator must determine what is to be taught. This determination must be

APPENDIX

Examples of Data Gathered During Program Evaluation

Targeting Outcomes of Programs Model Rockwell & Bennett (1999)	Four Stages of Program Evaluation Culp (1999)	Workshop Series	Day Camp	Advisory Council
Social, Economic or Environmental Conditions (SEEC)	Impacts	One year later, seven of the participants reported being elected to office (for the first time) in a church or civic group or community club.	After 12 months, the school recycling project reduced the amount of trash in the county landfill by 3,000 cubic yards and raised \$1,400 from the sale of recycled aluminum.	After six months, council meetings (which formerly had lasted over three hours) were concluded in 90 minutes.
Practice Change	Impacts	Three individuals teamed up to teach parliamentary procedure to civic groups and school clubs.	12 youth organized a school-wide recycling project.	All council members were observed using active listening techniques of restating, clarifying and questioning to improve communication within the council.
Knowledge, Opinions, Skills & Aspirations (KOSA)	Outcomes	Following the parliamentary procedure workshop, all participants could correctly sequence agenda items as well as make and amend a motion.	All youth were able to group different categories of recyclables and differentiate between non-recyclables.	Following each mini-lesson, council members were asked to identify three things they planned to do to improve communication.
Reactions	Outcomes	Following each workshop, participants indicated that the material was helpful	The youth all said they enjoyed the environmental day camp and would start recycling at home.	Council members reported that they liked the mini-lessons and learned a lot.
Participation	Outputs	25 people participated in each of the four workshops.	30 youth participated in the environmental day camp.	15 council members were present for all 12 lessons and another 10 were present for 7 – 9 lessons.
Activities	Inputs	A series of four workshops were held to teach skills.	An environmental day camp was utilized to teach youth how to recycle.	One mini-lesson was taught each month for a year to achieve educational goals.
Resources	Inputs	14 staff days went into planning the event.	A \$5,000 grant provided resources to teach recycling.	12 mini-lessons each required two hours of planning and preparation.

done as a part of program planning. Writing goals and objectives is not a new or unfamiliar activity for most volunteer administrators.

What is new, however, is that volunteer administrators must write plans, set goals and determine objectives with the end result (outcome) in mind. Using the KOSA, Practice Change and SEEC levels in program planning provides a framework for determining program outcomes. If participants learn this concept or develop these skills, they can make these changes in what they do. If participants change behavioral practices, then these changes in social, economic and environmental conditions) may result.

All three models of evaluation share some similarities. Each model provides a vehicle to reach and begin measuring impacts. Although the vehicle names are different, their destination is similar, whether they are called KOSA, Practice or SEEC (Rockwell & Bennett, 1999); Accomplishments (Ladewig, 1999); or Outcomes and Impacts (Culp, 1999). To measure any impact, volunteer administrators must begin with determining what knowledge was gained or which skills, opinions or aspirations were developed.

The failure to specifically articulate goals for the project (content) as well as the individual's growth and development severely limits the potential of any evaluation or assessment activity or impact determination. Volunteer administrators often focus on the outcomes of the project rather than focusing on the long-, intermediate- or short-term benefit to the program participants. The authors suggest that volunteer administrators plan for the long-term impact upon both the program participants as well as the volunteers who deliver the program or activity.

Evaluating volunteer leadership program effectiveness is dependent upon the identification of goals that clearly articulate a benefit to the volunteers who deliver the activities to the program participants. In most cases, the volunteers themselves are not identified as an

audience. Rather, the volunteers are seen largely as a vehicle by which services, activities, educational programs or subject matter are delivered to a target audience.

To effectively assess the impact of volunteer leadership education, assessment must exist on two planes. The impact of the program, service or activity on the target audience as well as the impact upon the volunteer. Volunteer leadership development should not happen by accident. Goals and objectives related to the growth and development of the volunteer should be clearly articulated in the planning process. While it is certainly important to evaluate the outcome of the activity and its impact upon the target audience, it is equally important to plan for and assess the benefit to the volunteer. For volunteer administrators who plan for and measure the benefits upon both audiences, the impact of a single activity can be doubled!

Effective volunteer administrators should make an effort to develop knowledge and skills in those volunteers who deliver educational activities. An assessment of both the activity ("How well did the activity achieve its goals with the target audience?") as well as the impact of the activity upon the volunteers who delivered it to the target audience ("Through this experience and the training provided by the professional, what knowledge was gained, what skills were developed, or what practices were implemented by the volunteers?") must be conducted.

This constitutes a key difference between *volunteer development* and *volunteer management*. In volunteer development, volunteer administrators consider and plan for the growth and development of the volunteers who participate in and deliver activities or programs. Conversely, volunteer managers utilize volunteers to deliver programs to target audiences and often fail to plan or evaluate the benefit that the volunteers themselves might gain.

IMPLICATIONS

1. The impact of the educational activity upon volunteers becomes an intentional, planned component of programs. Anticipated impacts are clearly articulated during the planning process.
2. Volunteer administrators should focus on evaluating the impact of a volunteer education program while developing annual program plans or goals.
3. Effective program evaluation is ongoing and continuous, consisting of multiple assessments. Long-term impact requires long-term measurements.
4. Each volunteer administrator must realize that impact is not measured only in terms of quantity or numbers only, but rather in the long-term benefit or impact.

To effectively evaluate the impact of volunteer programs, multiple assessments will be needed. Additionally, volunteer administrators will double their evaluative information if they measure the impact of the educational program or activity on those volunteers who deliver it as well as on the program participants themselves. Finally, volunteer administrators who consistently measure the impact of their programs on the volunteers who deliver it in addition to the impact of the activity or the benefit to the program participants will have engaged in the business of developing as opposed to simply managing volunteers. Over time, volunteer development should improve both volunteer retention rates as well as program effectiveness.

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ABSTRACT

Amidst the chaos of our changing landscape in volunteer management, we, as leaders, sometimes get caught up in the crisis of the day. What often gets left out is the focus on those whom we serve through our volunteer programs. Theoretically, we should be able to cite how everything we plan, everything we accomplish and every decision we make is from our customer's viewpoint. That focus is difficult to maintain while we juggle all the other responsibilities of leadership. This article provides reasons why focusing on customers is so critical to our organizations today. Based on four key elements of a good customer interaction, the article lists specific actions that a volunteer manager can take to improve the focus on the customer. Together staff and volunteers can set customer service standards that guide service delivery.

Customer-focused Service

Sue Waechter and Deb Kocsis

With the constant collaborations, partnerships and reorganizations within the voluntary sector today, serving the client sometimes takes a back seat. We too often get caught up in working on other urgencies and lose focus on serving our customers. Paul Light, Vice-President and Director of Governmental Studies at the Brookings Institution in Washington, D.C. USA, declares that nonprofits need to "reclaim their ownership of terms such as innovative, strategic, and entrepreneurial." What better place in our organizations to prove our innovative-ness, strategic-ness and entrepreneurial tendencies than in how we serve our clients. They are, after all, the reason we exist.

HOW IT FEELS

As customers, you and I know how it feels to be taken for granted or ignored. We find ourselves waiting for someone to help us with a question or to select an item to purchase, waiting for someone to acknowledge us.

When they do, they may be most unpleasant for having been interrupted. Each of us has our favorite bad customer service story. And how many people have we told that story to? Recent studies have shown that for every one of us that is unhappy with an organization and talks about it, there are 20 more who are just as unhappy but have chosen not to say anything. That means that the service being delivered to your clients may be 20 times worse than you think it is!

Placing a low emphasis on positive client interactions may come back to haunt your volunteer program when it comes time for funders to evaluate the effectiveness of your services. Perhaps it will be the administration of your organization that will come to believe that the organization can, in fact, live without volunteer services.

A POSITIVE FOCUS ON CLIENTS

How can you create a positive focus on clients? Give staff and volunteers the tools

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they need to provide excellent service to each and every one of your clients. Do not assume that staff members and volunteers come to your organization with these skills in their back pockets. When providing orientation and training, give them some specific steps to follow that will allow them to consistently have a positive focus on clients. Then give them the opportunity to practice those steps so that they are prepared when they are on the front line for your organization.

WHAT DO CLIENTS WANT AND EXPECT?

Here are some presumptions about clients that we can make. See if they fit for you when you are in a customer/client role.

1. **Clients want to feel a connection to your organization.** Make sure when your clients first make contact with your organization that they feel immediately connected and welcomed. This may be in person, over the phone or via e-mail. The initial greeting sets the tone for the rest of the client's interaction with your organization. This is what we call the **Greet** step of a client interaction.

Action: Instruct your volunteers to be friendly, enthusiastic, sincere, patient and authentic about how they serve the client. Give examples of what "friendly" looks like, what "sincere and enthusiastic" sounds like and what "patient and authentic" feels like. Have a team of volunteers help you define these in their own words. Some examples are:

- When you first make eye contact with a client, always smile.
- Sound enthusiastic by keeping your voice light and upbeat. Share your pride about the program and services through the tone of your voice.
- Make good eye contact and always tell the truth; do not try to cover up for mistakes.

Action: Consider the customer service "moments of truth" in your organization. What are all the times that a client comes into contact with your organization? Is it when a volunteer answers the phone? Is it when the client receives a newsletter in the mail? Is it when the client opens an e-mail? Is it when clients walk in the door? Examples of moments of truth in your organization might be:

- A client experiences a not-so-friendly greeting when coming into the organization.
- A client's question is not answered because the volunteer does not have enough information.
- A team member, an internal customer, working on a fundraising event does not feel valued by the volunteer team leader.
- A client's call is lost in the phone system when the volunteer attempts to transfer the call.
- A volunteer board member, out in the community, talks negatively about a decision made in the last board meeting.

Get the volunteers together who have client contact while doing their jobs. Work with them to list all the possible opportunities for client interaction and then evaluate those "moments of truth" according to whether they think they are positive or negative experiences for your clients. Have the volunteers define actions to take to eliminate or improve negative interactions. If necessary, talk to your clients to find out exactly what they think about their interactions with your organization.

2. **Clients want to be understood.** Your clients want to know that the organization and people who staff it can meet their needs. This step requires your staff and volunteers to ask good questions to make sure that the client's needs, requests and situation are understood fully. Asking open-ended questions can help to delve into the client's situation. Many times, those who serve the clients directly make

quick assumptions about clients when they first come in or call in. That can cause trouble. Be open to hearing about the situation. We call this the **Scope** step.

Action: Teach volunteers to:

- Let the client tell his or her story first
- Ask open-ended questions in order to scope for the real needs of the client
- Check for understanding with the client.

3. **Clients want to feel important enough that their requests are taken care of completely.** We call this the **Own** step — owning the client’s need long enough to sufficiently take care of it. This happens when staff and volunteers are empowered to solve the problem. How much authority do they currently have to meet the client’s needs? Staff and volunteers usually do not feel as empowered as the leadership would like them to think they are. Because of policies, procedures, systems and processes, staff and volunteers often have to jump through hoops and get approval to take care of something that is outside their typical tasks.

Action: Give staff and volunteers the freedom to act and assure them that meeting the client’s needs is foremost. Do this by talking about their ability to make decisions to meet the client’s needs. Give them examples of situations in which they might find themselves and talk through what they have the authority to do in that situation. Define the true boundaries that staff and volunteers have regarding regulations, safety, and liability. Dispel myths about other false or perceived boundaries. Then ask them to be creative within those boundaries to meet the client’s needs. Reward them when they are creative.

4. **Clients want to feel satisfied.** We call this client interaction step **Close**. Clients need closure with your organization. Too often we go from one impersonal interaction to another during the day, especially with the use of technology. Understand that the relationship with your client is important. They want to be sent away with a good word or salutation. “Please” and “thank you” are often lost in many customer interactions.

Instruct volunteers to add a closure and a follow-up, when appropriate, to their client interactions. Be sure that services are evaluated either in written or verbal form by your clients. This will give you the feedback you need to correct situations that are not satisfactory. It will also provide positive feedback you will need to specifically thank staff and volunteers for a job well done.

Action: Have volunteers and staff brainstorm appropriate closures for their typical client interactions. Challenge them to try to leave their clients pleasantly astonished by their interaction with your organization.

Examples:

- If the staff person or volunteer learned something unique or personal about the client during the interaction, refer back to it. “I hope you enjoy your vacation next week!”
- Make solid eye contact and tell them you really appreciate them as a client.
- Avoid “Have a nice day.” It is over-used.

Greet, Scope, Own and Close — the four steps that make up a complete client interaction. Consider these four steps within your volunteer program and determine which steps may be missing or need improvement. Take a good look at your organization through the client’s eyes. Staff and volunteers will probably realize many more moments of truth for the clients than those your organization typically spends time on.

STANDARDS FOR CLIENT SERVICE

Now is a good time to look at the client focus in your organization.

- How often do you talk about the clients throughout the organization?
- When you make a change in your organization's processes, do you consider those changes from the client's perspective?
- Do you ask your clients for regular, reliable feedback?
- Is everyone clear about whom is served first in the organization?

If your organization does not have a client focus, start by establishing client services standards. Bring staff and volunteers together to talk about their expectations for how clients will be served. Agree on those expectations and label them your Standards for Client Service. Remember that an excellent Standard for Client Service may not be the most efficient way to complete a process, but it must be the most effective in the eyes of your client.

Some sample standards created by our clients in their organizations include:

- Always answer the phone by the third ring.
- Make eye contact and acknowledge a client's presence as soon as he or she enters the organization.
- Respond to all e-mails within 24 hours.
- Walk a client to another department or service area rather than simply giving directions.
- When transferring a client on the phone who has already explained a situation, explain the situation to the person who is receiving the transfer. Do not make the client repeat the story.
- Always thank each client for having come to the organization.
- When answering the phone, identify yourself and ask, "How can I help you?" instead of, "Can I help you?"
- In person with clients and on the phone, smile. You can hear a smile over the phone.

- When the organization has made a mistake, sincerely apologize to the client.
- Tell the client what you can do for them; do not list all the things you cannot do.

Once the standards are agreed to by everyone, check them to make sure they support the organization's mission. Then post them in workstations or laminate them on small cards for staff and volunteers to keep close at hand.

Finally, reward the efforts of staff and volunteers. Together, celebrate the positive outcomes of providing customer-focused service.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research project was to assist managers of volunteers in volunteer organizations to find new ways to secure and retain volunteer commitment. The project was developed based on the apparent change in volunteer commitment from a long-term to a more short-term character, which has resulted in organizations having fewer resources to deal with increasing workloads. This problem generated the study's main premise: the more able the organization is to meet an individual's personal learning needs, the more likely the individual will be motivated and committed to serving the organization. The findings provided support for the use of the model — "Linking Volunteer Motivation and Commitment through Learning Activities" — as a systematic approach to the development of volunteers.

Linking Motivation and Commitment through Learning Activities in the Volunteer Sector

Allan Serafino, MCE

INTRODUCTION

Many volunteer organizations fail to meet the changing learning needs of volunteers. While this article recommends a systematic and holistic approach to learning, trends suggest that many volunteer organizations bypass the whole learning process (Wandersman and Abraham, 1997). In organizations that do provide learning opportunities, learning is equated with and is thus severely limited to initial and didactic skills training to satisfy minimal role requirements and does not offer further opportunities for personal development and growth. Orientation courses tend to be superficial, offering little in the way of understanding the organization's goals and mission. Some organizations provide only formal learning courses, while failing to recognize the value of informal opportunities. For example, 95% of Canadians learn informally (Canadian Lifelong Learning Journal, 1999). Finally, many organizations still focus their learning efforts on the needs of the long-term, traditional or continuous service volunteer rather than on the short-term, episodic volunteer even though the latter's quality of contribution can be quite high.

MOTIVATION AND COMMITMENT

Volunteer action, supported by adult learning principles and practices, can reinforce motivational needs and establish conditions for commitment.

Motivation refers to forces acting on (external) and acting within (internal) individuals to initiate and direct their behaviour (Moore, 1985), whether to achieve a desirable goal or remove a sense of disequilibrium. For example, a volunteer may join to fulfil an altruistic need to help the homeless, but may also be moved out of a sense of uneasiness about his or her own comfort. Volunteers are motivated variously to 1) Help others in need; 2) Be involved with others in social relationships; 3) Learn about the world around them or learn a new skill, and 4) Grow and develop psychologically (Clary, Snyder and Ridge, 1992).

Commitment, specifically organizational commitment, is referred to in the literature as psychological attachment to the organization, congruence between individual and organizational goals and values, willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization, desire to maintain membership and identification with

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organizational goals and norms (Harris, Stevens and Chachere, 1999). Some of the factors that contribute to organizational commitment are treating individuals with respect, having concern for quality customer service, having clear job definitions, keeping the job stimulating and up-to-date, having access to resources to do the job and providing opportunity to grow and develop.

Individuals require that organizations meet four key conditions to secure their commitment: 1) Congruence with his/her "helping" goals and values; 2) Ability for him/her to influence organizational decisions; 3) Congruence between his/her competencies and the job role, and 4) Congruence of his/her personal development goals with opportunities provided by the organization (Kinlaw, 1999).

Adult learning: Managers of volunteers help create the best conditions for motivating and retaining volunteers when the learning experiences they offer relate to the key motivational need(s) of individuals to join a volunteer organization and the key commitment condition(s) to stay or exert effort on the organization's behalf. Volunteer managers are assisted in this endeavour because volunteerism, by its nature, requires individuals to be engaged in continuous learning. Educational activities provide opportunities for volunteers to learn the skills, knowledge and attitudes inherent in successful voluntary action (Bengels, 1999). Volunteerism offers opportunities for personal growth, for developing unused talents or skills, for learning career advancement skills, for gaining experiences through new relationships and for acquiring a sense of purpose and meaning (Kerka, 1998).

The principles of adult learning are grounded in humanistic assumptions that are at the heart of volunteerism. These include adults' needs to:

- Know why they should learn something before they take ownership of the learning process

- Feel responsible for their learning decisions
- Connect learning with their prior experiences
- Learn to solve problems or perform tasks better.

Thus, the manager of volunteers must develop a structured and systematic approach to learning that encompasses motivational needs, adult learning needs and commitment conditions. The following model attempts to clarify the linkages amongst these themes in a way that assumes a more systematic connection than has previously been apparent in the volunteer literature.

THE MODEL

The model "Linking Motivation and Commitment through Learning Experiences" (See Appendix) posits three major themes: Motivational Needs, Learning Activities and Commitment Conditions. Learning Activities links the other two. The model is intended to assist the volunteer manager in selecting learning activities to satisfy volunteers' motivational needs and commitment requirements by organizing them in each of four learning dimensions: Learning about the Organization, Learning about People in the Organization, Learning about the Job and the Specific Skills To Do It, and Learning about Oneself (Fisher and Cole, 1993). Specific learning activities are recommended in each dimension.

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH RESULTS

The research goal of this project was to provide support for the model above by exploring volunteer motivation to join and remain in organizations, how volunteers learn, including the conditions that encourage or obstruct them along with the effects of motivation and learning on the quality of volunteer work and the length of time they commit to volunteer activity. Twenty-four volunteer subjects (12 male, 12 female) from 12

volunteer organizations and eight managers of volunteers from eight other organizations in Calgary, Alberta Canada were independently interviewed between January and April 2000 to provide their perspectives on the issues raised above. The volunteer managers' responses were also compared to volunteer perceptions about the methods and value of learning and ultimately with the best practices recommended by volunteers to secure their commitment.

The organizations represented in this study are those having 100 or more volunteers in a wide range of ages, both sexes and varying backgrounds. In each organization, a staff member or volunteer was specifically assigned the role of developing volunteers.

FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The responses to interviews of the volunteers and managers of volunteers generally supported the major conceptual framework of the model and the specific activities recommended in it. Volunteers' responses to why they join and remain committed to volunteer organizations, how they learned, and the effect on organizational commitment were for the most part consistent with the volunteer managers' understanding of the volunteer mindset and the supportive actions they took.

However, there were a few notable exceptions. In learning about the organization, some volunteers said they were not always given a clear understanding of the mission and goals of the organization. In contrast, managers said they mostly sought to make this information available. Some volunteers said they were often given a cursory orientation and then left on their own to do the job while managers said they provided formal orientations. In learning about the people in the organization, some volunteers said staff were sometimes inaccessible while managers said they sought to make staff support a key element of helping volunteers. In learning about the job, some volunteers said that they failed to learn because the teaching style was unvar-

ied (formal classroom settings) and because resources were limited. Managers agreed that resources were limited but did not directly address the issue of teaching style.

Several recommendations for managers of volunteers about how to best recruit and retain volunteers for the volunteer sector emerged from this study:

Motivation needs: Volunteers generally have one key motivation for joining volunteer organizations (the most common was helping persons in need), although it was not uncommon to find volunteers joining for more than one reason. Involvement was linked to volunteering as part of a work group. Being able to have a social experience with friends was an important condition of joining. While learning was a less important motivator, even for those who joined to get work experience or improve their résumés, volunteers did want to further existing skills or gain new ones. Personal growth was rarely named as a key motivator. It was named, however, as a key condition of further commitment to the organization once the volunteer had some experience, often several years, with that organization.

Recommendation: Identifying the predominant motivators for volunteers and establishing the conditions that support those motivational needs are key elements in setting the scene for retaining volunteer commitment.

Learning activities: Learning about the people in the organization (that is, learning who had skills, information and influence and how to gain access to them) was indicated as the prime means to gain desired skills and knowledge. Learning about the organization (its mission, goals, etc.) was of importance when initially joining the volunteer organization, but less so afterwards. With regard to personal growth, volunteers viewed learning about oneself as a distant goal. Most volunteers (both long-term and short-term) preferred a formal introduction to the organization, but afterwards preferred more informal

methods. Access to skilled or knowledgeable persons was seen as particularly valuable to the volunteer's work on a day-to-day basis.

Recommendation: Identifying the appropriate learning activity and environment to support the volunteers' motivational needs, learning styles and preferred methodology for learning is one of the key ways that volunteer managers can assist their organizations in securing volunteer commitment.

Commitment conditions: Being able to work with knowledgeable role models was an important condition of commitment. Short-term volunteers looked to staff as role models for the organization's goals and values, but were energized to stay or provide greater effort for the organization by being recognized for their contribution to the organization. As the volunteers gained experience, access to key decision-makers and opportunities to influence decisions increased as a key condition of commitment. Being asked to take on more responsibility was a demonstration of trust. Having clear congruence between skills learned and the opportunity to use them was often named by volunteers as an important condition of their commitment.

Recommendation: Managers of volunteers need to ensure that what volunteers learn and what they are allowed to do in the organization is congruent, that opportunities to influence organizational decisions are available to volunteers and that the skills required in the job role complement the volunteers' personal development plans.

Short-term volunteerism and learning. The problem that initially led to this study was that volunteer effort was changing from long-term to short-term in character, thus making it difficult for organizations to make the best use of its human resources. The data collected in the interviews suggests that this is quite true—many volunteers are committing shorter periods of time than they have in the past. However, the study also found that many are still committing extensive periods of time on

a continuous basis.

While some literature suggests that the investment character of short-term volunteers may be deleterious to the volunteer organization's efforts, this study found that, even as many volunteers are committing short periods of time, the quality of their effort often meets or exceeds the organization's needs. Many volunteers are also committing short periods of time to several organizations. With regards to short-term commitment for purposes of enhancing a resume, educators of volunteers were aware of this need and seemed to accept it as a new condition of volunteerism. However, few educational practitioners tailored any of their learning activities to meet that need.

Recommendation: Managers of volunteers must structure learning opportunities to accommodate both long-term and short-term commitment as much as possible to get the best performance from each type of volunteer.

CONCLUSIONS

The value of the "Linking Motivation and Commitment through Learning Experiences" model is summarized below.

- The model can be used to organize information about the motivational impetus of volunteers to join an organization and link it to conditions that will maintain volunteer commitment. The linkage is through learning activities supported by motivation and adult learning and commitment theory.
- The model can be used as an institutional assessment tool to establish a developmental learning plan that addresses the motivation, learning and commitment needs of typical volunteers.
- The model can be applied to both short-term and long-term volunteers.
- The model's key constructs were drawn from the research literature on motivation, learning and commitment, and includes the behavioral, affective and cognitive domains of human behavior.

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APPENDIX

A Model Linking Volunteer Motivation and Commitment through Learning Activities

MOTIVATIONAL NEEDS	LEARNING ACTIVITIES	COMMITMENT CONDITIONS
<p>Helping The volunteer needs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to help other persons less fortunate 	<p>Learning about the organization The volunteer manager:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides orientation to culture, history, traditions, goals, social mission, vision 	<p>Congruence with 'Helping' goals and values The organization:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • creates social goals and values to help others models a caring attitude
<p>Involvement The volunteer needs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to strengthen his/her social relationships 	<p>Learning about the people in the organization The volunteer manager:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • clarifies the roles of volunteers • encourages affiliation and socialization • encourages participation through relationship-building, team-building, decision-making and observing • teaches consensus-building, and problem-solving skills • builds on learners' experiences 	<p>Able to influence decisions The organization:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • encourages allegiances and partnerships • recognizes the value of relationships • involves volunteers in problem-solving and decision-making
<p>Learning The volunteer needs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to learn more about his/her world and exercise unused skills • to gain career-related experience 	<p>Learning about the job and the specific skills to do it The volunteer manager:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • promotes individual achievement • trains for real-life situations • provides on-the-job experience • updates volunteers' information and knowledge • establishes standards of performance • provides job skills related to career development 	<p>Congruence between competencies and job role The organization:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • develops learning standards • trains volunteers for real-life situations • uses volunteer skill and knowledge to solve its problems • provides career-related skills and recognizes the value of career-oriented volunteers
<p>Growing The volunteer needs:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • to grow and develop psychologically 	<p>Learning about oneself The volunteer manager:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • provides time for reflective practice • teaches skills and knowledge for new responsibilities • encourages understanding and being critical of organizational values, goals and priorities • teaches how to handle change 	<p>Congruence with personal development goals The organization:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • facilitates learning one's strengths and weaknesses • allows application of new skills and knowledge and gives more responsibility • provides learning outside of the organization • encourages reflective practice • promotes the understanding of and involvement in change

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the role of peer management for youth volunteers at the Canadian Red Cross. Using data from a sample of 269 youth volunteers in this program, we analyze the role of peer management. The research shows that peer management of youth volunteers is successful in dealing with retention, recruitment and other volunteer management issues. Furthermore, the highly positive experiences of youth involved in this program resulted in a commitment to the organization and to volunteering in general. The findings reveal that the volunteer experience of youth in this program addresses some of the key reasons for which youth engage in volunteer activities.

A Study of Peer Management of Youth Volunteers at the Canadian Red Cross

Femida Handy and Kirsten Keil

INTRODUCTION

Volunteers of all ages are recruited by nonprofit organizations. In Canada, youth volunteers, 14 to 24 years old, account for 18% of all persons volunteering and 15% of all hours volunteered. More than one in three persons age 15 to 24 years old volunteered for a charitable or nonprofit organization in 1997, nearly double the rate of youth volunteers in 1987 (Hall et al, 1998)¹.

Recruiting and managing volunteers, including youth volunteers, is an ongoing and crucial issue for nonprofit organizations. There exists a large body of literature with related resources aimed at volunteer administrators; new approaches to volunteer management are surfacing and are replicated across the sector (Fisher and Cole, 1993; Cnaan and Cascio, 1996, Safrit and Merrill, 1998).²

One relatively recent approach to volunteer management is peer management. In peer management, individual volunteers within a volunteer program manage their peers, requiring them to take on some elements of the volunteer administrator's role. Although there exist several studies related to youth volunteers (Fitch, 1987; Furco, 1994; Harrison, 1987; Newmann & Rutter, 1986; Raskoff & Sundeen, 1998; Sundeen & Raskoff, 1994, 1995, 2000; Serow, 1989; Serow & Dreyden, 1990), little is written on the management of youth volunteers by their peers.

This paper explores the issues of peer management of youth volunteers, a program that was recently instituted at the Metropolitan Toronto branch of the Canadian Red Cross. We examine how this peer management pro-

Note: An earlier version of this paper was presented at the annual meeting of the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action in Washington, D.C. USA in 1999. We thank the Canadian Red Cross staff and the many student volunteers who shared their experiences with us, and Tom Buis, Donna Endicott, Diana Goliss and Ken Mehlenbacher for their generous help. Financial support received from the Faculty of Environmental Studies and Faculty of Graduate Studies at York University is gratefully acknowledged.

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Kirsten Keil, MES is a recent graduate of the Faculty of Environmental Studies program at York University in Toronto, Canada. She has held numerous positions involving youth volunteers at the Toronto branch of the Canadian Red Cross and the Canadian Blood Services. Currently, Keil supervises a youth employment program at WoodGreen Community Center. Keil and Dr. Handy are presently investigating the impacts of youth volunteering on their success in the labor market.

gram attempted to respond to the goals of the Red Cross, which included:

- Providing a positive volunteering experience for the youth
- Enhancing skills among youth volunteers, retaining volunteers
- Fostering a commitment to the organization
- Reducing the overall burden on volunteer administrators (Canadian Red Cross, 1999; Goliss, 1999).

We surveyed all youth volunteers who had participated in the peer management program in the Red Cross at any time since its inception in June 1996 until August 1998 to determine their attitudes toward peer management and motivations for volunteering. We examined the responses of those youth who served as peer managers to ascertain the benefits and challenges that arose in managing their peers. Finally, to establish the value of the program for the organization, we interviewed staff involved in some aspect of managing the summer program involving the youth or in managing the Red Cross programs using youth volunteers.

PEER MANAGEMENT OF VOLUNTEERS IN THE CANADIAN RED CROSS

The Summer Student Volunteer Program (SSV Program) at the Metropolitan Toronto branch of the Canadian Red Cross provided youth in the Toronto area with volunteer opportunities during the months of July and August. This program recruited approximately 500 youth per year, students between the ages of 14 and 25, and gave them volunteer placements within the many programs run or sponsored by the Red Cross.³ The intake of a large number of youth volunteers for a relatively short duration of time required careful and strategic management to avoid problems of managing, motivating and retaining individuals. These needs exceeded the management resources that existed at the Red Cross prior to June 1996. In response to this situa-

tion, the Toronto Red Cross developed a peer management program within the SSV Program called the Leadership Program.

It was hoped that the development of the Leadership Program would ease managerial pressures, develop leadership skills in youth volunteers, provide a positive volunteering experience and foster commitment to the organization and volunteering in general. Approximately 50 youth were selected each year and designated as peer managers, called Leaders in this program. Leaders were chosen by the SSV program recruiters. This was not a highly structured process. Interviewers were given initial training on how to recruit leaders among the applicants, based on leadership qualities gleaned through their references or previous leadership experience at school or elsewhere. Youth were chosen based on personality traits and how they conducted themselves during the interview.

Although approximately 50 Leaders were selected in any given year, the actual number of Leaders depended on the needs indicated by the program coordinators. Each year program coordinators made requests for summer student volunteers, and one Leader was designated for approximately every 10 volunteers.

Leaders attended training workshops and were assigned certain managerial responsibilities. One SSV staff member, specifically hired for the summer, was designated to train the Leaders in the summer program. The training included problem solving, managing time and stress, team building, motivating, resolving conflict, communicating effectively and dealing with difficult situations. The role of the Leaders was essentially an extension of the staff role, and Leaders' responsibilities included training, supervision, on-going support and guidance of their peers. They also scheduled shifts, liaised with staff, resolved conflicts, motivated volunteers and provided volunteer recognition. The SSV trainer was also responsible for the overall supervision of the Leaders. However, when the Leaders were working in specific programs, the year-round program coordinator was their on-site supervisor.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND METHODS

We surveyed all youth who had taken part in the SSV Program since its inception in June 1996 through August 1998. A five-page questionnaire was mailed to 912 volunteers who had participated in the program during those years. The survey was intended to produce a profile of the volunteer population in the SSV Program during this time period and to generate data on the volunteers' motivations and attitudes, volunteer retention and responses to peer management. Personal interviews with Red Cross staff were used for data on the effects of the program on their workload, and to estimate their receptiveness to the program as well as the benefits and drawbacks of the program.

Of the 912 questionnaires, 818 questionnaires were successfully delivered and 269 completed questionnaires returned—a 33% return rate. The seven personal interviews with the staff lasted between one to two hours each, and follow-up phone calls were made to complete the data collection.

The sample group consisted of 269 respondents, ranging from 14 to 24 years of age, with an average and median age of 19 years. All of the respondents were students at schools or universities, and approximately 73% of the total sample was female. Over 80% of the respondents came from middle or higher income households, which reflects existing studies that suggest the majority of student volunteers generally come from middle class and upper-middle class backgrounds (Hall et al, 1998; Sundeen, 1990; Sundeen & Raskoff, 1994).

RESULTS

The average number of hours respondents had volunteered at the Red Cross in the past 12 months was 9.07 hours per week for a period of 2.34 months, or 1.75 hours per week per year. This is a relatively low figure, compared to the 3.2 hours average for youth volunteers in Ontario (NVS GP, 2000). However, the number of hours may be due to the

limited nature of the survey. Respondents reported only the hours volunteered at the Red Cross and did not include time spent volunteering for other organizations. Furthermore, the respondents were summer student volunteers, usually engaged in the Red Cross program only for the months of July and August.

Our sample had an over representation of women (females 73%, males 27%) as compared to all volunteers in Canada in 1997 (54% female; 46% male). However, we found this trend reversed in our sample for Leaders—29% of all male volunteers were Leaders, whereas only 19% of all female volunteers were Leaders. This may be a factor of recruitment of the volunteers in general or the selection process used by staff for Leaders as described earlier. Recruitment for student volunteers was done at schools, and students had to fill out application forms. SSV recruiters were trained to screen out unsuitable candidates. For example, a student enrolled in summer school or taking a month-long vacation was considered unsuitable due to the time requirements of the program. There were no gender specific guidelines given to the recruiters in either selecting volunteers or Leaders.

The survey indicated that 35.7% of the respondents volunteered with the Red Cross SSV Program for more than one summer, most of whom (81%) had volunteered for two summers, and 19% for three summers. Of the total number of respondents (N = 269), 86.6% indicated that they would return to volunteer at the Red Cross. Of the number of respondents who were already returning volunteers (N = 96), 92.7% indicated they would return again. This shows a substantial improvement over the 20% retention rate the Red Cross experienced with youth volunteers before implementing the peer management program.

We asked those who had returned to the program to indicate the top reasons why they had returned. The four most common

responses were: "I enjoyed the experience and wanted to return," 36.4%; "I wanted to become a Leader," 19.4%; "I was asked to return," 15.8% and "I had created a circle of friends in the program," 15.0%.

A positive correlation was found between the chance to network and socialize and the number of summers that a volunteer chose to return. This suggested that providing volunteers opportunities to socialize and network with their peers might increase retention rates. The peer management program increased the interaction of volunteers with their peers significantly. Since Leaders took on many responsibilities of managing their peers, it was inevitable that they would interact with each other more often. For example, scheduling volunteers and resolving conflicts required frequent interaction between the youth volunteers and their peer Leader. These interactions had previously been between an adult manager and youth volunteers. Furthermore, with peer management, volunteers might not find it intimidating to reach out to their peers, as compared to an adult, for support or in resolving any problems or bringing up new ideas (Trela & Conley, 1997; Ackerman & Boccia, 1997; and Sturkie and Hansen, 1992).

A significant majority of the respondents (62.5%) showed an interest in becoming a Leader, which is meaningful in the context of retention rates. Over 71% of respondents stated they would like to become a Red Cross adult volunteer, and nearly 58% indicated they would like to be employed by the Red Cross in the future. These findings indicate that the volunteers seemed highly committed to the Red Cross in terms of future involvement and that a positive experience in the peer management program was a significant indicator for retention rates.

While all the volunteers donated time to the Red Cross, 13% also donated money to the Red Cross with the average donation being \$37.40. Twenty percent participated by donating in the Red Bank fundraising pro-

gram. Of those that did not donate, 72% said that they would donate in the future. Over a third of the volunteers (34.2%) donated blood to the Red Cross. It is likely recruitment and fundraising strategies targeted to student volunteers may prove particularly successful.

LEADERS

Over 86% of the Leaders stated that they found the volunteers receptive to peer management. For those respondents (164) who had experienced supervision by Leader management, 80% felt that they were well supervised by their SSV Leader, and 90% indicated that they had enjoyed the experience. Approximately 11% of those who said they enjoyed the experience did not feel that they were well supervised by the peer managers.

Leaders were also asked to indicate reasons for participating in the SSV Leadership Program. Over 40% said they participated because they were asked to do so at the initial interview. Other reasons given were: "learned about it during regular volunteering at the Red Cross," 24.4%; a friend recommended it," 14.4% and "participated in previous years," 12.2%.

Over a third (36%) of the 96 youth who returned to the SSV program indicated they returned because they wanted to become Leaders, the most frequently cited reason for returning to the Red Cross. The leadership position was attractive to student volunteers and could be used in recruitment and retention strategies.

Of the 96 respondents who had returned after their first summer in the SSV Program, 35.4% of them were Leaders at least once in their volunteering experience with the Red Cross. Considering that Leaders usually represent approximately 10% of all the volunteers, this indicates (although not conclusively) a relatively high level of satisfaction, and a return rate of nearly 60% of the Leaders. The Leader volunteers had a significantly higher return rate than other volunteers in this program.

STAFF

We interviewed seven staff members involved in the program, either in coordinating the programs that utilized youth volunteers, supervising Leaders or managing the SSV program. For example, we interviewed the Manager of Employee and Volunteer Resources who was responsible for the SSV program, program coordinators, a training coordinator and a recruiter. During these unstructured interviews, staff were encouraged to share their assessment of the program. They were fairly unanimous in stating that the peer management program had been well received by staff and volunteers. They indicated that the youth had positive experiences being managed by Leaders. Peer leaders were found to be responsible and were a "godsend" in that they reduced the time and energy required by staff in dealing with volunteers.

All staff expressed an unanticipated and important benefit of the program—the Leaders injected enthusiasm and spirit in the volunteer program. Staff observed that the Leaders felt empowered and quickly took ownership and pride in managing their volunteer group. Leaders often approached their staff with ideas on how to improve the program and be more responsive to the needs of the clients and volunteers.

Some staff remarked that some returning peer Leaders had to be reminded that they were participating in a peer program. Occasionally Leaders did not relate to the volunteers as peers, instead seeing themselves as a privileged group with authority similar to the staff. This attitude was detrimental to the spirit of peer management, so staff intervened to restore the "peer" into the management style. SSV Trainers were made aware of this problem by other Leaders or volunteers or by observation during training workshops⁴. The SSV trainer addressed the issue during a private meeting with the Leader in question.

Only one staff member felt the quality of student volunteer management sometimes suffered because Leaders occasionally lacked

maturity in seeking solutions to problems that arose.

CONCLUSION

Without exception, the staff rated the SSV program a success in terms of alleviating the time and energy burden on staff. Having peer managers help with management tasks was particularly useful in coping with a large intake of volunteers at one time for a short period of service. Furthermore, the program provided tangible benefits in terms of a significant increase in retention of volunteers.

The costs involved in running the program were \$5,000 to \$8,000 for the summer, including administrative expenses and incidental expenses such as travel, recognition, supplies and photocopies. The cost of hiring additional summer staff for training and recruiting Leaders was not included. The Manager of Employee and Volunteer Resources along with the directors responsible for approving the budget and resources for the program felt the value of the program far outweighed the costs. Without peer leaders, more staff would have been needed for supervision and management.

The Red Cross wanted to provide positive volunteer experiences, encourage volunteer retention and promote a sense of community and commitment. In light of our findings, we believe all of these goals were achieved.

Volunteers who were supervised by their peers expressed very high levels of satisfaction. Leaders also reported high levels of satisfaction and found their experience as managers to be very valuable. Many volunteers wished to return as peer managers. Youth who served as Leaders gained news skills and enhanced their résumés for gaining entrance to university programs and in seeking employment.

In addition, survey respondents showed high levels of commitment to the organization. They indicated an interest in volunteering or being employed with the Red Cross when they became adults. The student volunteers donated money to the Red Cross and occasionally were blood donors.

The findings outlined here have important implications for people who study volunteerism and those who work directly with volunteers. Peer management among youth volunteers was successful on all counts and showed potential benefits for volunteer administrators, staff, peer managers and youth volunteers. The primary benefits were increased retention rates, positive volunteer experiences and a sense of community and commitment among the volunteers.

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ENDNOTES

¹In the United States, nearly three out of five teenagers volunteered for an average of 3.5 hours per week (America's teenage volunteers, 2000)

²The literature acknowledges that successful volunteer management techniques are often shared among practitioners. An example of this is the Canadian Blood Services' creation of a volunteer program which replicated a Canadian Red Cross program.

³These include: Meals on Wheels, Wheelchair Escort Services, Water Safety Education, Bicycle Safety Education, Seniors Program, City Kids Program, Home Healthcare, First Aid, Global Education, Blood Clinic Services (this program was discontinued in 1999) and fundraising campaigns.

⁴This problem surfaced infrequently and had not been brought up in a proactive manner.

APPENDIX

Structure of the Summer Student Volunteer Program

To plan for the Summer Student Volunteer Program, the Coordinator of Volunteer Resources at the Canadian Red Cross put out an internal call among the various Red Cross programs to elicit their needs for volunteers and Leaders for the summer months. Recruitment for Leaders and assigning them to particular programs was done through interviews of applicants for the SSV program. The Red Cross hired recruiters to interview all students applying to the program and designate them to appropriate programs.

The recruiter also chose Leaders from the applicants and matched them to programs requiring Leaders. Students' interests and skills drove this matching process. As a general rule, one Leader was assigned to manage every 10 student volunteers. The recruiters worked with student volunteers in the SSV program throughout the summer dealing with program needs, planning social events, tracking volunteer hours and generating a database of volunteer hours (collected from Leaders), reference letters and certificates of recognition.

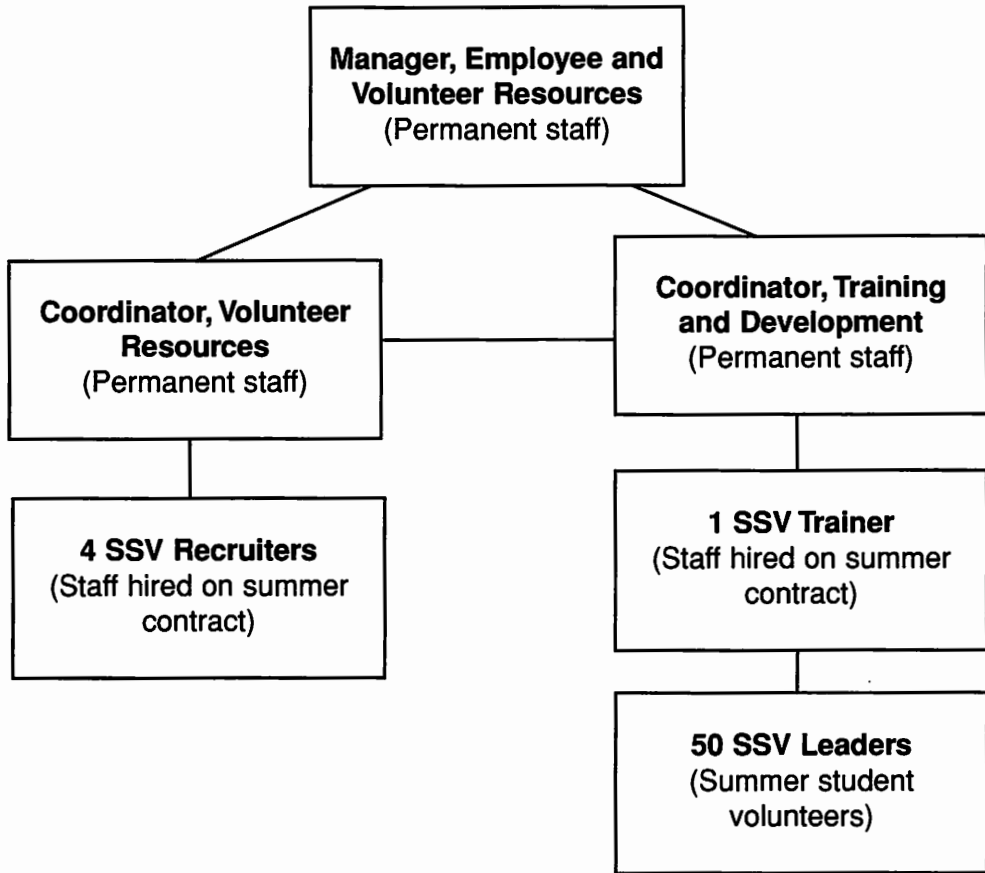
The Red Cross also hired a trainer to prepare the Leaders prior to the start of the SSV program and then to manage and supervise the group of Leaders during the program. They provided leadership workshops and other support and guidance over the summer.

Leaders initially helped with the training of incoming student volunteers and ensured that the program had a successful start. To facilitate this, Leaders attended a daylong workshop where they were trained in all administrative aspects of the program, including the mandates of the programs offered by the Red Cross, tracking and recording volunteer hours, scheduling volunteers and their relation to the staff and volunteers. The trainer taught leadership skills throughout the summer, including effective communication, problem solving, team building, conflict resolution and motivation. The workshops also gave Leaders a forum to share their experiences and receive feedback on their work.

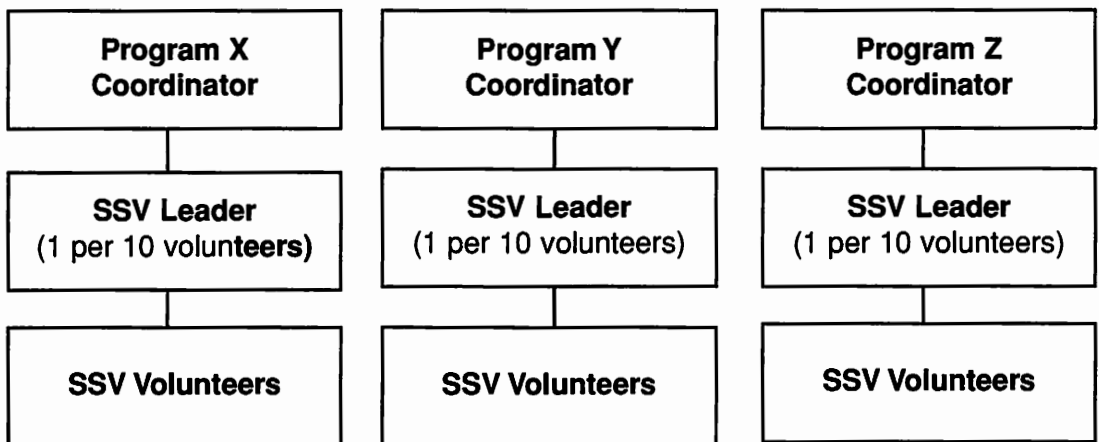
Supervision of the Leaders is done at two levels. The trainer supervises them in a general administrative context, while the program coordinators supervise them at the program, on-site level. Red Cross programs are situated throughout the city. The program coordinator works with the Leaders at the start of the summer to train the student volunteers, after which the Leaders assume responsibility for supervising the volunteers, their peers.

The permanent staff at the Red Cross who have responsibility for the SSV program are: the Manager of Employee and Volunteer Resources, the Coordinator of Volunteer Resources, and the Coordinator of Training and Development. They hire, train and supervise the SSV recruiters and trainer. The chart on page 29 shows the organizational structure and management of the SSV program.

Organizational Structure of SSV Program



SSV Leaders Assigned to Programs (Approximately 25)



Becoming a Citizen Leader
A Review of Lorraine R. Matusak's
Finding Your Voice: Learning to Lead Anywhere
You Want to Make a Difference

Lately, in preparation for an upcoming presentation, I have been reading a multitude of books and articles on leadership. Wading through numerous theories, practices and examples of leadership philosophy offered up by professors, CEOs and self-help gurus, I longed for a common sense approach to the topic. One afternoon, I stumbled across Lorraine R. Matusak's *Finding Your Voice* in the bookstore, and upon opening it, was drawn into a personal and ongoing conversation with the author.

Written for, as Matusak says, "regular people," this volume speaks openly and candidly to each reader in a style reminiscent of a lingering conversation with a friend over a cup of coffee. Alternating between cheerleader, mentor and teacher, Matusak convinces the reader that "you don't need an elevated position or a title of great importance to assume a leadership role."

The book operates from the premise that "leadership is a social role, not a mere personality trait" and thus can be learned. In the process, each individual can identify what is of greatest personal importance, define steps to act upon those concerns, gain an appreciation of leading and following and learn to use one's internal compass to lead self and others. The theme of the book is clearly that "leadership is not necessarily a title or powerful position; it is a process, it is relational, it is making something happen — it is leaving a mark."

The first section of the book, entitled 'Why Not You?' moves through a series of topics that encourage the reader to take a close look at his or her values, issues of personal concern, shortcomings and strengths.

By the conclusion of this section, the reader has gained confidence in the possibilities of leadership and can easily believe that one can make a difference — that "leadership begins with an individual..."

Part Two, 'Pathways to Effective Leadership,' weaves the theoretical and practical aspects of leadership together using observations from a variety of well-known leadership experts and examples of everyday leaders — "regular people" — in action. Developing a shared vision, appreciating a wide variety of views, practicing effective communication, dealing with change, utilizing a sense of humor and gaining the courage to act are some of the pertinent topics discussed at length.

The final section of the book contains an extensive resource guide that includes leadership development programs, books on leadership and audio and video programs. Offered by the author because of her strong belief that learning about leadership is a life-long challenge, readers are encouraged to pursue additional information and training.

By the conclusion of this book, the reader realizes that "each of us does have a unique purpose in life — to somehow, at some specific time and place, make a positive leadership contribution to the world in which we live."

Finding Your Voice: Learning to Lead... Anywhere You Want to Make a Difference, Lorraine R. Matusak, Published by Jossey-Bass, 1997.

Reviewed by Barbara K. Wentworth,
Director of Community Building, United
Way of York County, Kennebunk, Maine.

Michael J. Cataruzolo, CVA: Profile of a Volunteer Resources Manager

Mike Cataruzolo is the supervisor of Volunteer Services at Perkins School for the Blind in Watertown, Massachusetts USA. Although legally blind, Cataruzolo has obtained a bachelor's degree in Physical Education and Health, a master's degree in Education and an advanced degree in School Administration and School Law. However, he cherishes the CVA credential he earned through AVA the most. Cataruzolo is a dedicated volunteer administrator by profession and an active volunteer in his community.



How long have you been a Manager of Volunteer Resources? What jobs have you held?

Over the past 40 years, I have worked with disabled individuals from infants to the elderly. My teaching included adapted physical education, aquatics, motor development and health education with various age groups. I coached wrestling as well as track and field for 15 years. As part of my teaching experience, I taught in the physical education/health area of the Recreation Department at Boston University.

My career as the head of the physical education and recreation department at Perkins School for the Blind for 15 years was followed by my current position as supervisor of Volunteer Services. My first commitment was to establish my credibility as an administrator in this field. I received my CVA certification which provided me with knowledge and a deep desire to achieve high standards in all aspects of volunteer management.

What path led you to becoming a volunteer manager?

Growing up, I went to public schools and no one was aware of my vision problems until I was in the fourth grade. There was little sensitivity to disabilities at the time so I graduated from high school, but was unable to read. Thanks to advances in technology and help from a vision clinic, at the age of 21 I began to be able to see better and could read and write. I wanted to go to college, but

no college would accept me. Finally, a junior college allowed me to take some classes, which I passed, and then I was admitted to the college. I had a reader who helped me with my classes, and she inspired me to finish school.

She and her family also introduced me to volunteering. I used to go with them to visit the elderly in a nursing home. I enjoyed telling stories and talking with the people there. There was one woman who wouldn't talk, but after visiting her for a while she began to smile. I could tell I had made a difference. The seed was planted, and it grew and grew.

What have been your most successful programs? What techniques were particularly effective?

One of my most rewarding experiences was coaching a Little League baseball team of seven and eight year old boys and girls. Because of my deep commitment to family and community, my involvement and that of my children became quite extensive. Eventually, I became president of the town youth hockey program. Ninety-eight percent of the program functioned through volunteers. The hockey program was quite successful due to the drawing of the talents, skills and abilities of local residents.

What has been your greatest challenge and how did you approach it?

One of my greatest challenges was to be

accepted as a Little League coach who happened to be legally blind. In order to gain the parents' confidence and acceptance, I wrote a profile of my education, family and of my athletic accomplishments. Prior to the beginning of the season, I invited the parents and the players to my home to meet my family and to distribute this profile, a practice schedule and the various skills that would be taught. I recruited several parents to assist with the practices. Before each practice, the parent coaches and I met to discuss the methods and techniques for teaching game skills. The major emphasis was fun! That year we did not win one game — we tied once — but we had a great time. Most of the team members are still actively involved in baseball.

What is your sense of the direction of volunteerism in the 21st century?

I have seen somewhat of an increase in both the need and opportunity as well as availability of individuals in the area of volunteerism. There still seems to be a tremendous need for volunteers with the elderly and populations with severe disabilities.

As managers, we must have a plan for involving all kinds of people as volunteers. I run a program called A Family Affair at two nursing homes in Watertown, which has a population of 37,000. Families "adopt" a person in a nursing home and spend about three hours per month with that person. There are 350 residents in the nursing homes—there should be a family who visits each resident.

I would like to see more low-functioning individuals serving as volunteers. They are particularly good at assembling equipment. Retired people have been active in a program for infants at the Perkins school. School kids benefit from volunteering. As volunteer managers, we need to look at volunteer positions and see how people, with and without disabilities, can meet needs. People with disabilities are not likely to seek volunteer opportunities; we must seek them.

I also believe that everyone who works in volunteer administration should be certified. I would like to see "CVA" after the names of presidents and CEOs. We have a responsibility to let people know that volunteer administration is a true profession. We are educated and trained; we know what we are doing.

How does what you are doing fit with your own personal philosophy?

As someone who has a disability, I feel that I have three major responsibilities: one is to my family, one is to the disabled and the last is to volunteerism. I was very angry as a young person and didn't feel good about myself. The experience I had visiting the nursing home for the first time woke me up. It was a turning point for me. I felt good doing things for other people. Today, it's rewarding and exciting to match people with the right volunteer position. It works like a puzzle. Volunteers make a difference.

Go Forth and Write: Tips about Writing for The Journal of Volunteer Administration

What is special about an applied journal?

Authors of articles do not have to be published scholars.

Authors may write articles that report research findings or describe knowledge or skills gained on the job. In either case, the material is presented so that readers can easily apply the information to the setting in which they work.

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The profession of volunteer resources management is still evolving. You can help shape it—more so than in a long-standing, older profession.

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To identify and build common ground. Increase the generic core of practices and learning that transcends specific settings. This links us together and reduces isolation and duplication.

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Because it captures the history of the profession. The journal will live on after trainers and programs go.

For what it does for you: personal growth, a chance to step back and take a broader view of what you do, internal and external recognition and credibility, professional development.

For what it does for your organization: recognition for where you work and its support of research and education in the field of volunteer administration.

How do I get started?

Write about what you know.

Find a partner. One talks; the other writes. One produces the first draft; the other edits. Each takes a piece, and then publish it jointly.

Start by writing about the easiest part of what you want to say. Never mind the opening paragraph, since that's usually the hardest. Get your thoughts on paper; then go back to write the beginning, edit and polish.

Say it out loud. Talk into a tape recorder. Pretend you're explaining the topic to someone from another country. Then go back and capture it on paper.

Develop an outline of major points. Forget the transitions until you've got the main concepts.

Build on something you've already produced—a speech, workshop, small article or report.

Once you've written a draft, ask someone who knows nothing about your subject to read it. Does it make sense to that person? Is too much information assumed and do blanks need to be filled in?

Publicly commit to a deadline and ask others to hold you to it.

Forget perfection—it is the enemy of good!

What do editors look for in a submission to *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*?

Tell why and how a program was started or changed. Details are important so that readers can replicate what you have done.

Who developed the program and what was the process. Who was involved in the process—decision makers, specific staff and/or volunteers—and what role did they play?

Describe the program—how does it work on a daily basis, what are the costs, who makes it work. What works and doesn't. What did you learn from the mistakes that were made.

What research did you conduct? This could be one-on-one interviews, internet searches, literature review and more.

What can other managers of volunteer resources learn from your project or experience?

Editors also welcome reviews of books that are relevant to the field. Book reviews are about 500 words. A review should assess the overall merit of the book, identify any inaccurate assumptions or information and highlight how the book may or may not be useful to managers of volunteer resources. Editors also welcome suggestions from readers of books that they would like to have reviewed.

How do I format my manuscript correctly?

Use the Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association, 5th Edition. ISBN 1557987912. Or you can use the "APA-Style Helper" software that was developed as a companion to the manual.

Look at past issues of the journal for format examples.

If you have questions, contact a professor who has published for advice and guidance.

The Journal of Volunteer Administration

A publication of the Association for Volunteer Administration

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Content

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- Articles may focus on volunteering in any type of setting. Authors are encouraged to write articles dealing with areas less visible than the more traditional health, social services and education settings. Issues relating to volunteerism in natural resources, corrections and criminal justice, government, cultural arts and service learning settings are examples of some areas that would be of interest to many readers.

2. Process

- Manuscripts may be submitted at any time during the year. *The Journal* is published quarterly.
- Manuscripts may be submitted for review in three ways: **1)** Send document (in Microsoft Word or WordPerfect) by E-mail to avaintl@mindspring.com (preferred method); **2)** Mail document stored on a high density 3.5" disk (using the same software listed above) to AVA. It is assumed authors will retain a master copy for every article they submit.
- Submissions must also include:
 1. A one-paragraph biography (100 words or less) highlighting the author's background in volunteerism, including affiliation with the Association for Volunteer Administration or other professional organizations.
 2. An abstract of not more than 150 words.
 3. Mailing address(es) and telephone number(s) for each author credited.

Please note: when submissions do not conform to these guidelines they may be returned for revision.

- Manuscripts are reviewed by a panel of editorial reviewers. The author's name is removed prior to review to ensure full impartiality.
The author will be notified in writing of the outcome of the review process. *The Journal* retains the right to edit all manuscripts for mechanics and consistency. Extensive editing will be discussed with the author in advance. Authors of published articles receive two complimentary issues of *The Journal* in which their article appeared.

If a manuscript is returned to the author for revisions and the author rewrites the article, the second submission will be entered into the regular review process as a new article.

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3. Style

- Manuscripts submitted should be 10 to 30 pages in length, with some exceptions, and should be typed, double-spaced. If submitted in printed form, please print on white paper.
- Authors will be asked to submit the final version of an accepted article on a 3.5" high-density disk formatted in WordPerfect 5.2 or MicroSoft Word 5.0 for Windows or any text-based program for Macintosh because this publication is produced in QuarkXpress 4.1 on Macintosh.
- Manuscripts should be submitted with a title page containing title and author(s)' names that can be removed for the blind review process. Author name(s) should not appear on the text pages, but the article title must be shown or a key word used at the top of each text page.
- Endnotes, acknowledgements and appendices should appear at the end of the manuscript, followed by references and/or a bibliography completed in an accepted form and style.
- The author is advised to use inclusive language. Use plural pronouns or use "s/he."
- Language that is accessible to the lay reader is preferred in all articles.
- First-person articles may be acceptable, especially if the content of the article draws heavily upon the experiences of the author.
- The author is encouraged to use sub-headings in lengthy articles to aid the reader. Text should be broken at logical intervals with introductory titles. Refer to issues of *The Journal* for sample headings.
- Illustrations (photographs, artwork) will be used only in rare instances when they are integral to the content of the article. Generally, such artwork will not be accepted.
- Figures and charts that support and enhance the text of the manuscript will be reviewed and included as space allows.
- General format for *The Journal* is in accordance with the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed.), American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, United States. ISBN 1557987912.

4. Guide to Publishing a Training Design

When submitting a training design for publication in *The Journal*, please structure your material in the following way:

Abstract

Title or name of activity

Group type and size: This should be variable so that as many groups as possible can use this design. Optimum group size can be emphasized or ways to adapt the design to various group sizes can be described.

Learning objectives: One or more sentences specifying the objectives of the activity.

Time required: Approximate time frame.

Materials: List all materials including props, handouts, flip charts, magic markers and audiovisual equipment.

Physical setting: Room size, furniture arrangement, number of rooms, etc.

Process: Describe in detail the progression of the activity, including sequencing of time periods. Use numbered steps or narrative, but clarify the role of the trainer at each step. Specify instructions to be given to trainees. Include a complete script of lectures plus details about the processing of the activity, evaluation and application. If there are handouts, include these as appendix items.

Variations: If other ways of conducting the design are applicable, describe briefly.

If possible, include references showing other available resources.

The Association for Volunteer Administration welcomes your interest in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*. We are ready and willing to work collaboratively with authors to produce the best possible articles. If a manuscript is not accepted initially, authors are encouraged to rewrite and resubmit for reconsideration.

Further questions may be sent by mail or e-mail to:

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THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

A publication of the Association for Volunteer Administration

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