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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 Credentialing, Ethics, 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.***

For further information about the Association for Volunteer Administration, contact us at:
P.O. Box 32092, Richmond, VA 23294, U.S.A.
Phone 804.672.3353
Fax 804.672.33688
E-mail: info@AVAintl.org
Web site: www.AVAintl.org

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The Journal of Volunteer Administration c/o AVA,
P.O. Box 32092, Richmond, VA 23294, U.S.A.
Phone 804.672.3353
Fax 804.672.3368
E-mail: info@AVAintl.org

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EDITORIAL

Volunteering represents a tremendous social learning experience enhancing the pro-social development of youth. Youth volunteering is an important agent of socialization for solidarity and responsible citizenship. It raises self-esteem, develops social links, and offers the sense of belonging.

(Vahida Huzejrovic, National Representative for Bosnia and Herzegovina, IAVE Conference, 2002)

Initiatives to mobilize young people and encourage reciprocity, citizenship, skill building, and leadership development, have generated worldwide interest in recent years. National and international conferences include youth forums for young volunteer leaders, and special tracts for professionals working with youth.

The articles in this issue focus on attitudes, motivations, barriers and best practices for engaging young people. Two distinct forms of service are discussed, volunteer service and mandated service. Programs that mandate action, such as service learning, internships and many school based programs, help to promote active citizenship, career exploration, and issue awareness. Educational institutions frequently partner with voluntary organizations to provide hands-on learning opportunities that link classroom learning with practical experience. These are valuable programs because they create awareness of volunteerism, and they prepare young people for future volunteer service. Mandated programs should not, however, be confused with volunteerism where citizens freely choose to be engaged.

The first paper, by Liao-Troth and Drumm, explores the psychological contracts that form between college students and the organizations where they are volunteering. (Part I of this research appeared in Volume 22, Issue 1.) The authors encourage managers to talk with potential student volunteers to explore what the student wants and expects from the organization.

Younger Volunteers In Sweden, identifies three broad differences between volunteering in Sweden and volunteering in the United States, and suggests that traditional organizations, be they in Sweden or the United States, need new strategies to address the special interests and needs of younger volunteers. *Volunteering for the Future* explores youth volunteers in a Scottish hospice program and raises questions about the negative perceptions adults have about youth. The authors contend that the failure to engage young people at an early age poses challenges for the future of all volunteer programs.

In the Heart of Texas provides a profile of student volunteerism at the University of Texas at Austin, and notes a shift from student service as a way of molding attitudes and beliefs, to a focus on service to foster cooperation, respect and consideration for others. *Reasons for and Barriers to Participating in Volunteerism and Service* compares motivations and barriers to volunteerism and service among students in grades 5-8 and grades 9-12. The authors note that barriers may be similar to those reported by adults, but the context of those barriers may differ from those for adults.

Gifted Students Serving Their Communities, identifies the benefits of service learning for fifth and sixth graders, based on parent and student surveys. The author offers insights into creating effective service learning opportunities for students. The final article, presented under Ideas that Work, discusses the content and benefits of a workshop to increase staff effectiveness with teen volunteers. The training agenda and job development worksheet are included.

These studies look at young people engaged in volunteering and service from middle school through college. They support the belief that young people have much to offer and have much to gain through volunteer and service experiences. The studies also challenge organizations to consider the barriers, both practical and attitudinal, that can shape youth engagement.

I believe that youngsters are the most important capital a country has. They are the ones who can really make a difference if we listen to them and we trust them... they will become the leaders of tomorrow.

(Mariela Chyrikins, Argentina, IAVE Conference, 2002)

Mary V. Merrill
Editor

Featured Research

- ***The Psychological Contract, Part II: What Motives and Personality to Anticipate in Your College Student Volunteers***
  Matthew A. Liao-Troth, Western Washington University, Bellingham, WA
  H. Michael Drumm, DePaul University, Chicago, IL
  This article discusses the concepts of functional motivation and the five factor model of personality, and explains how these relate to the psychological contract when anticipating volunteer preferences as applied to a sample of students participating in various student and community organizations. We find that managers can anticipate the psychological contracts that college student volunteers have with an organization based on knowledge of their motives to volunteer and their personality characteristics. Managers are advised to understand the psychological contracts that their volunteers believe apply to themselves, to better manage the volunteer workforce.

- ***Younger Volunteers in Sweden***
  Richard A. Sundeen, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA
  Sally A. Raskoff, Los Angeles Valley College, Los Angeles, CA
  This article reports the findings of a study of volunteering by younger persons (age 16-24) in Sweden based on an analysis of data from a 1998 Swedish survey. As in the U.S., half of younger persons volunteer in Sweden, although the context of Swedish volunteering differs significantly. After discussing the Swedish context of volunteerism, the article presents the differences in background between volunteers and non-volunteers, as well as areas of volunteer participation, activities and tasks carried out, motives for volunteering, and ways by which volunteers become involved. A summary of the results, including a discussion of volunteer commitment by younger Swedes and an agenda for future research follows.

- ***Volunteering for the Future:***
  The Impact on Young Volunteers of Volunteering in Paediatric Palliative Care
  Rosalind C. Scott, Children's Hospice Association Scotland, Kinross, Scotland
  Denise Burgin, Children's Hospice Association Scotland, Kinross, Scotland
  The number of children's hospices offering respite and palliative care to children in the United Kingdom has increased considerably over the past 20 years. The maintenance and continuing development of these hospices relies heavily on voluntary funding. Research into levels of volunteering undertaken in the late 1990's however, indicated a sharp reduction and negative views of volunteering in young people. This study explored the impact on young volunteers (aged 16 – 21 years) of volunteering in a children's hospice and the extent of involvement of young volunteers in other children's hospices in the UK. The experiences of those who had been involved and the reasons for non-involvement were explored. Barriers to involvement included organisational policy and perceptions of vulnerability. The experience proved positive for the majority of young volunteers and children's hospices. Key factors to success appear to be careful selection, flexible training opportunities, ongoing support and working alongside older, more experienced volunteers.

- ***In the Heart of Texas: Student Volunteerism at the University of Texas at Austin***
  Sarah Jane Rehnborg, University of Texas, Austin, TX.
  Marc Musick, University of Texas, Austin, TX.
  Volunteering among our nation's young people has received very little attention thus far in the academic world. It is important to know more about volunteering at this stage of life due to the strong influence education has on volunteering among adults. The goal of this survey, designed by researchers at the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service at the University of Texas at Austin, was to better under-

stand volunteering and giving behaviors among undergraduate students at the institution. In addition to the fact that students are serving in record numbers, the results also indicate that African-American and Hispanic students serve more than Anglo students. Although a great deal of work remains to be done to fully understand the serving habits of college students, this study provides a profile of the serving behavior of the students attending the largest single campus public university in the U.S.

- ***Reasons for and Barriers to Participating in Volunteerism and Service: A Comparison of Ohio Youth in Grades 5-8 and 9-12***
  R. Dale Safrit, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC
  Rosemary R. Gliem, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH
  Joseph A. Gliem, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH
  The authors analyzed existing data investigating volunteerism and service among Ohio youth. Principle components analysis resulted in four factors explaining respondents' reasons for providing volunteerism/service for both grade levels: Grades 5-8: 1) Adult and Peer Pressure; 2) Altruistic/Personal Importance; 3) Use of Leisure Time; and 4) Adult Encouragement; Grades 9-12: 1) Personal/Altruistic Importance; 2) Educational/Career Advancement; 3) Parent/Teacher/Mentor Encouragement; and 4) Social/Peer Influences. Data analysis resulted in three factors explaining barriers to volunteerism/service, again for both grade levels: Grades 5-8: 1) Low Personal Interest; 2) Personal Challenges; and 3) Weak Connectedness to Volunteerism; Grades 9-12: 1) Low Personal Interest; 2) Weak Connectedness to Volunteerism; and 3) Time Constraints. Volunteer administrators from Ohio and states with similar school demographics should consider these reasons and barriers when designing or restructuring youth volunteerism and service programs.

- ***Gifted Students Serving Their Community***
  Leone Junck. Ogden Community Schools, Ogden, IA
  Service learning engages students in solving real life problems. Ogden Middle School, Extended Learning students, assisted their community while building character traits. This paper presents findings from parent and student pre- and post-surveys, to determine benefits students gained from their service learning experience, and discusses implications for managers of student service learning volunteers.
  Sixth graders increased their knowledge of the following: the value of journaling and reflection, the process of service learning, communication skills, learning about themselves, issues that effect the elderly, teamwork and planning skills. Fifth graders reported increased knowledge of: environmental science and wetlands, communication and radio broadcasting, the value in being prepared, the process of service learning, and teamwork skills.

Ideas That Work

- ***Increasing Staff Effectiveness When Working With Teen Volunteers***
  Shelley Murdock, University of California Cooperative Extension, Pleasant Hill, CA
  Even experienced agency staff may lack the skills and knowledge they need to work as effectively with teen volunteers as they would like. Two local youth development experts conducted a half-day workshop which increased agency staff's knowledge of communication and developmental needs of teen volunteers. This article includes the concepts and underlying research that agency staff reported they found most useful to effectively work with their teen volunteers.

The Psychological Contract, Part II: What Motives and Personality To Anticipate in Your College Student Volunteers

Matthew A. Liao-Troth, Western Washington University, Bellingham, WA
H. Michael Drumm, DePaul University, Chicago, IL

This is the second paper in a two-part series on the psychological contract of volunteer workers (see the first in the March 2004 issue of *Journal of Volunteer Administration*). We examined the functional motives of volunteer firefighters in our first paper, studying how motives affected their psychological contract with their fire department. In this paper we are going to look at the motives and personality of college students. We are interested in determining how these two factors affect their psychological contracts with their organizations.

The psychological contract is a construct that captures the informal reciprocal agreement of a work environment from the perspective of the individual (Rosseau, 1995). This contract addresses what obligations employees believe they owe the organization and what entitlements they feel the organization owes them. These obligations go beyond those issues in the formal employment contract. Like paid employees, all volunteers have a psychological contract with their organization. Unlike paid employees, this psychological contract is all most volunteers "have to go on," especially in loosely structured organizations with poorly defined volunteer roles. The psychological contract defines both the type of relationship the volunteer has with the organization, and what obligations and entitlements will be exchanged. The fulfillment or breach of a psychological contract has been shown to have many positive and negative effects, respectively, on employee performance (Robinson and Morrison, 2000). Liao-Troth (2001) has shown that these findings for paid employees can be generalized to volunteers in highly structured organizations where volunteers perform job functions similar to paid employees.

We believed that two traits explain (a) the type of psychological contract that volunteers form with their organizations and (b) what those psychological contracts will address. These two traits are the volunteer's motives to volunteer, and the volunteer's personality. We also believe that the volunteer's personality will affect how the volunteer relates personal motives to the psychological contract (i.e., a more complex effect where motives only matter with certain personalities).

Rousseau (1990) placed the psychological contract into two broad categories: *transactional*, where hard work earns high pay and advancement, and *relational*, where job security is given by the organization for loyalty and a minimum stay by the worker. Rousseau (1995) subsequently identified a hybrid of the relational and transactional contracts, the *balanced* contract. She also categorized four different types of entitlements, or contract contents, an organization might specifically give to an individual: (a) benefits, (b) good

Matthew Liao-Troth received his Ph.D. in management from the Eller College of Business and Public Administration at the University of Arizona, and is an assistant professor of management at Western Washington University. Before his academic career he was a division executive with the Boy Scouts of America. His research interests include volunteer management, the psychological contract of workers, and negotiation and conflict management.

H. Michael Drumm received his D.P.A. from the Huizenga Graduate School of Business and Entrepreneurship at Nova Southeastern University, and is a visiting assistant professor in the Public Services Graduate Program at DePaul University. He is also a National Fire Academy certified Executive Fire Officer. Before his academic career he was a career fire chief. His research interests include leadership, ethics, and organizational behavior.

faith and fair dealings, (c) working conditions, and (d) intrinsic job characteristics. These promises are specific to each psychological contract and individual employee, rather than being related to a specific category of psychological contracts (balanced, relational, and transactional).

VOLUNTEER WORKERS AND THEIR MOTIVES

There are different ways of conceptualizing motives. Clary, Snyder, and Ridge (1992) argue that every individual's motives are different and caution against grouping workers into "motive" categories. Liao-Troth (1999) empirically supports this argument. Clary, Snyder, and Ridge (1992) also found that assessing and matching an individual's motives to the volunteer job provided the greatest predictive accuracy of job success.

Clary, Snyder, and Stukas (1996) developed the Volunteer Function Inventory (VFI) based on the "life functions" that volunteering fulfills. The VFI captures six "life functions": (a) career (work experience), (b) social (interpersonal interaction), (c) values (acting on important personal convictions), (d) enhancement (esteem), (f) protective (ego protection), and (g) understanding (skill practice).

We found that three of these six life function motives predicted two aspects of the psychological contract for volunteer firefighters in our previous study (Liao-Troth & Drumm, 2004). We are not sure if this generalizes to all volunteers, or if volunteers outside of a highly structured environment like firefighting have different motives. In our earlier study, we found that the understanding motive was related to good faith and fair dealings entitlements and intrinsic job characteristic entitlements in psychological contracts. The protective motive was also related to good faith and fair dealings entitlements. In our current study, one of three findings is possible: 1) either a concurrence with the previous finding that these two motives were related to these two psychological contracts (indicating that this may be a generalizable finding for all volunteers); 2) there is no relationship between functional motives and psychological contracts (indicating that the previous finding may be methodologically biased); or 3) there is a different set of relationships of functional motives and psychological contracts (indicating that college student volunteers are different from volunteer firefighters in this regard). Thus, our first two hypotheses in this study are similar to the hypotheses in our previous study:

- *Hypothesis One:* Volunteer motives are related to psychological contract content (e.g., benefits, good faith and fair dealings, working conditions, and intrinsic job characteristics).
- *Hypothesis Two:* Volunteer motives are related to the specific type of psychological contract (e.g., balanced, transactional, relational).

PERSONALITY AND WORK BEHAVIOR

The five factor model of personality (McCrae & Costa, 1987; Digman, 1990) is the first stable model of personality to have demonstrated consistent effects on workplace behavior. Rather than differentiating people into different "types" of personality the model identifies five different personality factors. It also provides a method of comparing people across these different personality factors. The five factors are: (a) openness to new experience, (b) conscientiousness, (c) extroversion, (d) agreeableness, and (e) emotional stability (sometimes identified by its negative anchor, neuroticism). Some of the workplace findings are: (a) conscientiousness serves as a predictor of the performance of professionals (such as managers; Barrick & Mount, 1991), (b) extroversion is predictive of the performance of sales people (Judge, Martocchio, & Thoresen, 1997), and (c) a combination of extroversion and agreeableness indicates transformational leadership (Judge & Bono, 2000).

These factors of personality are relatively stable across time and situation; their effect on workplace behavior is situation dependent. *Strong* situations, with established social norms, usually allow for less of a personality effect than *weak* situations, where appropriate behavior is less socially defined (Davis-Blake and Pfeffer, 1989). Personality should have an effect on the formation of psychological contracts because psychological contracts are

more likely to be salient when there is no contract covering a particular issue (Hypothesis 3). This, in essence, is a weak situation in the worker and organizational relationship, which is when personality should have the greatest effect on behavior (Davis-Blake & Pfeffer, 1989). This occurrence should be prevalent both when addressing the content and establishing the type of the psychological contract (Hypothesis 4). Finally, as personality moderates the relationship of motivation and behavior (Weiss & Adler, 1984), there should be an interaction between the two predictors of a psychological contract (meaning that some motives may have an effect for some personalities but not others; Hypothesis Five). To reiterate our third through fifth hypotheses:

- *Hypothesis Three:* Personality factors are related to psychological contract content (e.g. benefits, good faith and fair dealings, working conditions, and intrinsic job characteristics).
- *Hypothesis Four:* Personality factors are related to the specific type of psychological contract (e.g. balanced, transactional, relational).
- *Hypothesis Five:* Personality factors moderate the relationship of motivation and both the content and type of psychological contract.

STUDY

Our study used 105 undergraduate college students enrolled in an organizational behavior class at a private Midwestern (U.S.) university. Demographic data on these subjects can be found in Table 1.

TABLE 1
Demographics of Subjects

Demographic Characteristic	Values
Average Age in Years	21 (1.35 standard deviation)
Gender (category)	48.57% female, 51.43% male
Family Income (category)	"greater than $75k" accounted for 61.2% of the subjects all ranges from "less than $5k" up were represented
Ethnic Identity (category)	64.8% white 20% Asian American 9.5% other 4.8% African American 1% Hispanic No Middle Eastern Americans nor Native Americans were in this sample

Procedures

The subjects filled out a questionnaire assessing all measures except personality. This was done on their own with a time limit as an extra credit assignment for class. Personality was assessed at an earlier point in time as a part of a self-assessment activity in the class. The connection between personality and questionnaire data was at the student's option; students were not excluded from the extra credit if they did not provide the key to link the two sets of data. The study design was a retrospective questionnaire. Data were analyzed with hierarchical regression to control for demographic variables. Predictors were entered in the order of demographic control variables first (to make sure any effect was not demographically based), the motives second, then personality third, and finally, when both motives and personality were present, a variable to represent their mutual interactional effect was entered to see if they had joint effect.

RESULTS

We present a summary of our results in Table 2. Volunteers who established a psychological contract regarding benefits shared five traits that were directly related to volunteer motives: (a) year of birth, (b) the social functional motive of volunteering, and personalities of (c) conscientiousness, (d) extroversion, and (e) emotional stability. There was no joint effect of motives and personality in a benefits-based psychological contract.

There were four driving factors for volunteers who established good faith and fair dealings psychological contracts with their organizations: (a) year of birth, and personalities of (b) openness to new experiences, (c) extrover-

TABLE 2

Significant Predictors of Psychological Contracts

Psychological Contract	Control	Motive	Personality	Motive x Personality
Benefits	Year (+)	Social (+)	Conscientiousness (+) Extroversion (-) Emotional Stability (-)	-
Good Faith	Year (+)	-	Openness (+) Extroversion (+) Emotional Stability (-)	-
Working Conditions	-	-	Conscientiousness (+) Emotional Stability (-)	-
Intrinsic Job Characteristics	-	-	-	
Balanced	-	-	Conscientiousness (+) Emotional Stability (-)	-
Transactional	-	Career (+) Protective (-)	-	
Relational	Year (-)	-	Agreeableness (+) Emotional Stability (-)	-

sion, and (d) emotional stability. Motivation, in itself, was not a factor; because of this the interaction step was not run (Baron & Kenney, 1986).

There were two effects for the working conditions contract: the personality traits of conscientiousness and emotional stability. As with the good faith and fair dealings contract, there were no effects for motives and the interaction step was not run.

There were no significant factors for the intrinsic job characteristics contract. As there was no effect for motives or for personality, the interaction term was not run.

We did discover two effects for the balanced contract: the personality traits of conscientiousness and emotional stability. There were no effects either for a demographic factor or for motives.

The transactional contract was unaffected by demographic control variables, but it was related to the career and protective functional motives.

Year of birth had an effect for volunteers establishing a relational contract. There were also effects for the personality traits of agreeableness and emotional stability.

DISCUSSION

We found partial support for our first two hypotheses, but not complete support. One functional motive (social) was related to one dimension of content of psychological contracts (benefits), and two functional motives (career and protective) were related to one type of psychological contract (transactional), giving partial support to hypotheses one and two. Our findings for the effects of functional motivation psychological contract formation are different from our earlier study on volunteer firefighters. This indicates that the motives that affect psychological contract formation may vary from one type of volunteer position to another. This may be because of the type of people that these different positions attract, or it may be because of how these volunteer jobs are designed and presented to potential volunteers. We have insufficient data to tell why these differences exist, only that they do. Future research should investigate this issue.

For hypothesis three we found partial support with four personality factors (conscientiousness, emotional stability, extroversion, and openness to new experiences) relating to three of the four contents of psychological contracts (benefits, good faith and fair dealings, and working conditions), but only emotional stability was consistent for all three. Likewise, for hypothesis four we found partial support in that three of the personality factors (agreeableness, conscientiousness, and emotional stability) were related to the three types of psychological contracts (balanced,

relational, and transactional), but there was no consistent personality trait having an effect on all three. Finally, we found no support for hypothesis five.

Implications

A key difference between the subjects in our earlier study of volunteer firefighters and the subjects in this study of student volunteers is the degree of formalization of the volunteer work. Volunteer firefighters are highly trained for the tasks that they do, and have a formalized relationship with their fire departments. Our student subjects, on the other hand, were in highly fluid volunteer situations, where training was minimal, and few had a formal volunteer "contract". In this type of setting especially, our findings make a lot of sense. Without a formalized relationship, people who are low on the personality dimension of emotional stability, will explicitly form these arrangements in their own mind to compensate for the lack of a formal contract. People who are high on emotional stability would not have worries about their relationships with others or the organization that they volunteer for, and would be less likely to form strong expectations about their relationship with their organization (in other words, they would form weak psychological contracts).

So if you, as an administrator of volunteers, want to have student volunteers (who do not have a formalized relationship with your organization) serve over a long period of time and are loyal to your organization (i.e., they form relational psychological contracts), or serve over a long period of time, are loyal, and also expect something in return (i.e., balanced psychological contracts), then you would seek out volunteers who are low on the personality dimension of emotional stability. This type of person would be looking for a social affiliation and social validation for themselves. Likewise, if you are in a position to provide some sort of benefit to your volunteers, or have a culture of good faith and fair dealings with your volunteers, or have safe and supportive working conditions for your volunteers, then selecting student volunteers who are low on emotional stability will give you the volunteers who would appreciate these issues.

It also makes sense that emotional stability does not affect the formation of intrinsic job characteristics and transactional contracts, because as volunteers the intrinsic job characteristics will be explicit (and therefore a strongly held psychological contract may not be necessary). This would also explain the lack of findings for transactional contracts: since these are more explicit than relational contracts, in terms of what is being exchanged, there may be no need to identify what may be formally presented.

Using personality dimensions as a potential selection tool for student volunteers is not limited to the dimension of emotional stability. Looking at Table 2 there are specific personality dimensions tied to each of the content and type of psychological contract. Depending on the type of relationship you want to have with your volunteers (relational, transactional, and balanced) and the content of what you can provide your volunteers (benefits, good faith and fair dealings, intrinsic job characteristics, and working conditions), you would seek student volunteers who were high or low on related personality dimensions.

Please note that selecting people for a volunteer position purely on personality characteristics is not our recommendation. Personality is only one issue in any potential volunteer, and there are other much more important issues (e.g., knowledge, skills, and abilities for the task at hand). A prime consideration for every organization is the mutual fit between the mission of the organization and its culture with the values of the volunteer. We did not measure or control for any of these variables, and did not look at performance of the student volunteers. In this study we were only concerned about the psychological contract that they had formed with their organization.

If you do choose to use personality as one of your screening techniques for volunteers, we strongly suggest working with a trained (and in some states licensed) industrial-organizational psychologist, and collecting data on your existing volunteers (both good and

bad performers) for some period of time before actually using personality as a selection tool. A free instrument to collect the Five Factor personality dimensions has been available at outofservice.com, and another has been at personalitytest.net. You can also contact Psychological Assessment Resources, in Lutz, Florida, for the NEO Five Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI), which is the most widely used instrument. Also remember that there are legal issues to consider when using any selection tool, even for volunteers, and that you may want to consult a human resources attorney that specializes in employment law as it relates to volunteers.

You can get a better sense of what they see as the "give and take" between themselves and the organization if you talk with your student volunteers about this and ask what they want and expect from the organization.

For managers of student volunteers, our study indicates that if you want to manage the types of psychological contacts your volunteers form with your organization, you should really assess their personality, while looking at their motives to volunteer as only a secondary issue (only social and career motives have an effect here). It is also important to note that research on volunteers in a more structured environment (such as volunteer firefighters) will not generalize to student volunteers. A manager of student volunteers should be advised to only look at research that uses student volunteers as tbe subjects heing investigated.

Finally, as we mentioned in our first paper (Liao-Troth & Drumm, 2004), the psychological contract of volunteers is an important construct to use in understanding your volunteers. You can get a better sense of what they see as the "give and take" between themselves and the organization if you discuss this witb your student volunteers and ask what they want and expect from the organization. You can manage the psychological contracts you form on behalf of the organization with your volunteers if you keep the findings of our study in mind when recruiting student volunteers.

Limitations

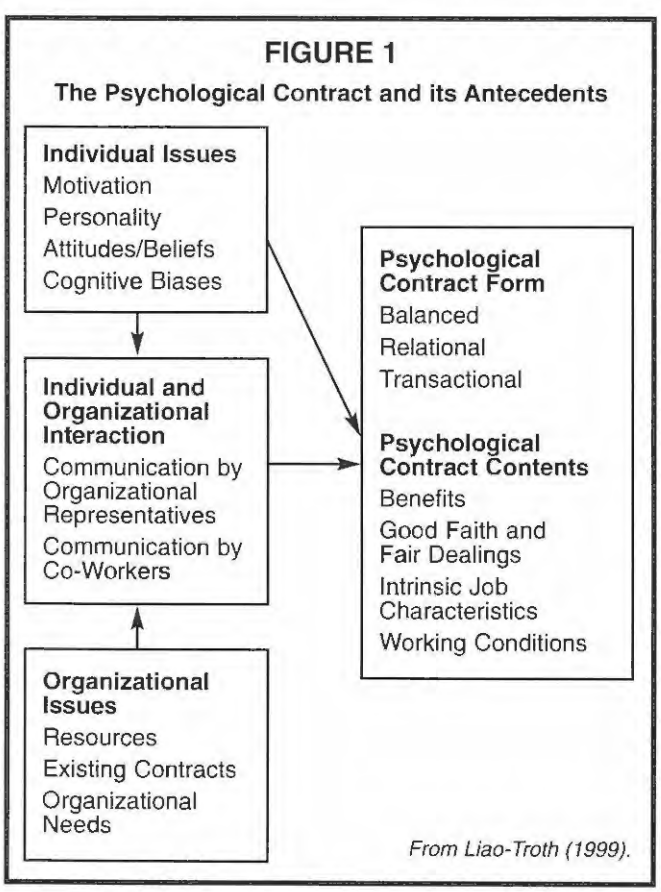
Just as motives vary greatly from volunteer firefighters to student volunteers, we cannot assume these findings on personality would be consistent across different types of volunteers. In addition, this study suffers from common method variance since the motives and the psychological contract types and contents were assessed at the same time. Finally, this data is correlational but not longitudinal, meaning that while we know these relationships exist we cannot know for certain which variable causes what outcome (i.e., a chicken and the egg problem).

Directions for Future Research

As we mentioned in the first article, the interaction between the organization and the individual should be investigated (Figure 1).

FIGURE 1

The Psychological Contract and its Antecedents



From Liao-Troth (1999).

In this paper we have been focusing on what the individual volunteer brings to their relationship with the organization, and how their individual issues of personality and motivation affect that relationship. We have not looked at the three other relationships that need to be explored: the effect of individual issues on the interaction between the individual and the organization, how this intereaction affects the formation of the psychological contract of volunteers, and how organizational issues can affect that interaction.

Work also needs to continue on the generalizability of these findings to different types of volunteer situations. We know that findings from volunteer firefighters are not generalizable to student volunteers, but there are many other types of volunteers, in a variety of organizations. It may be that each situation is different enough that we cannot generalize from volunteers in one type of situation to another, but until more work has been completed, we cannot say so with certainty.

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Younger Volunteers in Sweden

Richard A. Sundeen, University of Southern California, Los Angeles, CA
Sally A. Raskoff, Los Angeles Valley College, Los Angeles, CA

INTRODUCTION

Volunteerism among young people in Sweden provides a conceptually interesting comparison with the United States: while the proportions of those who volunteer are similar in both countries, their distinctive traditions, political structures, and access to volunteer opportunities appear to spawn volunteer participation in different activities and areas. An understanding of how this context shapes the meaning and practice of volunteerism provides insights into the comparative differences in volunteer behavior among younger persons. Specifically, this paper reports the findings of an investigation of volunteering among young persons (16-24) in Sweden and addresses the following general question: Given the character of the Swedish context, what is the nature and extent of volunteerism by young persons in Sweden?

SWEDISH SOCIETY AND VOLUNTEERISM

In order to understand youth volunteering in Sweden, it is first necessary to appreciate its larger context and meaning. During 1998, over half (51%) of the Swedish population, ages 16 and over, volunteered at least once to an organization, i.e., "work and activities which are carried out on a voluntary basis, unremunerated (or in exchange for token remuneration) during one's free or leisure time. In some circles this is also called charity work." This proportion ranks among the highest in European countries (Wijkstrom, 1997:646) and is slightly less than the U.S. (56%) in 1998 (Independent Sector, 1999). The definitions of volunteering in the two studies differ with specific reference to helping behavior in the Independent Sector surveys, e.g., "not just belonging to a service organization, but actually working in some way to help others for no monetary pay" (Independent Sector, 1997: E-100). Also, the Independent Sector includes informal volunteering as part of its overall measure of volunteering, i.e., "helping a neighbor or a friend, or organization on an ad hoc basis; spending time caring for elderly person or babysitting children of a friend, but not part of an organized group or for pay" (Independent Sector, 1997), while the Swedish research practice separates formal and informal volunteering.

For comparative purposes, one can identify three broad elements that differentiate Swedish volunteering: (1) the role of the welfare state, (2) the significance of organizations and associations in society, and (3) the volunteer roles of members in these organizations.

A distinctive feature of Sweden's nonprofit sector flows from the country's large and comprehensive public social welfare program. Because of the expectation that Sweden's government programs will meet its citizens' social and economic needs, "...there is little room left for service-producing in nonprofit organizations" (Anheier and Salamon, 1999:61). Instead, they are more likely to be found in the areas of culture and recreation, education (e.g., folk and adult schools) and research, policy advocacy, business and labor, and housing (Wijkstrom, 1997: 633-636).

A second feature of Swedish society is the numerous nonprofit organizations, popular social movements, interest groups, and associations devoted to representing the interests of their members, providing services and mutual support, and/or making available members' leisure opportunities (Lundstrom and Wijkstrom, 1997:175; Jeppsson Grassman and Svedberg 1996:419-424). (See Lundstrom

Richard A. Sundeen is Professor and Associate Dean, School of Policy, Planning, and Development, University of Southern California where he teaches courses on the nonprofit sector and volunteerism. His publications include numerous articles on adult and teenage volunteers and high school community service.

Sally A. Raskoff is Professor of Sociology and Chair of the Sociology and Ethnic Studies Department, Los Angeles Valley College. She has published numerous articles on volunteers and high school community service.

and Wijkstrom (1997:14-51 for a more detailed description of the Swedish nonprofit sector.) For example, among associations where young people volunteer, members of a sports organization receive training and play on the club's team (K. Nissfeldt, personal communication, June 22, 2000); a temperance group promotes public policy restricting the use of alcohol (F. Wijkstrom, personal communication, June 21, 2000); and a cultural arts group affords its members an opportunity to participate in theatre productions (K. Rosenbach, personal communication, June 16, 2000).

The state encourages the growth of these voluntary associations (Jeppsson Grassman and Svedberg, 1996:416), including subsidies to 62 non-governmental youth organizations in the areas of religion, temperance, politics, disability, immigrants, and general activities (National Board for Youth Affairs, 1999: 164). Also, most local Swedish associations are part of national organizations that serve as umbrella groups, such as the Swedish Youth Council which consists of 94 youth organizations, which provide support and representation at the national level (Jeppsson Grassman and Svedberg, 1996:418). For example, the Swedish Sports Confederation includes 67 federations, each organizing one or more sports, and 22,000 local clubs, and serves as the largest and most comprehensive network of local groups affiliated with a national organization (Swedish Sports Confederation, n.d.: 20-21).

The role of the member in associations and voluntary organizations is a third characteristic relevant to volunteerism in Sweden. The expectation that members devote time to their organization and are "active rather than passive" (Wijkstrom, 1997:644) serves as the basis for understanding the Swedish concept of volunteering. Unlike the numerous volunteers in the U.S. who frequently give time to organizations to which they do not belong and which provide service to others who also may not be members, e.g., health clinics, homeless shelters, or food kitchens, nearly 85 percent of all Swedish volunteers belong to the organization to which they volunteer.

IMPLICATIONS FOR YOUNG PERSONS' VOLUNTEERING

Given this Swedish context of volunteering, we turn now to a specific focus on volunteering by young persons. Research on volunteering in the U.S. suggests that (a) dominant statuses, such as parent's occupation, income, and education, (b) family variables, including whether or not one's parent have volunteered, and (c) size of community are often statistically associated with whether or not a person volunteers (Smith, 1994; Sundeen, 1988; Sundeen and Raskoff, 1994). Also, more altruistic and prosocial attitudes tend to be associated with volunteering among U.S. teenagers (Sundeen, 1988). Further, as a reflection of the Swedish context, we expect volunteering to be greater in recreational, cultural, and political activities and less in social services, health care, education, or more adult oriented activities, as well as to be greater in performing organizational maintenance tasks than direct service provision. Because older persons dominate many associations and organizations, we expect younger volunteers to carry out tasks, reflecting less responsibility for the actual governing of organizations.

RESEARCH PROCESSES

The 1998 Swedish national household survey on volunteering (N=1104) serves as the source for the data and the statistics we report. The survey sample includes 216 persons between the ages of 16 and 24 who participated in face-to-face interviews in Swedish. The Swedish principal investigators provided a copy of the data set and codebook and an American, who received his Ph.D. in sociology in Sweden, translated the codebook.

We compare younger volunteers and non-volunteers in terms of socio-demographic background and attitudes toward volunteerism. We examine the distribution of volunteers in over 30 types of organizations, the organizational tasks carried out, reasons for volunteering, and how they became involved in the organization. We compare subgroups of volunteers in order to determine whether significant differences exist between volunteers to different types of organizations. As a

means of comparing either groups or responses within groups, we employed Chi Square, which is interpreted as a measure of whether or not there is a statistically significant association between two variables. Also, tests of significance are used in comparing the differences between proportions in the two groups.

In order to supplement the survey data with a more textured understanding of youth volunteering, one of the authors carried out interviews in Stockholm during June, 2000 with fourteen persons (recommended by a Swedish researcher). The interviewees included representatives of 8 types of organizations to which young persons volunteer and two Swedish researchers in the nonprofit and voluntary field. These semi-structured, open-ended interviews were carried out in English, tape-recorded, and lasted between 30 and 90 minutes.

FINDINGS

Extent of Volunteering

Fifty percent of Swedish young persons (16-24 years old) indicated that they volunteered at least once to an organization or association in 1998 and devoted an average of 12 hours per month. An additional 1.4% of

TABLE 1.

Percentage Differences Between Younger Volunteers and Non Volunteers (16-24 years old)

		Volunteers	Non Volunteers
N (total number)		107	109
Males		52.3%	55.0%
Education	Basic	33.6	33.9
	High School	61.7	61.5
	University	4.7	4.6
Household Income [a]	(Median category)	175-224,999 Kr/yr.	150-174,999 Kr/yr.
Place of Birth	Sweden	87.9	88.1
	Other Nordic Country	0.0	2.8
	European Country	3.7	3.7
	Non-European Country	8.4	5.5
Parents Raised in Foreign Country	None	77.6	83.5
	One Parent	9.3	6.4
	Two Parents	13.1	10.1
Place of Residence	City (large)	18.7	24.8
	Town	32.7*	22.0
	Smaller Town	48.6	53.2
Extent of Parents' Volunteering	Not at all	15.0	21.1
	Limited extent	25.2	29.4
	Certain extent	30.8	26.6
	Great extent	29.0	22.9
People in Household	Mean, standard deviation	2.9 (1.6)	2.9 (1.5)
Children in Household	Mean, standard deviation	0.7 (1.2)	0.7 (0.9)
Informal Volunteering		9.3**	2.8
Member of Organization (to which you volunteer)		78.9	n/a
Attitudes[b]	Give Something (agree)	75.7**	60.7
	Moral Obligation (agree)	43.9	42.1
	Active Democracy (agree)	86.0**	72.0
	Government Has No Need (disagree)	74.8	68.2

Levels of Statistical Significance for tests assessing differences between young Volunteers and young Non-Volunteers:
* p<=.10; **p<=.05; ***p<=.01; ****p<=.001 a August 2002 exchange rate: US$-SK 9.45

b 1. Voluntary workers give something other than what paid professionals offer.
2. Everyone has a moral obligation to carry out voluntary work at some point in his or her lives.
3. Engagement in voluntary work leads to people taking a more active role in a democratic society.
4. If the government took its full responsibility, there wouldn't be the need for voluntary work.

young persons did not volunteer to an organization but carried out informal unpaid work for others, e.g., "do you regularly carry out unpaid work (for example driving, buying food, carrying out yard work, cleaning for persons you don't live with or other people you are not related to?"). Fifty-one percent of young persons in Sweden volunteered either to organizations or informally, in contrast to approximately two-thirds of U.S. teenagers in 1996 where 23% carried out some form of informal volunteer work and over half (58%) volunteer to an organization (Independent Sector, 1997).

Differences Between Younger Volunteers and Non-volunteers

The comparison of volunteers and non-volunteers reveals that dominant status does not contribute significantly to the explanation of volunteering, while community size does make a difference. Volunteers are more likely than non-volunteers to live in a middle sized town (as opposed to smaller or larger cities). This suggests that smaller and larger cities may be slightly less conducive to volunteering among young persons than middle-sized cities. In smaller cities, there may be less apparent need or opportunity. In larger cities other leisure activities may attract young persons. There is a comparatively lower level of social capital that connects people to organizations, and/or city life spawns a higher commitment to individual interests and pursuits.

Also, a greater proportion of volunteers than non-volunteers participate in informal helping activities and express agreement with two pro volunteerism attitudes: (1) "[volunteers]...give something other than what paid professionals offer" and (2) "...engagement in voluntary work leads people to taking a more active role in democratic society." These three findings must be interpreted with caution, because the causal direction of the associations is not clear. For example, informally helping others may bring the young person into interpersonal networks that result in opportunities for formal volunteering or vice versa. A third variable, such as parental volunteer behavior, leads to both informal and formal volunteering. Similarly, the causal direction of the relationship between volunteering and the two pro-volunteer attitudes — the importance of providing something other than what professionals offer, and the significance of volunteering for citizenship in a democracy — can be either way. If treated as independent variables, we would conclude that younger persons volunteer because of these attitudes while, if dependent variables, we might conclude that one's volunteer experience provides the younger person with a greater appreciation of volunteering. Clearly, these are areas needing further research.

TABLE 2.

Frequency of Volunteering in Types of Organizations, 16-24 Year Olds

Type of Organization	% of 16-24 year olds
Sports	24.5%
Cultural	10.6
Student Associations	8.8
Religious (combined)	5.1
Hobby	4.2
Political Parties	3.7
Humanitarian	3.2
Immigrant	2.8
All other areas	Less than 2.0%
Informal volunteering (not to an organization or family member)	6.0

Volunteer Areas

Table 2 presents the frequency of volunteering by types of organizations among 16- to 24-year-olds. The most frequent areas of volunteer activity among young persons are in sports, cultural, student, and religious organizations. As in the general Swedish population, the area of sports clubs and associations accounts for the largest proportion (24.5%) of young volunteers. Examples of the myriad of sports clubs include football (soccer), equestrian, ice hockey, floor ball, swimming, and tennis, with football being the most popular among young persons.

Considerable lower than sports, the second most frequent volunteer area — cultural arts (10.6%) — includes cultural, music, dance or theater associations, such as local amateur

theater groups affiliated with the Swedish National Association of Amateur Theater and local educational programs devoted to providing cultural activities to young persons, such as Aktiv Ungdom (Active Youth). Student associations (8.8%), which are an age specific activity, rank as the third most frequent area of volunteering and religious organizations (5.1%), e.g., the Church of Sweden, other Christian denominations/groups, or non-Christians, rank fourth. Although the Church of Sweden traditionally has been a significant part of Swedish society, "membership is only nominal, [and] only a small minority of the population actually attend church regularly" (Lundstrom and Wijkstrom, 1997:44-45). While nonprofit sector activities of churches are probably closest to what would be termed "charity work," including social services, health care, international aid, and adult education (Lundstrom and Wijkstrom, 1997: 18, 44), young volunteers in Stockholm to the Church of Sweden frequently limit their participation to assisting in confirmation classes of younger persons (J. von Essem, personal communication, June 7, 2000). Finally, each of all other types of organizations and associations attract less than four percent of younger persons as volunteers.

Volunteer Activities

Volunteer participation assumes activities beyond solely belonging to the organization (National Board for Youth Affairs, 1999:161-62; F. Wijkstrom, personal communication, June 21, 2000). Table 3 presents the frequency distribution of organizational tasks performed by the volunteers. We also compare the young sports volunteers with all other young volunteers as well as young cultural arts volunteers with all other young volunteers in order to examine the impact of organizational context on volunteer tasks.

As anticipated, young Swedish volunteers tend be involved in organizational maintenance tasks, rather than direct assistance to clients or members. Most young persons' volunteer behavior focused on assisting organization(s) to meet their goals through administrative and practical tasks, such as record keeping, supervising younger members, cleaning, and making coffee. Less frequently, though still accounting for 20 to 25 percent of young persons' tasks, are organizational roles related to leadership, training, fundraising, information dissemination, and other undefined tasks. For example, depending upon their age, younger volunteers to sports groups assist in training, coaching, and refereeing of younger persons' teams, while others participate in fundraising, such as selling lottery tickets and assisting in flea markets, to support the club. The volunteers to the cultural organization described above (Aktiv Ungdom) serve as local board members or leaders of dance, music, clowns, art, and theater activities (K. Rosenbach, personal communication, June 16, 2000).

Younger volunteers are least likely to (1)

TABLE 3.

Volunteer Tasks of Young Persons and Among Those Volunteering in Sports and Cultural Organizations, 16-24 Years Old

Tasks	All 16-24 Volunteers	Young Sports Vols	Other Young Vols	Young Cultural	Other Young Vols
	(N=110)	(N=53)	(N=54)	(N=23)	(N=84)
Administration /Practical tasks	31.8%	32.1%	31.5%	34.8%	31.0
Education/training/leadership	25.2	28.3	22.2	34.8	22.6
Collecting money	23.4	35.8 ***	11.1	26.1	22.6
Other tasks	21.5	18.9	24.1	13.0	23.8
Information campaigns/public opinion	20.6	13.2 **	27.8	26.1	19.0
Governing boards/Decision Making	11.2	7.5	14.8	13.0	10.7
Direct assistance	10.3	5.7	14.8	17.4	8.3

(More than one task could be selected.) Levels of Statistical Significance between young volunteers to specific organizations and other young volunteers: * p<=.10; **p<=.05; ***p<=.01; ****p<=.001

serve on governing boards or in other decision making activities and (2) provide direct assistance, thus reflecting, first, organizational dominance by older adults, greater leadership experience by older members, or a reluctance to be involved in these roles by younger persons, and, second, the societal expectations that direct assistance is the primary responsibility of public social service organizations, the family, and, occasionally, the church.

While the sizes of the sub-samples are too small for extensive analysis, a comparison of tasks carried out in the two most frequent volunteer areas (sports and cultural organizations) shows that young volunteers to sports are more likely to be involved in collecting money and less likely to carry out information campaigns or provide direct assistance than all other younger volunteers. In contrast, the cultural organization volunteers participate least in governing boards and do not differ significantly from all other volunteers. Compared to sports volunteers, they volunteer to a substantially greater extent in information campaigns and direct assistance. These findings suggest that, similar to the U.S. (Sundeen and Raskoff, 1994), the general category of volunteering, while providing an overall picture, does not reveal important role variations embedded in differing volunteer areas and activities.

Motives of Volunteers

Nearly two-thirds of younger volunteers indicate that personal interests and avocations serve as the basis for volunteering, in contrast to only fifteen percent who wish to contribute to the organization's activities. Apparently, intrinsic and/or individualistic interests in an organization's activities and values, e.g., sports, games, theater, and church, rather than a commitment to the organizational membership or to a greater collective good, serve as the attitudinal bases for a significant proportion of young persons to join and be actively involved. Also, among this group, helping others or one's family does not play central roles in deciding to volunteer. Illustrative of these findings that focus on the importance of meeting individual rather than organizational or community interests through volunteering are the following two observations: "[Young persons] are interested in sports activities, and [active participation] is another way to be connected to one of the most important aspects of their life" (A. Lundin, personal communication, June 8, 2000); "Leadership roles [in a cultural organization for children] enable aspiring young actors to become more involved in theatre activities" (K. Rosenbach, personal communication, June 16, 2000). An additional explanation is that since the majority of nonprofit organizations typically do not serve as venues for the provision of charitable services they are generally not a place to meet one's more altruistic goals.

The data comparing motivation among volunteers to sports and cultural organizations also yield statistically significant and

TABLE 4.

Reasons for Volunteering among Young Persons

Reasons	All 16-24 Volunteers	Young SportsVols Vols	Other Young Vols	Young Cultural	Other Young Vols
	(N=110)	(N=53)	(N=54)	(N=23)	(N=84)
My personal interests or particular need	64.7%	72.5% *	56.9	81.8% *	60.0
A desire to contribute to the organization's activities	14.7	19.6	9.8	4.3	17.5
A desire to do something positive for other people	14.7	7.8**	21.6	4.5	17.5
Other	5.9	0**	11.8	9.1	5.0
The situation of a family member or particular need	0	0	0	0	0

Levels of Statistical Significance between young volunteers to specific organizations and other young volunteers:
* p<=.10; **p<=.05; ***p<=.01; ****p<=.001

TABLE 5.

Who Took the Initiative in Carrying out the Volunteer Activities?

Reasons	All 16-24 Volunteers	Young SportsVols Vols	Other Young Vols	Young Cultural	Other Young Vols
	(N=110)	(N=53)	(N=54)	(N=23)	(N=84)
I was asked to engage in this work	51.4	58.5	44.4	60.9	48.8
I sought out this work myself	48.6	35.8 ***	61.1	47.8	48.8
I was among the founders who started the organization	6.5	7.5	5.6	4.3	7.1
Don't know	2.8	3.8	1.9	0.0	3.6

(More than one response could be selected)

Levels of Statistical Significance between young volunteers to specific organizations and other young volunteers:
* p<=.10; **p<=.05; ***p<=.01; ****p<=.001

interesting differences. While greater proportions of both sub-groups indicate the desire to follow their own interests compared to all other volunteers, the participants in cultural arts organizations are especially higher. More than sports, which likely draw numerous young persons out of desire to perfect their individual athletic talents, cultural arts organizations attract young persons pursuing their own artistic and creative needs. Also, a smaller proportion of those providing unpaid labor for sports organizations compared to other volunteers attribute their volunteering to the desire to do something positive for other people.

Recruitment of Volunteers

Few Swedish organizations appear to have formal systems for attracting young volunteers. Typically, young people join an organization in order to participate as a member, and then develop an interest in a more active member role. They may become visible to those in leadership positions who ask them informally to take on a responsibility, such as helping out a sports trainer or coach. Other types of associations with training programs may invite young members to participate in a study circle or short course offered by the organization that will also lead to increased involvement in the group. In the case of the Church of Sweden, young volunteers who assist in the confirmation class have recently completed the previous confirmation class.

Table 5 indicates that about the same proportion of young persons are asked to volunteer as are those who take initiative to volunteer. Nevertheless, differences exist in how volunteers become involved in specific types of organizations. While volunteers to sports and cultural groups are both more likely to be asked than other young volunteers, the sports volunteers tend not to take as much initiative in finding the work. This may reflect a tendency of sports clubs to identify promising younger members, provide them training opportunities, travel, and gifts, such as uniforms and equipment, in order to retain and encourage them to continue up the club's career ladder, and to be more restrictive in allowing others to participate further in the club's activities.

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Similar to the U.S., approximately one-half of young persons 16-24 years old in Sweden volunteer. However, volunteering among young persons in Sweden may not be a result of dominant status; rather, volunteering emerges as a result of the social environment, including stronger networks of social relations found in its abundance of nonprofit organizations and associations, particularly in middle-sized cities, as well as the state's dominance in the production and delivery of social services. In contrast to U.S. youth, whose volunteering tends to concentrate in the areas of religious, educational, and various social and human service organizations, younger Swedish volunteers participate primarily in sports, recreational, cultural, and student activities. Their responsibilities tend to focus on maintenance of the organization in contrast to broader policy leadership or direct assistance to

clients/members. They also attribute their reasons for volunteering to individual interests rather than a desire to contribute to the organization or to help other people and they tend to become involved in volunteer activities either by being asked or taking their own initiative. While these are general tendencies among all volunteers, when broken down into volunteers according to specific types of activities, differences emerge among subgroups which suggest that volunteering is best understood when seen in the organization context in which it occurs.

While the areas of volunteer activity by younger persons reflect the Swedish sociopolitical context, the assumed importance of organization commitment by volunteers is not supported by the findings. A recurring theme from the observations of the interviewees is that, among younger Swedes, the traditional emphasis on organizational membership and its commensurate responsibilities, such as volunteering to assist the organization in its operations, has lost some of its importance among many young persons. Referring to a perceived decline in participation in youth organizations of political parties while the general interest level in politics has increased, one observer stated, "They don't want the whole package. They might want to demonstrate, but they don't want to administer" (K. Nissfeldt, personal communication, June 22, 2000).

While the extent of this decline in organizational commitment is not clear, the respondents had various explanations. These include a decline in young persons' discretionary time because of other pursuits and interests (K. Rosenbach, personal communication, June 16, 2000); the increased commitment to narrower, single issues, such as the environment (see Lundstrom and Wijkstrom, 1997:91); the inability of traditional organizations to keep pace with the emphasis by new organizational forms on horizontal relationships, consensus decision making, informality, two way communication, and linkage to the larger society (F. Wijkstrom, personal communication, June 21, 2000); and the general increase in individualism in Swedish society. For example, over a decade ago, Boli (1991:116) noted a change among Swedish citizens toward "rejecting established political channels in their efforts to influence policy decisions" and utilizing more individual and autonomous means of influence. More recently, Rothstein (2002:29) has used the term, "solidaristic individualism," in denoting individuals who give support to others but who also "accept that they have other, different values and want to engage themselves for different causes." He goes on to state (pp 31-32) that "...choosing an organization may nowadays have more to do with the individual's deliberate creation of a specific lifestyle than with adherence to an established organized ideological collective." According to one interviewee, another sign of this changing relationship to organizations — not unlike the stipends, school credit, and other material forms of remuneration for volunteer work in the U.S. — is that there appears to be "an increase in young persons who want to be paid for their time"(A. Lundin, personal communication, June 8, 2000).

While this paper has described the Swedish context of young persons' volunteering, its findings can also be instructive for the practitioner and researcher in other societies. It suggests that volunteering must be understood in its cultural-political-organizational contexts out of which come multiple meanings of the concept of volunteering, its activities and tasks, motivations, and ways of involving recruits. It also suggests that as social structures and values change so do organizational attachments that require new responses to younger potential volunteers' special interests and needs.

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Volunteering for the Future: The Impact on Young Volunteers of Volunteering in Paediatric Palliative Care

Rosalind C. Scott, Children's Hospice Association Scotland, Kinross, Scotland
Denise Burgin, Children's Hospice Association Scotland, Kinross, Scotland

BACKGROUND

The children's hospice movement in the UK is still relatively young with the first children's hospice, Helen House, being established in Oxford in 1982. Children's hospices are purpose built buildings offering respite and palliative care to children and young people suffering from life-threatening conditions and support to their families. Palliative care for young people with life-limiting conditions is described as "an active and total approach to care, embracing physical, emotional, social and spiritual elements. It focuses on the enhancement of quality of life for the young person and support for family and friends and includes the management of distressing symptoms, provision of respite and care through death and bereavement" (ACT ; R.C.PC.H. 1997). The aim is to help the children and young people to live life as fully as possible and achieve hopes and dreams in the time they have left.

Less than 11 percent of children using hospices have cancer. Many have a range of other complex, life threatening conditions such as, duchenne muscular dystrophy, cystic fibrosis; Batten's disease, mucopolysaccharidosis and neurological conditions such as severe cerebral palsy (ACT et al.1997).The period of time that children and families stay varies from hospice to hospice, and is dependent on the child's specific needs, condition and the circumstances of each family. On average it is for periods of 3 - 5 nights on several occasions throughout the year, up to approximately 21 nights. The demand for hospice/respite care has increased considerably in recent years and consequently there are now more than 27 children's hospices with many more in the planning stages.

The maintenance and continuing development of all hospices relies heavily on voluntary income as only a small proportion of their funding comes from statutory sources such as the National Health Service and Social Services. It is of great concern therefore that the "National Survey of Volunteering in UK" (1997) identified a "sharp reduction" in levels of participation by young people aged 18 – 24 years and more negative views of volunteering among the younger generation than older age groups. Further research was funded by the Institute of Volunteering Research (Gaskin 1998) to explore young people's understanding of voluntary work and their view of its relevance to them. Attention was focussed on the conditions and incentives which would attract them to voluntary work and the best ways of publicising and marketing volunteering opportunities. Some of the key findings were a need for flexibility and ease of access to volunteering opportunities, which is still considered to be a barrier. Young people also stated that volunteering should be "enjoyable, satisfying and fun."

Culbertson (2003) speaking about youth volunteering in America, argues that the greatest hurdle to supporting youth volunteering over the next decade is the generally disapproving perception of adults about

Ros Scott is Head of Voluntary Services at the Children's Hospice Association Scotland, and has an extensive background in volunteer management in palliative care, both the adult and paediatric sectors. She is currently Chair of InVOLve, the Professional Association for Volunteer Managers in Palliative Care for UK and Ireland, Vice-Chair of the Help the Hospices Advisory Panel on Volunteering, and part of the Executive of Scottish Association of Volunteers Managers. She also leads the Association of Children's Hospices Volunteer Managers Group.

Denise Burgin, currently works as an independent nurse consultant. She has many years of experience in paediatric/child health nursing as a senior nurse/ward sister, in paediatric medicine and oncology and also as a nurse tutor, lecturer in child health nursing. Her current interests relate the involvement of volunteers in children's care environments and to the emotional impact of grief and loss.

youth. He believes that adults have a "misperception" about young people and underestimate their capacity to deliver meaningful and effective [voluntary] service. Most importantly Culberrson cites research sponsored by the "Independent Sector" and "Youth Service America" (2002) which indicated that adults who engaged in volunteering in their childhood give more money and volunteer more time than those who began in later life.

THE STUDY

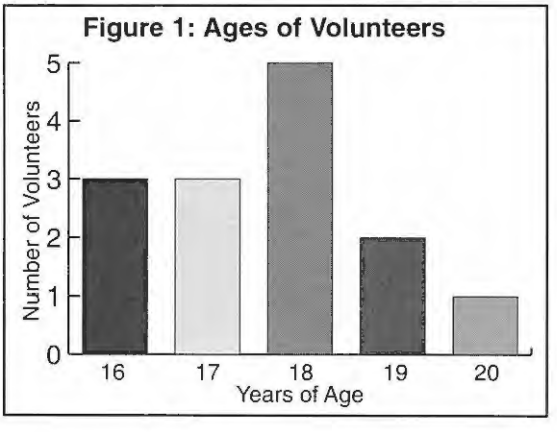
Rachel House, currently Scotland's only children's hospice, opened in March 1996. It is well supported by 140 volunteers of all ages including young volunteers aged between 16 and 21years. Initially there was concern that young volunteers might experience difficulty working alongside people of a similar age, who were not expected to live until adulthood. Particular concerns were expressed about their vulnerability when a death occurred in the hospice. It was decided therefore to undertake a study to explore the impact on young people of volunteering in a paediatric palliative care environment. The purpose of the study was to explore the experience on young volunteers (age 16-21years) of working in a children's hospice environment; to identify the extent of involvement of young volunteers in children's hospices throughout the U.K. and to determine the attitudes of children's hospice professionals towards their involvement. The sample comprised the total population, at the time of the investigation, of two distinct groups: Group A: young volunteers aged 16–21 years, who were or had been involved within Rachel House children's bospice at the time of the study or within two years of the time of the study (n=16); Group B: other children's hospices in the U.K. listed in the "Association of Children's Hospices Directory"'(n=18)

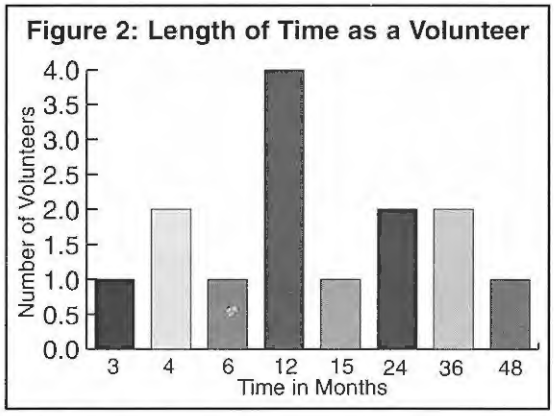
Two questionnaires were developed and used to gather information from the two groups. Postal questionnaires were sent to Rachel House young volunteers. The hospice questionnaires were sent to the member of staff with responsibility for/interest in volunteers. A subsequent follow up telephone interview was conducted with a small selected sample (n=3, 27%) of young volunteers. The purpose was to explore in more depth some of the responses made within the questionnaire.

Informed consent was obtained from all participants initially and throughout the process. They were also informed of their ability to "opt out" at any time. Confidentiality and anonymity were assured to all participants. There was an awareness throughout the study of the sensitivity required when discussing issues of loss, death and bereavement.

Fourteen completed questionnaires were received representing an 88% response rate. The data obtained from the questionnaires was analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The findings were grouped under headings related to the questions asked. The age of the volunteers ranged from 16 to 20, with the mean age being 17.6. (Figure 1 demonstrates the age range of volunteers). The period of time that volunteers had been with the hospice varied from 3 – 36 months (Figure 2). The roles that volunteers undertook included helping in the kitchen, helping with meals, helping with housekeeping and working with the activities team with affected children and their siblings.

In relation to their experience of the environment, 86% (12) of young volunteers had not found the paediatric palliative care environment a difficult area in which to work. This was attributed to the reassurance and support of experienced staff and volunteers; opportunities to talk about their experiences; and the friendly atmosphere and openness of the hospice staff. Fourteen percent (2) had initially found the environment difficult because of the similar ages of the children and also found it difficult to accept that the





children would die. However these respondents indicated that although it had taken time, they had settled into the environment. The majority 72% (10) felt that the introductory period of the induction training had adequately prepared them for the impact of volunteering in a paediatric palliative care environment.

Attendance at the quarterly support meetings had been difficult for young volunteers with only 14% (2) making use of these sessions. Those who had not attended these meetings cited other commitments and lack of time as the main reasons. One respondent did not feel the need to attend, whilst another feared s/he would be the only young person there. They suggested meetings be held at evenings and weekends; sessions which were specifically for young people and a young volunteers' social evening.

At the times when there were deaths in the hospice, 79% (11) of the young volunteers felt that they received the support needed. Young people reported that opportunities to talk; the caring, reassurance and support of experienced staff and volunteers; the family spirit; the friendly atmosphere, and the openness of the environment were important at these times. One respondent (7%) had not found adequate support and indicated that knowing that they could talk to someone would have helped. Subsequent contact with the Chaplain had been very helpful to this volunteer. All (100%) respondents indicated that their experiences had been very rewarding. A few put forward suggestions for improvement, which included more contact with children; more appreciation from staff; and a certificate of achievement.

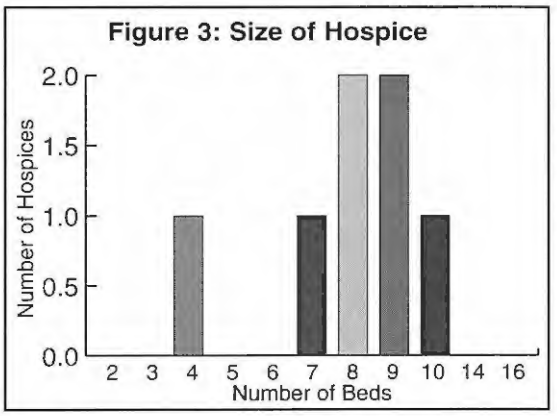
FINDINGS FROM TELEPHONE INTERVIEWS WITH YOUNG VOLUNTEERS

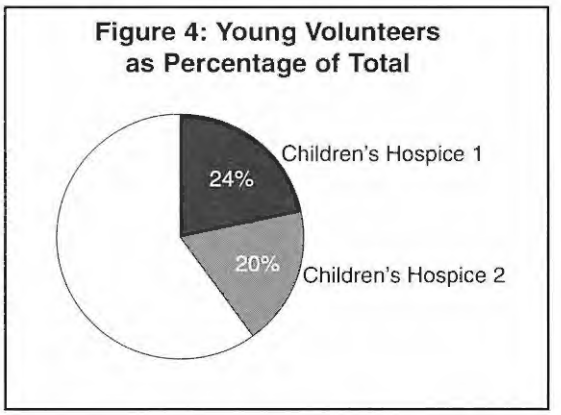
Seventy-nine percent (11) of respondents indicated in the initial questionnaire that they would be willing to take part in a further telephone interview. Information obtained by telephone supported the above findings. These interviews, however, highlighted that working with an experienced volunteer partner was very important. This they felt gave confidence and one to one support. Also, the practical aspect of the induction period was identified as being of most value. They felt that this was the only way to find out what volunteering would really be like.

The role of the volunteer co-ordinator was specifically identified as a key role in the support of young volunteers. It was suggested however that more emphasis be given to support in the recruitment and introductory stages of volunteering. Young people reported that they had learned a great deal and had overcome their fears about interacting with the bospice children and their families. Key learning included the fact that there were many misconceptions about children's hospices and that it was "OK" to be happy in such an environment. Young people indicated tbat through their volunteering experience in a children's hospice, they had gained valuable insight into an area of life of which they had no previous experience.

FINDINGS FROM QUESTIONNAIRES TO HOSPICES. GROUP B

Of the questionnaires sent to other hospices (19), 10 were returned, a 53% response rate. Figure 3 demonstrates the number of beds within each of these esrablishments. Only 3 hospices involved young volunteers. They identified a range of roles involving young volunteers which included pool aides, housekeeping, befriending, helping with mealtimes, helping with activities with children, and office duties. No specific support needs for young volunteers were identified. They were found to cope well in an environment of loss and bereavement. All identified tbe value of young people working with an older, more experienced, mentor as a key factor. It was felt also that most young people





had thought through their wish to volunteer carefully before application and that careful selection and training helped to ensure success. Specific issues identified included the failure of young volunteers to notify hospices of their lack of availability and also the fact thar they would like to keep rhe young people involved as volunteers for a longer period of time.

Children's hospices reported that the involvement of young volunteers ensured that the hospice community reflected the range of ages within the community as a whole, and broadened the diversity of skills within the volunteer team. They reflected that young volunteers were usually mature, motivated, bright, cheerful and an asset to the hospice. The hospices that did nor include young volunteers in their organisation cited a number of reasons for their non-involvement. These included: concern about the similarity in age to the young hospice users resulting in greater support needs, and a lack of a volunteers co-ordinator to supervise volunteer input. Hospice policy was given as another reason. Figure 4 represents the number of young volunteers as a percentage of the total number of volunteers in children's hospices. This figure demonstrates the low level of involvement of young volunteers.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study involved a very small sample which affects the statistical significance and generalisabilty of the findings. It is, however, reflective of the small number of children's hospices and the number of young volunteers participating at the time of the study. It is clear that children's hospices and young volunteers derive significant mutual benefit from each other. It appears that concerns about the difficulties which may arise because of the similarity in age between young volunteers and children using hospices is totally unfounded. The range of roles undertaken varied considerably and highlights the fact that young volunteers do not necessarily have to have close contact with hospice clients in order to offer a valuable contribution. The variety and flexibility of roles available means that young volunteers can adjust the amount and intensity of involvement according to their developing confidence and experience.

Contrary to previously held beliefs by many hospice professionals/personnel, the majority of young volunteers did not find the paediatric palliative care environment a difficult place to work. Factors associated with this positive finding were supportive staff and a friendly, open environment. Two respondents, however, did find their experience difficult because of the similarities in age of the client group and difficulties atound the time of death. Although these respondents reported that they did eventually settle into the environment, it would be interesting to explore if these could have been identified at the selection stage and more support offered.

The majority of respondents felt that their introductory induction training had prepared them for their role. Other commitments and a lack of time, the reasons given by those unable to attend support meetings verifies the findings of Gaskin (1998) who identified flexibility and ease of access as some of the key factors affecting young peoples willingness to participate in volunteering. The suggestion made by respondents of holding these

meetings at weekends or in the evenings should be explored. Reassuringly everyone indicated that their experiences had been very rewarding and the ideas for improvement such as more appreciation from staff and certificates of achievement could be implemented with relatively little effort or expenditure. The findings in relation to the involvement of young volunteers in other hospices, demonstrates that they are being excluded or only involved at a peripheral level. This is a very important finding as it may support Culbertson's (2000) contention that adults have disapproving perceptions of youth.

Those children's hospices that did involve young volunteers identified that they had coped well and were very positive about their experiences. Key factors to success appears to be, careful selection, flexibility of training opportunities and meetings, ongoing support and working alongside older more experienced volunteers. The young people of today are the volunteers of the future and failure to capture their interest and involve them at an early age could pose significant challenges to all organisations that rely on voluntary support in the future.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE PRACTICE

It is clear that if organisations are to succeed in developing effective volunteer programmes involving young people, negative attitudes to young volunteers must be identified and challenged. Positive attitudes should be encouraged by education, the sharing of good experiences and successful strategies.

Organisations should assess their volunteer programmes to identify areas where young people could make effective contributions or contribute in a more meaningful way. There is a need for adults/professionals to have confidence in the abilities of young people and to recognise their capacity to cope in challenging environments. Effective management includes: active recruitment, selection, matching, training and support strategies to aid their introduction and development is vital.

Criteria for the selection of young volunteers should be developed and used in all recruitment situations. A support strategy specific to the needs of individual young volunteers should be identified, documented and monitored by the volunteer co-ordinator during the introductory training period. The availability of ongoing support which is flexible and that young people know how to access, should be reinforced at each meeting. Organisations need to think imaginatively about methods of the delivery of training. These might include: one to one mentoring or coaching by experienced volunteers and innovations such as web designed training.

Young volunteers need a voice, both individually and collectively within organizations and their views need to be heard. This could be achieved through representation within organizations and on committees locally and nationally. Young volunteers are the future. They must feel valued and appreciated or we risk losing them to volunteering forever.

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In the Heart of Texas: Student Volunteerism at the University of Texas at Austin

Sarah Jane Rehnborg, University of Texas, Austin, TX.
Marc Musick, University of Texas, Austin, TX.

"Revitalizing America will require more than altering the economy and the role of government. It will require that each of us affirms our personal responsibility for serving the communities in which we make our lives."
Howard R. Swearer, 15th President of Brown University

INTRODUCTION

Today's young people are credited with "out-performing all prior generations in the altruism department" (Hinds, 2001, p. 5) for their involvement in tutoring programs, clean-up projects, social service organizations and health care institutions. Writing for *The National Civic Review,* Keiser (2000) cites data suggesting that two-thirds of young people are active volunteers. Campus Compact, a national coalition of college presidents from more than 900 colleges and universities committed to the civic purposes of higher education, reported in 2002 that 33% of students on member campuses are involved in service projects, up from 28% in 2001.(Campus Compact 2002 Service Statistics, p. 2) Volunteerism clearly is "an underpublicized aspect of the new politics that is emerging" among young people today (Keiser, 2000, p. 36).

Interest in youth community service emerges from multiple perspectives. In order to combat rising crime rates, violence and substance abuse among youth, public officials and news media have called on educational institutions to play a more active role in fostering moral development among youth. While earlier initiatives focused primarily on molding attitudes and beliefs, more recent efforts encourage service as a form of prosocial behavior designed to foster cooperation, respect and consideration for others. With an interest in community service as a venue for moral education and prosocial behavior Serow and Dreyden (1990) surveyed 1,960 students in eleven southeastern institutions of higher education. Their findings revealed a connection between the frequency of community service and certain institutional and individual characteristics. Spiritual/religious values, however was the only personal variable that showed a positive significant relationship to community service. Serow and Dreyden go on to suggest that colleges and universities are taking a more active role in organizing and coordinating community action in an effort to assist students' personal development while also enhancing relationships between colleges and the communities in which they reside. They further postulate that community service projects may offer an approach for transcending the often rigid boundaries that separate the traditional academic disciplines.

Several studies have documented the positive affects of volunteering and community service on the student volunteer (Astin, Vogelgesang, Ikeda & Yee, 2000; Johnson, Beebe, Mortimer & Synder, 1998; Hamilton & Fenzel 1988; Uggen & Janikula, 1999.) Of particular note is the longitudinal study on the impact of service activities on 22,236 students. Astin, Vogelgesang, Iked, and Yee (2000) followed college students, most of whom had entered college as freshman in 1994, through the fall of 1998. The study revealed that 46% of the students participated in some form of community service and 30% participated in course-based or service-

Sarah Jane Rehnborg is a Lecturer at the LBJ School of Public Affairs and a Consultant in Volunteerism at the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service at the University of Texas at Austin. She teaches courses in volunteer management and board governance and does research in volunteerism. Sarah Jane served as President of the Association for Volunteer Administration from 1979 to 1981.

Marc A. Musick is Assistant Professor of Sociology and Faculty Research Associate of the Population Research Center at the University of Texas at Austin. His research focuses on the motivations and social factors that lead to volunteering.

learning programs during the four year period. The effects of community service and service learning were assessed on 11 different outcome measures related to academic achievement, career plans, values, leadership, self-efficacy and plans to participate in service after college. Positive effects were associated with service participation on all 11 outcome measures. Service participation appeared to have "its strongest effect on the student's decision to pursue a career in a service field" regardless of prior career intentions. (Astin, et.al, 2000, p.2)

In spite of the growing attention given to service participation on college campuses, there is a remarkable paucity of research in this area. Yet, it is important to know more about volunteering at this stage of life due to the strong influence education has on volunteering among adults. Numerous studies have shown that better educated adults are more likely to volunteer and tend to do so for longer periods of time (Wilson 2000). However, these studies are unable to determine what it is about higher education that promotes volunteering. It could be the case that increased levels of knowledge or a more critical perspective promote volunteering. Alternatively, college students may be exposed to messages that promote volunteering and maintain it even after college completion. A third possibility is that college students "learn" to volunteer in college and so are better able to do so in later life. In short, there are a variety of possible explanations for why high levels of education are conducive to volunteering, but the specific mechanisms remain unclear. Consequently, more research is needed to shed light on this seemingly important stage of the volunteering life-cycle.

TABLE 1.

Demographic Characteristics of Sample vs. Student Population.

Characteristic	Survey	Overall Student Body
Gender		
Female	53%	51%
Race		
African American	4%	4%
Asian American	16%	16%
Hispanic	13%	14%
International Students	4%	4%
Anglo	63%	62%
Class Standing		
Freshman	14%	14%
Sophomore	21%	22%
Junior	26%	25%
Senior	39%	39%

METHODS

Data

The University of Texas Volunteering Survey (UTVS) was designed by researchers at the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service at the University of Texas at Austin (UT). The goal of the survey was to better understand volunteering and giving behaviors among undergraduate students at The University of Texas at Austin. For comparison purposes, a survey format similar to that used by the Independent Sector (IS) during their surveys in the 1990s asked students a variety of questions about volunteering and charitable giving over the past academic year.[1]

The telephone survey conducted in the Spring of 2002 by the UT Office of Survey Research was approximately 20 to 25 minutes in length. The sample was selected using a systematic random sampling technique with a random start based on the Office of the Registrar's student database. The completion rate for the survey was 63%, yielding a total sample size of 1,514.

The demographic characteristics of the sample showed that they closely matched those of the UT student population they were meant to represent. Table 1 compares the characteristics of the survey population with the overall UT undergraduate student population.

Measurement

As previously noted, the survey asked volunteering questions that were similar to those employed by the IS surveys in the 1990s. The UTVS asked respondents about volunteering under the assumption that asking about specific areas of volunteering, rather than volunteering in general, would yield better data on that activity. More specifically, the survey asked respondents whether they had

volunteered in each of the following areas over the past academic year: (a) arts, culture or humanities; (b) education or tutoring; (c) youth development or mentoring; (d) nursing home, senior citizen center, or other similar organization; (e) hospital or other health organization; (f) international or ethnic group or cause; (g) political organization or campaign; (h) adult or youth recreation; (i) church, synagogue, mosque, or other religious organization; (j) work-related or professional organization; (k) environmental cause; (l) UT student government or student committee/organization; and (m) other volunteer work. If students mentioned they had volunteered in a particular area, they were asked how frequently they did that volunteer work and how many hours they spent doing the work in a typical session. The answers to these questions were multiplied to create a measure of hours spent over the past academic year volunteering in a particular area. These hours were then summed across years to create a total measure of hours volunteered over the past year.

For analytical purposes, we also considered the possibility that the predictors of volunteering might vary based on the area of volunteering. Consequently, we divided the volunteering areas in a number of ways. The first division is based on whether the volunteering was UT or community-based. For this portion of the analyses, we considered all forms of volunteering community-based except for volunteering in (a) UT student government or student committees/organizations, and (b) work-related or professional groups. The choice of the former was clear; we put the second in this category because most of the volunteering in this fashion is organized and/or conducted on campus. For the second division, we grouped the volunteering areas into six broader categories of general interest. The first, advocacy, is made up of (a) international/ethnic, (b) political, and (c) environmental volunteering. The second, education/arts is composed of (a) education/tutoring, and (b) arts, culture, humanities. The third, health and human services consists of (a) health organizations, and (b) nursing homes or similar organizations. The fourth, development, is made up of (a) youth development and mentoring, and (b) adult/youth recreation. Religion is made up of the single volunteering for religious organizations item.

Although the survey contains a number of items that can be used to predict volunteering, here we only include basic demographic variables as well as two other variables of interest. The demographic variables include gender, race (i.e., African American, Hispanic, Asian American, International, Anglo), class standing (i.e., freshman, sophomore, junior, senior), and college. Previous research has shown that other factors such as work and social interaction are important predictors of volunteering (Wilson 2000). Consequently, we include measures of work hours (per week), group memberships, and religious service attendance. Finally, we include a measure of giving over the past year. To assess this measure, students were asked whether they had given to three types of funds over the past academic year: a September 11th fund; a non-September 11th fund; or both types of funds. If they had, they were asked how much they gave. We then summed these responses to create an overall measure of giving over the past year.

RESULTS

Overall Volunteering Levels

According to the survey findings, 27,000 students, or 74% of the undergraduate student body, participated in volunteer activities during the 2001-2002 academic year. As shown in Table 2, approximately 77% of female students volunteered compared to only 71% of male students. Seventy-seven percent (77%) of African American and Hispanic students volunteered, followed by 74% of Anglos, 73% of Asian Americans, and 65% of international students.

Slightly more underclassmen volunteered than upperclassmen, although service figures remained fairly consistent across the academic spectrum. Seventy-six percent of freshmen, 74% of sophomores and juniors, and 73% of seniors reported serving. The College of Education reported the largest percentage of students engaged in service at 82%, followed by Business majors (76%), Liberal Arts (76%),

TABLE 2.

Percentage of Students Volunteering by Selected Respondent Characteristics.

	All	Percentage Volunteering Off campus	UT
Gender			
Female	77.0%	72.0%	32.0%
Male	70.7%	66.9%	27.0%
Race			
African American	76.8%	73.2%	39.3%
Hispanic	76.7%	72.1%	34.0%
Asian American	72.8%	69.0%	26.8%
International	64.8%	59.3%	22.2%
Anglo	74.1%	69.6%	29.3%
Class Standing			
Freshman	76.4%	69.0%	33.8%
Sophomore	73.7%	68.9%	28.9%
Junior	74.2%	70.6%	25.3%
Senior	73.3%	69.6%	31.5%
College			
Business	76.3%	71.3%	33.1%
Education	81.7%	79.3%	28.0%
Engineering	67.4%	63.2%	31.6%
Fine Arts	75.5%	73.5%	28.6%
Communications	70.2%	67.4%	25.5%
Natural Sciences	73.7%	68.6%	28.3%
Liberal Arts	75.9%	70.7%	29.3%
Others	76.3%	74.6%	37.3%
Work Hours per Week			
0 hours (didn't work)	74.9%	70.1%	28.4%
1 – 19 hours	76.0%	73.1%	31.8%
20 – 39 hours	72.0%	66.7%	29.6%
40+ hours	71.3%	67.0%	28.7%
Group Memberships			
Greek only	82.6%	77.2%	32.6%
Other group only	82.9%	78.0%	39.8%
Greek and other group	93.0%	91.4%	50.8%
No membership	60.2%	55.9%	14.9%

Fine Arts (76%) and "other," which includes schools such as Pharmacy, Nursing and Social Work, with 76% of these students volunteering.

As is the case in other studies of volunteering (e.g., Wilson and Musick 1997a), volunteering is less common among those who work long hours. For example, 71.3% of students who worked forty or more hours a week volunteered compared to 76% of those who worked from one to nineteen hours a week. Although this differences mirror those in other studies, they are not that large and are not significantly different.

The largest differences we observe in this table are by group memberships. Those who are members of organizations, whether Greek or of other types, are much more likely to volunteer than those who are not members of organizations. Indeed, almost all (93%) of students who were members of Greek and other organizations did some volunteering over the past academic year. This finding supports the work of others which notes the importance of organizational affiliation for spurring volunteer activity (Wilson 2000).

Volunteering Areas and Hours

The patterns of overall volunteering found in Table 3 are similar to those found for the total number of areas volunteered and hours spent volunteering. For example, undergraduate women (89 hours) spent more hours in service than their male counterparts (76 hours). Hispanic students reported an average of 100 hours of service, Asian American students 85 hours of service, Anglo students contributed 81 hours of service, African American students volunteered 67 hours, and international students served 47 hours.

Upperclassmen volunteered more hours than underclassmen. The average senior spent 87 hours in service, the average freshman served 71 hours. Not surprisingly, students who worked forty or more hours a week (82 hours) volunteered for less time than did those who worked one to nineteen hours a week (97 hours). As was the case for overall volunteering, students who were organization members tended to volunteer much more than students who were unaffiliated. In terms of areas volunteered, students who reported no memberships volunteered in about 1.2 areas. In contrast, those who were members of Greek and other organizations volunteered in over three areas on average. Incredibly, students who were members of both types of groups volunteered about 144 hours on average over the past academic year compared to only 60 hours for students with no memberships. Of all the factors we examined in this study, no other predicted levels of volunteer-

TABLE 3.

Levels of Volunteering by Selected Respondent Characteristics.

	Volunteering Areas[1]			Volunteering Hours		
	All	Off-campus	UT	All	Off-campus	UT
Gender						
Female	1.96	1.61	.35	88.62	74.50	14.12
Male	1.73	1.42	.31	75.55	61.16	14.38
Race						
African American	2.21	1.77	.45	67.38	58.98	8.39
Hispanic	1.99	1.61	.38	100.18	84.85	15.33
Asian American	1.87	1.60	.30	85.41	71.19	14.22
International	1.43	1.19	.24	47.37	39.59	7.78
Anglo	1.82	1.49	.33	80.64	65.92	14.72
Class Standing						
Freshman	1.89	1.50	.38	70.55	60.30	10.24
Sophomore	1.86	1.55	.31	79.95	67.07	12.89
Junior	1.80	1.51	.29	83.83	72.65	11.18
Senior	1.87	1.52	.35	87.34	68.83	18.50
College						
Business	1.84	1.48	.36	72.28	59.63	12.92
Education	2.06	1.74	.32	83.00	65.66	17.34
Engineering	1.57	1.22	.35	66.26	47.90	17.35
Fine Arts	2.12	1.80	.33	97.92	84.00	13.92
Communications	1.87	1.55	.32	81.44	63.84	17.60
Natural Sciences	1.78	1.47	.32	80.15	65.71	14.44
Liberal Arts	1.94	1.62	.32	92.30	80.23	12.07
Others	2.03	1.64	.39	98.31	87.87	10.44
Work Hours per Week						
0 hours (didn't work)	1.77	1.46	.31	68.9	56.4	12.5
1 – 19 hours	2.02	1.66	.36	97.2 8	0.6	16.6
20 – 39 hours	1.81	1.49	.32	84.9	71.0	13.9
40+ hours	1.78	1.44	.34	82.1	68.3	13.8
Group Memberships						
Greek only	2.30	1.96	.35	88.99	75.16	13.84
Other group only	2.22	1.77	.45	92.13	76.28	15.84
Greek and other group	3.08	2.47	.61	144.20	107.05	37.15
No membership	1.18	1.02	.15	59.82	51.62	8.19

Notes:

[1]Means reflect the number of areas (as shown in Table 1) mentioned. The potential range of responses was 0 – 13 for all areas, 0 – 11 for Non-UT areas, and 0 – 2 for UT areas.

ing as much as organizational affiliation.

The Independent Sector (IS), a national coalition of more than 700 national organizations, foundations, and corporate philanthropy programs that collectively represent the nonprofit sector, calculates the value of volunteer time and updates the value annually. The dollar value figure is based on the average hourly earnings of nonagricultural workers as determined by the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, which is then increased by 12% to estimate for fringe benefits. At the 2001 value of $16.05 per hour (Independent Sector's Value of Volunteer Time), the estimated dollar value of the 2,997,000 hours of volunteer service provided by UT undergraduate students is $48,101,850.

Volunteering Areas in the UTVS and IS Data

Table 4 shows the percentage of students volunteering in each of the thirteen areas assessed in the survey. The first column of percentages represents the portion of the UTVS sample who mentioned volunteering in that area or in one of the areas represented by the broader interest categories. The second column of percentages is similar but was generated based on the combined (IS) surveys from the 1990s. That is, using data from those five surveys, we created variables representing areas similar to those found in the UTVS. Given that the UTVS was designed for this type of analysis, such a comparison was not difficult to create. However, it is important to note that for both sets of percentages, we restricted the samples to those aged 18-24. This restriction was much more limiting for the IS surveys as they were originally collected from all adults. A large majority of the UTVS sample fell within this age range, so the percentages shown here tend to mimic those in the sample as a whole. Further, because the UTVS was focused on a university population, the questions were modified somewhat to accommodate that population. Consequently, questions relating to university-level volunteering as asked in the UTVS were not asked in the IS surveys.

TABLE 4.

Percentage Volunteering by Service Area in the UT Sample and Independent Sector Samples, 1990-1999.[1]

	UT Sample	IS Sample
Advocacy	**23.3%**	**8.0%**
International or ethnic organizations	8.9%	1.6%
Political organizations or campaigns	8.8%	1.1%
Environmental causes	9.7%	6.7%
Education/Arts	**34.8%**	**12.8%**
Arts, Culture or Humanities	10.2%	4.8%
Education and tutoring	28.5%	10.7%
Health and Human Services	**19.3%**	**14.9%**
Nursing home, senior center or other similar	10.6%	9.8%
Health organizations (e.g., hospitals, hospice)	10.6%	--
Human services	--	.4%
Development	**22.2%**	**16.1%**
Youth development and mentoring	16.6%	12.4%
Adult or youth recreation	8.3%	7.2%
Religious Organizations	**22.5%**	**15.3%**
University-related	**29.7%**	**--**
Work-related and professional organizations	17.4%	--
UT student government or other committees	15.6%	--
Other volunteering	**16.8%**	**1.6%**

Notes: [1] {Percentages are based only on respondents aged 18-24 in both samples.

The results from Table 4 indicate that UT undergraduate students were much more likely to volunteer than a community sample of adults of the same age. For example, over 23% of the UTVS sample volunteered in the advocacy general interest area compared to only 8% of those in the IS samples. The difference in volunteering for education and the arts was even greater, with 35% of the UTVS sample having volunteered compared to only 13% of the IS samples. Respondents in the UTVS sample were even more likely to volunteer for religious organizations, something not commonly thought of being tied to the university experience. In short, based on these findings, it is apparent that the students in the UTVS were more likely to volunteer than people of the same age in a nationwide community sample.

Motivation, attitudes and opinions

Students volunteered for many different reasons. Respondents were given a variety of choices and the opportunity to rank the importance of each choice. Compassion towards those in need was ranked as a "very" or "somewhat important" reason to volunteer by 94% of the undergraduates. Based on the same scale, 92% felt that volunteering provided a new perspective on things; 88% expressed interest in the activity; 80% believed volunteering is part of one's civic duty; 74% believed volunteering to be important to people they respect; 53% reported feeling needed; 40% reported networking as a motivation, and 36% said that volunteering helped them deal with personal problems.

Students also shared their thoughts about the importance of public service. Ninety-

TABLE 5.

Motivations for Volunteering and Attitudes Towards Public Service.

	Total
Motivations for Volunteering[1]	
Makes respondent feel needed	52.6%
Feels compassion towards people in need	94.1%
Helps respondent make new contacts	40.3%
Important to the people the respondent respects	73.8%
Allows respondent to gain a new perspective	92.0%
Helps respondent deal with own personal problems	35.8%
Respondent has an interest in the activity	87.7%
Volunteering is a civic responsibility	79.5%
General Attitudes Towards Public Service[2]	
Need for charitable organizations is greater now than 5 yrs. ago	74.0%
Charitable organizations help make communities better	92.8%
Respondent believes in power to help improve others' welfare	92.5%
Attitudes Towards UT Volunteering[2]	
University should do more to promote volunteering	72.9%
Should be possible to get academic credit for volunteering	74.0%
University should not expect students to volunteer	36.5%

Notes: [1]Percentages reflect respondents reporting a reason was a very or somewhat important reason for volunteering.
[2]Percentages reflect respondents agreeing or strongly agreeing with the statement.

TABLE 6.

Percentage Volunteering by Levels of Giving and Religious Service Attendance.[1]

	Percentage Distribution	Advocacy	Education/ Arts	Health/ Human	Development	Religion	University-related
Giving categories							
1: $0	40.7%	18.9%	31.9%	16.7%	19.2%	18.6%	25.8%
2: $1 - $50	38.3%	23.3%	33.0%	20.4%	25.6%	18.1%	29.7%
3: $51 - $150	10.4%	26.8%	47.1%	18.3%	19.6%	29.4%	38.6%
4: $151+	10.6%	34.6%	42.3%	25.6%	25.0%	51.9%	35.9%
Significant differences	--	b,c,e	b,c,d,e	c	a	b,c,d,e,f	b,c,d
Attendance categories							
1: Never	23.5%	20.8%	27.5%	12.4%	16.3%	1.4%	22.5%
2: Once to several times/year	31.7%	20.5%	31.1%	18.4%	18.6%	10.0%	29.4%
3: 1-3 times/month	18.4%	23.3%	38.0%	21.9%	23.3%	22.2%	29.7%
4: Once a week or more	26.4%	28.3%	43.9%	24.8%	31.1%	59.4%	36.3%
Significant differences	--	c,e	b,c,d	a,b,c,e	b,c,e,f	a,b,c,d,e,f	a,b,c,e

Notes: [1] Significance levels are calculated at the $p < .05$ level and indicate the following differences: (a) 1 and 2; (b) 1 and 3; (c) 1 and 4; (d) 2 and 3; (e) 2 and 4; and (f) 3 and 4.

three percent "agreed" or "strongly agreed" that "charitable organizations help make communities better;" 92% believed it to be "within their power to do things that improve the welfare of others;" and 74% believed "the need for charitable organizations to be greater today than five years ago."

Approximately 74% of the students felt that academic credit should be given for volunteer work tied to a classroom experience. A much smaller percentage of students (37%) "agreed" or "strongly agreed" that the University should not expect students to volunteer.

Giving, Religious Service Attendance and Volunteering

Students were generous with their resources as well as their time. Sixty percent of students gave money; 19% gave only to causes related to the events of September 11th, 21% gave only to other causes, and 20% gave to both types of causes. As shown in Table 6, about 38% of students gave less than $50 in total, about 10% gave between $51 and $150, and about 11% gave $151 or more. Although not shown in the table, the results indicate that churches and religious organizations received 12% of the student donations while health organizations received 10% of the contributions.

Table 6 also shows the percentage of respondents volunteering in the general interest categories by levels of contributions. The findings indicate that those who gave the most were also most likely to volunteer. For example, in the advocacy category, only 19% of those who gave no money volunteered compared to 35% of those who gave at the highest level. A much larger difference was seen for religion: over half of those who gave at the highest level volunteered compared to only a fifth of those who gave nothing. Clearly volunteering and monetary contributions complement one another.

The second part of Table 6 is a similar analysis but instead examines patterns of volunteering based on religious service attendance. As Wilson and Musick (1997b) note, religious activity leads to volunteering in that it provides opportunities for volunteering and exposes attendees to religious messages that discuss compassion and caring for humankind. As expected based on this prior research, the table shows that respondents who attended church more often were much more likely to volunteer.

Recruitment strategies.

Although not reported in a table, the UTVS asked students whether and how they had learned of volunteering opportunities. The five most frequently cited sources for gaining information about volunteer opportunities were, in rank order: student groups and organizations, student volunteer fair table exhibits sponsored by the University Volunteer Center, media publicity, personal invitation, and places of worship.

CONCLUSION

Students at the University of Texas at Austin are actively engaged in serving their campus and their community. Whether or not they are "out-performing all prior generations in the altruism department" (Hinds, 2001, p.5) is not known given the lack of prior data, but students do serve and they serve in record number.

Likewise the serving behaviors of the African American and Hispanic students is equally worthy of note. Not only do members of both groups serve more than Anglo students, but Hispanic students also serve a greater number of hours on average than do students of other races.

Participation in groups and organizations significantly effects service behavior. Students who are members of Greek and other organizations serve more than other students, and they also join more groups and serve the greatest number of hours. The findings suggest the importance of social networks not only in providing information about service opportunities, but also in increasing the rates of service behavior (Wilson, 2000). Whether social networks also contribute to the higher levels of service among students within particular colleges is not discernable from the data secured, but it is a question worth additional exploration.

The relationship between work and volunteering found among students mirrors data from the general population (IS surveys; Wilson, 2000). Students who work part time volunteer more hours and in greater numbers than students who do not work at all, or who work full time.

Recent attention given to volunteering, to service-learning, to citizen service and to the relationship between volunteering and citizenship have all served to draw attention to the volunteering habits of young adults. Although a great deal of work remains to be done to fully understand the serving habits of college students, this study does provide a profile of the serving behaviors of the students attending the largest single campus public university in the United States.

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NOTES

[1] Copies of the survey instrument may be obtained from the RGK Center for Philanthropy & Community Service.

Reasons for and Barriers to Participating in Volunteerism and Service: A Comparison of Ohio Youth in Grades 5-8 and 9-12

R. Dale Safrit, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, NC
Rosemary R. Gliem, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH
Joseph A. Gliem, The Ohio State University, Columbus, OH

INTRODUCTION

Volunteerism and community service are both contemporary and historical social phenomena in American society. Since colonial times, Americans have gone beyond normal expectations and familial responsibilities to help their fellow citizens (Ellis & Noyes, 1990.)

Traditionally, the American family has had the major responsibility for instilling in young people the concepts of volunteerism and community service. However, beginning in the early twentieth century and especially during the past two decades, this responsibility has increasingly fallen upon other societal institutions as well. According to Maughs-Pugh (1996), "The relationship of attachment between local communities and the schools serving their youth is pedagogically critical" (p. 48) Volunteerism and community service are both critical strategies through which our nation's youths become integrally attached to their surrounding communities. In a national survey conducted by the Independent Sector (1992a), 61% of 12- to 17-year-olds, and 58% of 14- to 17-year-olds, volunteered in the past 12 months. Almost a decade later, The Independent Sector (2002a) found that volunteering by U.S. high school students in 2001 reached its highest level in the past 50 years.

Nurturing a spirit and belief in volunteerism and community service in youth is a major goal of many educational and non-profit institutions and organizations. Yet, Safrit (2002) noted that:

> *...as adults, it is often challenging for us to even approach teens; we have developed a societal stereotype that teens are, by definition, rebellious and nonconforming and have little sincere interest in anything but themselves and their immediate needs. ... we often subconsciously expect teens to fail in following-through on their responsibilities and commitments, again assuming that they will redirect their energies and attentions to anything that is more immediate and more exciting for them personally. And ... we subconsciously resist delegating to them true power and authority to perform, instead constantly shadowing their efforts and suggesting alternative methods and options based upon the clichéd, "our experience as adults." (pp. 21-22)*

In spite of these observations and assertions, little empirical data exist describing youth service and volunteerism. Rigorous analytical research conducted with large subsegments of America's youth population would serve to greatly enhance volunteer administrators' and managers' understanding of the reasons and motivations that youth decide to participate in volunteerism and community service, as well as the barriers

R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D., is an Associate Professor and Extension Specialist in the Department of 4-H Youth Development at NC State University in Raleigh where he provides leadership to continuing professional education for 4-H professionals, 4-H teen programs, and the Department's Youth Development Leadership graduate specialization. With a doctorate from NC State in adult education, Dale has established a firm reputation as a noted scholar, visionary leader and motivational educator in the not-for-profit sector.
Rosemary R. Gliem, Ph.D., is Director of the Ohio State University Extension Data Center in the College of Food, Agricultural and Environmental Sciences. She directs the collection, analysis, and dissemination of data sets relating to social, environmental, demographic, and economic aspects of Ohio's communities and citizens. Her doctorate from The Ohio State University's Department of Human and Community Resource Development focused upon Extension Education.
Joseph A. Gliem, Ph,D., is an Associate Professor in the Department of Human and Community Resource Development at The Ohio State University. Joe teaches graduate courses in research methods and data analysis and has a national reputation in social systems research.

youth themselves perceive hinder or impede their participation.

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this research was to describe and compare reasons for and barriers to participating in volunteerism and service by Ohio youth in grades 5–12. The researchers used historical data collected originally in 1996 (Safrit, King, & Burcsu, 1998). The population for the original study was approximately 1.8 million 4th–12th graders in Ohio public schools in 1995 (as reported by the Ohio Department of Education). Based on an average of 25 students per classroom, the researchers estimated there were approximately 50,000 4th–12th grade classrooms in Ohio's public schools. Since names of individual students were not available, the researchers used cluster sampling (with school classrooms as the sample unit) to draw a random sample of classrooms for each grade level (Kish, 1967). The accessible population was all 4th–12th classrooms as of 1996 which were on a computerized list provided by the O.D.E. The list was organized by grade level, with all individual classes for a specific grade level listed alphabetically by teacher's last name. Based upon Krejcie and Morgan's formula (1970) which utilizes a 5% risk of an extreme sample, the researchers selected the appropriate sample size of classrooms for each grade level and randomly selected classrooms from the computerized list.

In 1995, Safrit et al. used two 16 item questionnaires to collect data from grades 4–8 and 9–12. Both questionnaires employed vocabulary and response categories appropriate (i.e., "yes" or "no") for the respective grade level. Experts in the field of youth service and volunteerism served as a panel of experts to establish the validity of the questionnaires. Based upon the panel's suggestions, the researchers made minor wording changes to the questionnaires. Overall questionnaire development followed recommendations by Rea and Parker (1997).

Both questionnaires were organized into five sections corresponding to the study objectives. Section 1 investigated overall levels and types of volunteerism and service by respondents. Section 2 investigated service as a part of respondents' school work, and Section 3 investigated service as a part of out-of-school clubs and organizations, as well as service performed individually by respondents. Section 4 investigated motivations for and barriers to volunteerism and service by respondents, while section 5 investigated respondents' personal demographics. This article focuses upon post-collection analysis of the data investigating youth motivations for and barriers to volunteerism collected in Sections 4 of the two questionnaires.

Safrit et al. (1995) conducted a pilot study to establish the questionnaires' content validity. Five classrooms (not a part of the study sample) participated in the pilot tests. As a result of these pilot tests, the researchers made minor changes to both questionnaires.

Safrit et al. (1998) also conducted a field study using the test-retest method to establish the reliability of the questionnaires. Eight 4th–8th grade students and ten 9th–12th grader students (who were not in the classrooms that were part of the study sample) participated in the field study. The researchers administered the questionnaire to each student on two separate occasions, allowing approximately three weeks between administrations. All items in both questionnaires demonstrated minimum reliabilities of 60%.

Principals of each school with participating classrooms received letters asking permission to conduct the study. Selected classroom teachers received a separate packet that included a study information sheet, a parental permission form, an instruction sheet for administering the questionnaires and 35 copies of the appropriate questionnaire. Classrooms had approximately 25 students; however, actual class sizes ranged from 18 – 30. Researchers sent 35 questionnaires to ensure enough for each student in the classroom. Teachers sent parental permission slips home with students prior to administering questionnaires. Teachers administered questionnaires to students whose parents returned signed permission forms and returned completed questionnaires to the researchers. The initial deadline for returned questionnaires was November 30, 1996. The researchers sent

reminder post cards to teachers who had not returned questionnaires by December 2, 1996. Teachers received phone calls in early January, 1997 if there was still no response.

The overall response rate was 58%. Response rates for individual grades ranged from 31% (4th grade) to 73% (5th grade). Due to the low response rate for 4th grade, the researchers did not conduct subsequent analysis of data from 4th grade students. No attempt was made to follow up with non-responding classrooms.

The 477 responding classrooms resulted in 11, 324 usable questionnaires. Sample statistics including frequencies and correlations were calculated using SPSS version 12.0. Factor analysis using the principal components model was used to identify major components underlying the barriers to participating in volunteerism/ service for both grade groups (5th–8th grade and 9th–12th grade). Based upon the two correlation matrixes (several correlations above |.30|), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p<.001$), and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (.67 for the 5th–8th grade group, and .75 for the 9th–12th grade group), the data appeared appropriate for factor analysis. The analysis provided a parsimonious number of components (3 for each grade group) that could be used to represent the relationships among the sets of interrelated variables.

Two criteria were used to determine the number of components to be extracted. First, only components with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were considered in the analysis.

Second, a scree plot of the component eigenvalues was used to identify breaks or discontinuity in determining the number of components. The components were rotated using a Varimax rotation method with Kaiser Normalization to aid in the interpretation of the components. Stevens (1992) suggests using loadings of .40 absolute when determining which items are of practical importance in loading on a component.

TABLE 1

Rotated Component Matrix of Barriers to Volunteering for Grades 5 - 8

	Component Loadings			
Item	1	2	3	Communality
It wouldn't be fun	.74			.28
I don't care	.72			.40
I want to spend time doing things I like	.53			.42
I helped once, but didn't like it	.50			.25
None of my friends help others	.45			.45
I just moved here		.66		.37
My parents won't let me help		.62		.26
I don't know how to help		.56		.32
Transportation is a problem			.67	.55
I don't have enough time to help			.63	.53
No one asked me to help			.45	.50
Eigenvalues	1.90	1.24	1.21	
% of Variance	17.3	11.2	11.0	

TABLE 2

Rotated Component Matrix of Barriers to Volunteering for Grades 9 – 12

	Component Loadings			
Item	1	2	3	Communality
It wouldn't be fun	.77			.59
I'm simply not interested	.76			.58
I don't care	.69			.48
I want to spend leisure time doing things I like	.62		.41	
None of my friends are involved	.50			.32
I don't know how to get involved		.57		.33
My parents won't let me help		.52		.28
Transportation is a problem		.46		.29
No one asked me to get involved		.46		.25
I don't feel one person can make a difference	.43		.22	
I just moved here		.40		.17
I don't have time because of homework			.79	.62
I don't have time due to extracurricular activities		.64	.41	
No time because of work expected at home		.53	.38	
Don't have time because of job			.47	.25
Eigenvalues	2.45	1.73	1.65	
% of Variance	14.4	10.2	9.7	

FINDINGS

The researchers identified three factors describing barriers to volunteering for both grade levels (Tables 1 and 2). Barriers identified for grades 5–8 include: Component 1) Low personal interest; Component 2) Weak connectedness to volunteerism; and Component 3) Personal challenges. The barriers identified for grades 9–12 are very similar to those found for grades 5–8 and include: Component 1) Low personal interest; Component 2) Weak connectedness to volunteering; and Component 3) Time constraints. Together the three grade 5–8 components accounted for 40% of the total variance, and the three grade 9–12 components accounted for 34% of the variance.

The researchers identified four factors describing reasons for volunteering for both grade levels (Tables 3 and 4). Reasons identified for grades 5–8 include: Component 1) adult and peer pressure; Component 2) adult encouragement; Component 3) altruistic reasons; and, Component 4) spiritual reasons. Reasons identified for grades 9–12 are very similar to those found for grades 5–8 and include: Component 1) personal and altruistic importance; Component 2) educational and career advancement; Component 3) parent, teacher, and/or mentor encouragement; Component 4) social and peer influ-

TABLE 3

Rotated Component Matrix of Reasons for Volunteering for Grades 5-8

	Component Loadings				
Item	1	2	3	4	Communality
A lot of free time	.59				.37
To make friends	.58	.43			
My friends help others	.54	.39			
It gives me something to do	.50	.29			
To fit into a group	.49	.34			
To make a good grade	.44	.34			
Parents encouraged me		.66	.49		
Important to my parents		.60	.40		
Teachers encouraged me		.56	..46		
Someone asked me to help		.40	.20		
Wanted to help others			.67	.45	
Helping others makes me feel good		.64	.43		
It was fun			.48	.37	
To learn new things			.48	.44	
My parents made me		.44	-.47	.46	
Place of worship made me				.72	.57
Place of worship encouraged me				.65	.55
Eigenvalues	2.1	1.9	1.8	1.2	
Percent of Variance	12.3	11.1	10.7	7.0	41.0

TABLE 4

Rotated Component Matrix of Reasons for Volunteering for Grades 9-12

	Component Loadings				
Item	1	2	3	4	Communality
Important to me	.64				.44
It helps me gain new perspective on things	.59				.42
I feel compassion toward those in need	.57				.34
Makes me feel good about myself	.54				..32
I wanted to give something back	.54				.32
Important to the people I respect	.53				.35
It was fun and I enjoy the work	.48				.34
It gives me something worthwhile to do	.44				.30
It looks good on my resume		.69			.56
It looks good on a college application		.65			.50
To make contacts and help my career		.60			.42
It helps me to explore career options		.57			.50
A requirement to graduate		.40			.26
Important to my parents			.59		.36
My parents encouraged me			.51		.25
Someone asked me to help			.42		.21
My teachers encouraged me			.41		.25
I have a lot of free time				.53	.29
My friends help others				.50	.30
To fit into a group				.47	.27
It helps me to deal with my own problems			.45	.28	
Eigenvalues	3.5	2.5	2.1	1.9	
Percent of Variance	10.9	7.7	6.6	5.9	31.1

ences. Together the four grade 5–8 components accounted for 41% of the total variance, and the four grade 9–12 components accounted for 31.1% of the variance.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The reader is cautioned about generalizations of the findings beyond Ohio due to the study's exploratory nature. The factors identified for each grade range largely support and reinforce existing literature regarding holistic youth reasons for and barriers to participating in volunteerism and service. However, the study findings provide more focused insights into both shared and unique reasons for and barriers to volunteerism/service between the early teen years represented by grades 5–8, and the senior teen years in grades 9–12.

The reasons for volunteerism identified at both grade levels of "adult and peer pressure", "adult encouragement", and "parent, teacher, and/or mentor encouragement" emphasize the critical role that adult role models play in encouraging young people to volunteer. The authors believe that these factors cannot be overstated; youth learn best not from what adults say, but what adults actually do. Thus, whether a parent or guardian at home, a classroom teacher, a community youth program professional, or a neighbor or other adult acquaintance, adult role models serve as important positive catalysts, and as examples of citizens engaged in their communities through volunteer service for both pre-teen and teenage youth. The authors would suggest that to maximize upon this research finding, the most effective infrastructure for youth volunteerism and community service may be through youth-adult partnerships, i.e., youth and adults working together as equal peers to address through volunteerism challenges facing their communities. Such partnerships are supported by both best practices and the literature (Brendtro & Bacon, 1995; Long, Kressley, & Poulsen, n.d.; Safrit, 2002; Youth Service America, 1994; Zeldin, McDaniel, Topitzes, & Calvert, n.d.) and not only build a commitment to service among youth, but also strengthens in them important leadership skills and aspirations.

The study factors identified at both grade levels of "altruistic reasons" and "personal and altruistic importance" again are prevalent in adult volunteerism literature (Shure, 1991; Independent Sector, 1996b) but less frequently cited for youth volunteerism. The Independent Sector (1996) identified "compassion toward people in need" as one of the major reasons teens cited for volunteering, while Spoto (1999) cited "to learn to be helpful and kind" as one of five highest factors in influencing 4-H youth to volunteer. Personal philosophies that we profess as adults have their origins anchored in the personal values, belief systems, and experiences to which we are exposed as youth growing up in homes, neighborhoods, and communities. Consequently, adults who serve as role models in encouraging youth to volunteer not only demonstrate a commitment to a positive social behavior, but also transfer less tangible beliefs and values to youth relating to each individual's role in supporting and aiding those less fortunate, and those in need. Service learning (the pedagogical approach that links classroom subject matter, volunteer service, and student reflection upon that service) has been designed from its inception to instill in youth larger shared cultural values of civic and social responsibility while reinforcing a personal commitment to volunteerism and community service. It is noteworthy that altruistic-focused reasons for volunteering were identified for both the 5–8 and 9–12 grade levels. After approximately two decades of encouraging holistic youth development wherein the individual student in the formal school classroom is connected to both that student in his/her home setting, as well as that student's involvement in other community based youth programs, American society is hopefully beginning to see the results of an altruistic emphasis shared among all three contexts that refocuses today's youth upon historical tenets upon which our nation was founded. These tenets include our individual responsibilities toward promoting the well being of our fellow citizens, our communities, and our nation through community service and volunteerism (Ellis & Noyes, 1990).

The factors identified for grades 9–12 of "educational and career advancement" and

"social and peer influences" are not surprising considering the life stage at which teenagers find themselves. Teens are very concerned with preparing for their future jobs and careers through appropriate education and training. Smith and Havercamp (1991) found that volunteerism by high-risk teenagers positively influenced their school grades, and Sauer (1991) concluded that volunteerism by students at risk helped the students "[turn] around a record of excessive absences and below grade level academic achievement" (p. 37). Spoto (1999) identified "to improve school grades/do better in school" and "to develop new career goals" as two important factors influencing youth respondents in Louisiana to volunteer. Safrit, Scheer and King (2001) suggested that "Volunteer opportunities can enhance the teen's career exploration ... and be included as part of building a strong college application or job resume" (p. 19). With today's emphasis on workforce preparation and a technologically literate workforce, volunteerism and community service are excellent means through which older youth may explore possible jobs and career paths through real-life, hands-on experience. When combined with classroom vocational programs and career related coursework, volunteerism is an excellent learning strategy that effectively combines course content with the actual workplace for teens in an emotionally safe environment.

Additionally, teens are very concerned with fitting into the larger group while still demonstrating their individuality. Therefore, "social and peer influences" may relate to not only our society's increasing emphasis on youth volunteerism and community service, but an interpersonal aspect as well. Safrit, Scheer and King (2001) suggested that "Teens are more willing to actively engage in mixed gender groups" (p. 19) wherein individuals of one gender are exposed to, and learn to collaborate with, peers of the other gender through structured volunteer activities. Such inter-gender peer interaction promotes positive peer pressure wherein teens role model volunteer service to their friends and fellow students.

The reason for volunteering identified for early teens in grades 5–8 of "spiritual reasons" is somewhat surprising to the authors. The role of an individual's religious beliefs, as well as organized communities of faith to which they belong, upon adults as volunteers is well documented (Independent Sector, 1992b, 1996b, 2002b). However, the role of spirituality in youth volunteerism is less evident in the literature. The authors suggest that "spiritual reasons" identified by the study findings may be related to (1) our society's increasing emphasis upon human spirituality (both through organized communities of faith and individual spiritual movements), and/or (2) the direct influence that parents and guardians have upon younger youth (as opposed to older teens) in exposing them to religious contexts. Hopefully, the ultimate outcome of either of these two aspects would be a youth (and eventual adult) who connects a personal commitment to helping others to their individual and shared religious beliefs, and vice versa.

The barriers identified of "low personal interest", "personal challenges", "weak connectedness to volunteerism", and "time constraints" are all documented in the literature on barriers to adult volunteerism. MacKenzie and Moore (1994) discussed barriers to adult volunteerism related to the identified factors of time constraints (e.g., increasing demands from career and family) and poor connectivity to volunteerism (e.g., no one asking an individual to help.) Safrit and Merrill (2000) discussed management implications of several trends in volunteerism they identified. One trend identified the many challenges of our ever-increasingly busy and hectic lives in integrating volunteer commitments with personal, familial, and professional responsibilities.

The study findings provide more focused insights into both shared and unique barriers to volunteerism/service between the early teen years represented by grades 5–8, and the senior teen years in grades 9–12. While the content of the barriers identified for youth volunteerism in this study are similar to many of those identified for adults, one must recognize that the contexts of these barriers for

youth may differ drastically from those for adults.

"Low personal interest" and "weak connectedness to volunteerism" were barriers identified for both grade levels. The authors would suggest that these barriers may reflect youths' perceptions that some volunteer programs are poorly planned or implemented, or fail to truly engage youth as active, meaningful partners in volunteer initiatives. Volunteer program administrators must avoid at all cost the appearance that youth are asked to volunteer for busywork simply to occupy their time, or that the tasks assigned to youth volunteers are not perceived by the youth as distasteful activities that adults prefer not to do. A "weak connectedness to volunteerism" may reflect the observation that youth with parents who volunteer tend to be more likely to volunteer as well (Independent Sector, 2002). Thus, youth from households or communities with little visible evidence of volunteer activities or accomplishments may lack a peer or adult role model to encourage them to volunteer. While service learning may be an effective method through which to introduce youth to volunteer service, youth would still benefit from a close friend, family member, or adult mentor to sustain their interest and initiative to volunteer.

The barrier identified for grades 9-12 of "time constraints" may reflect the increasing pressures of time commitments on many high school students. High schools offer many intra- and extra-curricular organizations and activities that compete for students' time, energies and talents. While many high school students elect to join and participate in as many organizations and activities as possible, others may focus upon one organization or activity, and others may elect not to participate at all. So as to minimize the potential detrimental affects of this barrier, volunteer administrators should work closely with classroom teachers and school administrators to integrate into the school environment as many volunteer service opportunities as possible. Leaders and advisers of school clubs and organizations should be encouraged to suggest to student members that they perform at least one group service activity per semester. Entire grade levels could be encouraged to adopt a class volunteer service project that would benefit the entire school and its surrounding community. Volunteer organizations should be encouraged to work with school guidance counselors and administrators to post volunteer opportunities available to students in a prominent and conspicuous location. At the high school level, such volunteer opportunities would help students explore possible vocations and careers.

Volunteer administrators from Ohio (as well as states with similar school demographics) should consider both these reasons and barriers when designing or restructuring youth volunteerism and service programs. While the authors recognize that the study findings are based upon data collected in 1996, they would argue that volunteerism motivations and barriers faced by youth have not changed drastically in seven years. According to the Independent Sector (2002c), even today, "Several factors appear to encourage volunteering as a habit: the age when young people start to volunteer; the exposure to volunteering opportunities through religious, educational, or other institutions; and the role of positive self-images and role models" (n.p.).

The authors would encourage administrators of volunteer programs to contact and engage educators, elected and informal civic leaders, parents and guardians, and young people themselves in active dialogue regarding their unique perceptions and opinions regarding the reasons and barriers discussed here. Only then will we as positive adult role models truly be able to best support youth in sustained volunteer service.

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Gifted Students Serving Their Community

Leone Junck. Ogden Community Schools, Ogden, IA

WHAT IS SERVICE LEARNING?

Service learning engages students in solving real life problems. The teacher serves as the facilitator, guiding students through the process. Solving a real community problem is the key to success. The community becomes the classroom.

Service learning is best when student driven. They may find problems the community is facing from interviews with community leaders, parents, and teachers. Student motivation increases when they select the project topic. Students write the questions and take notes during the interview. It is best if they lead the interview.

When selecting the project, use these types of questions to help narrow to the best choice. Which project would have the greatest impact on our community? Which project would affect the most people? Which project would be realistic in accomplishing? Which project could we complete within our time frame?

Reflections by students are a key feature in service projects. This element helps them to realize they are gaining academic and personal skills. It guides them as they progress in the project and helps to determine where changes are needed.

Reflections are completed regularly throughout the project. They may be written or answered in discussion.

- The best part of the project was ...
- I am surprised that ...
- From this project I appreciate ...
- What have you learned about yourself from this project?
- How can I make use of what I have learned about myself in another way?
- How are you gaining a broader view of our community?
- What are you learning that connects with your other classes?
- How did you help today? How would you rate your help?
- What could have been done better today?

Feedback is critical. This may be from one student to another student. It may be from the teacher to the student. It may be from another person involved in the project to the student. Written or oral feedback needs to be timely, as it will have more of an impact. It also needs to be specific. They need to know what they did that was good or what to change. Feedback is helpful for motivation. Examples may include:

- I like how you accurately read the dial.
- You were looking directly at the resident while speaking.
- You followed the mentor's directions.
- Your kind words brought smiles to the others involved.
- You followed the safety procedures.

Brainstorming can be used in generating solutions to problems. It is fun for students and will bring a vast array of ideas if you follow these guidelines. Every idea is welcome. Every idea is recorded, even if it sounds crazy or useless. Aim for as many ideas as you can. Off the wall ideas are welcome. Spin-off ideas from others are welcome. Students will then critique their ideas and determine what solution would be the best.

The real value of teamwork is brought to life. Writing group teamwork goals and self-monitoring can help keep them focused. Timelines help to keep students on track so deadlines are met.

Service learning is a positive way to integrate curriculum across disciplines. While you are leading students in character development they are expanding core curriculum strengths. Specific goals are tied to the standards and benchmarks in your curriculum.

Leone Junck has taught school for twenty-six years. For the past fifteen years she has instructed gifted students in grades K-8. Her special areas of interest are service learning, future problem solving and brain research as it applies to the classroom.

BACKGROUND

Ogden Middle School students in the Extended Learning Program have completed successful service projects. The projects have been student led, while the teacher served as the facilitator. Students selected the projects based on community needs, carried out their plans, and evaluated their progress along the way. The classes met once a week during the school year.

Reflections were required after each Manor visit. Journal style entries were written. I wrote feedback based on their writings and parents were given the opportunity to respond to their child's entries.

Six sixth graders choose a project with a local nursing home called the Manor. They visited twice a month carrying out activities they planned in advance. Each student had one or two "buddies" in the nursing home.

Before going to the Manor the students interviewed the Activity Director to learn about the likes and abilities of the residents, and engaged in role playing activities to help them prepare for situations that might arise. They planned and organized activities in advance and took needed supplies with them.

Planned activities included:

A beanbag toss game that provided physical exercise for residents in wheel chairs by encouraging arm stretching and bag gripping movements. Residents enjoyed cheering on their friends.

Go Fish, and other card games were good small group activities and students enjoyed teaching residents new games.

Painting with watercolors encouraged conversation as each student worked with a buddy to create a picture.

Craft projects allowed students and residents to work together on a planned project such as a spring egg tree. Students brought blown out eggs and working the residents they decorated the eggs with curly ribbons and sequins to make a dining room decoration.

Talent shows allowed students to share their skills in music with instrument playing and singing. Other students choose to share a poem they had memorized. Students were free to select what they wanted to share and residents enjoyed the performances.

Reflections were required after each Manor visit. Journal style entries were written. I wrote feedback based on their writings and parents were given the opportunity to respond in writing to their child's entries. Guided group discussions were also parr of the evaluation process. Time spent in critiquing helped improve the following visits. Feedback during this time is important for success and student growth.

Students will share more in writing than in class orally. Students wrote, "because of this project I am:

- more understanding of their problems
- kinder to older people
- more patient around older people
- better at communicating with people
- beginning to feel better ahout myself."

Eight fifth graders were interested in a science project. They had enjoyed classroom science experiments the year before and wanted to do more, as well as take field trips. They choose to do water reading for the Harrier Marsh wetlands outside of town. The readings were e-mailed to Iowater, and were the first reading received from Boone County. The Department of Natural Resources does not have the manpower or funding to gather reading from all lakes, streams and wetlands around the state. Yet such readings help to determine trends and identify problems.

Service learning provides integration into curriculum areas. The students learned about environmental science as it relates to our community while they studied Harrier Marsh. They learned about accuracy in collecting data. Learners had the opportunity to record data and chart information. They compared the first and second readings. Dissolved oxygen, pH, nitrite, nitrate, phosphate and water temperatures were recorded and studied.

Communication skills were gained as they presented their research, Wetland Minutes, aired over KWBG Radio. Researching skills began by writing questions on information

they would like to learn about wetlands. Note-taking skills followed. Tips for successful radio segments were learned. Practice along with timing was necessary. When students know they will share the research with an audience it raises the quality of information.

Career possibilities were an added bonus as we worked with our county naturalist and the Boone Radio Station.

Reflections included class discussion and journal entries. I wrote feedback responses to correlate with what the students had stated.

After visiting the wetland they wrote descriptive, compare and contrast, cause and effect sentences for aid in developing understanding.

Students wrote the following comments about how the project had helped them:

- "When giving a report in another class I will now know how to put the information together."
- "We had to work together; I needed to listen to everyone."
- "Kids can do beneficial community projects, just like adults."
- "By having told others what we have done, it might inspire others to help in their community."

RESEARCH METHOD

Both projects were evaluated using a parent and student survey.

1. The parent survey

The evaluation of a service project shows ranges of growth. Please indicate on the grid the response to each question as it relates to your child and the class project. You may wish to visit with your child as you complete the survey. Let 5 represent the highest score, while 1 is the lowest.

Each question included this grid:

a. before September 1, 2002
1__ 2__ 3__ 4__ 5__
b. after March 25, 2003
1__ 2__ 3__ 4__ 5__

Goals of the Manor Project included: communication, teamwork, planning and relationship skills. The survey questions were written to match the goals.

Goals of the wetland project included: environmental science, water testing, communication, and teamwork. The survey questions were written to match the goals.

2. The student survey

The evaluation of a service learning project shows ranges of growth. Please indicate on the grid the response to each question. Let 5 represent the highest score, while 1 is the lowest.

The same grid was used for ranking the student survey.

RESULTS

All parent and student surveys were returned from each project.

Service learning brings many benefits. Though each student may start at a different level, progress was achieved in every category. An added benefit to the survey was the guided conversation it brought between the student and parent.

Students in the Manor Project came to class with the attitude they could easily work in a team, this showed the least percentage of increase. They also came to class thinking their planning skills were high.

They were more at ease after they had experienced the project. The more at ease they were the more they would start a conversation.

They found journaling to be a valuable tool in learning about topics and themselves. Hopefully, this technique will carry over to other projects outside of this class.

By experiencing this project they have learned about the needs of another group of citizens. This is the key ingredient in a civic project—the needs of others.

They have learned about themselves while focusing on others.

Environmental science is a new topic for the fifth graders in the wetland project. This accounts for the high increase in growth. Radio broadcasting is also new for these students.

TABLE 1:

Findings from Parent Survey, Manor Mission Project

Manor Mission Project, Parent Survey	Percentage of Increase
Growth observed in communication with older adults	25%
Growth observed in teamwork with peers	16.7%
Growth observed in planning skills with peers	16.7%
Growth observed in concern about issues that affect the elderly	25%
Growth observed in sensing what others are feeling, as it relates to the elderly	25%

TABLE 2:

Findings from Student Survey, Manor Mission

Manor Mission, Student Survey Findings	Percentage of Increase
Growth made in starting a conversation with the Manor residents	41.7%
Growth made in understanding the needs of the Manor residents	37.5%
Growth made in learning about yourself	20.8%
Growth made in feeling at ease at the Manor	54.2%
Growth in understanding the value of journal reflections	41.7%
Growth in understanding the process of service learning	37.5%

Students started class with confidence in their ability to work together.

Their scores reveal how surprised they were in their ability to help our community.

As students understand our community, hopefully, they will demonstrate care through civic responsibility. Hopefully, they will transfer the knowledge of the process to other projects.

BENEFITS BEYOND THE CLASSROOM —THE COMMUNITY WINS

Residents of the Manor were the winners in the project. They gained socialization skills as they had the opportunity to interact with the students. Mental stimulation was observed as new activities were tired by a stroke resident.

The residents could keep track of the calendar days better, as they looked forward to the next visit. They were more open to try new activities as young people taught them. Everyone felt cared for as they had one-on-one attention.

Boone County citizens are winners, as people learn more about Harrier Marsh and the role it plays in our environment. Local residents gain knowledge about the health of the area and how all sections of the countryside depend on another.

TABLE 3:

Finding from Parent Survey, Wetland Task Force

Wetland Task Force, Parent Survey	Percentage of Increase
Growth observed in the topic of environmental science	50%
Growth observed in the topic of water testing	62.5%
Growth observed in willingness to communicate information about the wetlands	56.2%
Growth observed in knowledge of radio broadcasting	59.4%
Growth observed in understanding they can make a positive difference to our community	59.4%

TABLE 4:

Findings from Student Survey, Wetland Task Force

Wetland Task Force, Student Survey	Percentage of Increase
Growth made in understanding the importance of the wetland	65.6%
Growth made in ability to communicate on the radio	65.6%
Growth made in ability to work as a team	12.5%
Growth made in understanding the value of preparation	34.3%
Growth made in caring about our rural wetlands	56.2%
Growth made in understanding the process of service learning	40.6%

Youth experiences last a lifetime. The service learning experiences they had will promote the desire to continue in their adult lives. As adults they will give more to their community because they were involved as youth. They will give of their time. As income allows when they are older they will give financial contributions as well. This is a winning combination for communities.

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATORS

Service learning is most successful when:

- *A true community problem is addressed.* Volunteer managers may speak to students (in the classroom or at an agency) about the mission of the organization and the importance of the issues they are dealing with in the community. They can help students understand the connection between the service and the larger community issue.
- *Integrated across curriculum disciplines.* Volunteer managers should ask about all required school standards so they can help ensure that information is available for students. How does the service connect with reading, writing, math and science requirements? Educators may require specific activities, such as graphs, spreadsheet and charts as part of the math requirement.
- *Teamwork is effective.* Service projects are great opportunities for building teamwork and volunteer managers can build in short team building activities (games/exercises) and have student reflect on what they have learned so that when student do their written reflections they can talk about what they learned and experienced. Ask students how they will share responsibilities, listen to one another, and share ideas. Educators may ask students to write goals for how they will work together and encourage students to monitor their own progress.
- *Student driven.* Volunteer managers can help students identify problems and then determine what action to take and the steps needed to accomplish the task. Encourage the students to create a timeline. The teacher/volunteer manager serves as a facilitator and offers guidance. Try to remember this is a total learning experience for students and not just a work activity. Help them develop the work you have into a learning project.
- *Evaluations are completed regularly.* At the closing of each planning or working sessions students should take a few minutes to analyze their progress. This would include the project, planning, and teamwork. Volunteer managers could help lead the discussions.
- *Using reflections.* The teacher will probably require reflections before, during and after the project is completed. This allows the students to monitor changes for progress. They have the opportunity to realize all they are learning about themselves and academic areas. Reflections may include: journaling, think-pair-share, guided discussion, pictures, videos, create songs, movie, slide show. Volunteer managers can work with teaches so that opportunities for reflections are scheduled for students.
- *Feedback is given.* Feedback should be given continually. Students gain motivation from knowing what was done correctly or what needs to be changed. Volunteer managers should give specific, focused comments during and at the end of every work session.
- *Mentors are available.* Experts in the topic the students are working on can be a great resource. Volunteer managers may enlist agency staff to talk to students about specific part of the project, to give current information and background knowledge to increase awareness of understanding of the issues. This may be an opportunity for them to learn about possible career choices.
- *Communicate with parents.* Volunteer managers can send letters to the parents that inform them of the goals and steps students are planning. Updates during the project may be sent. Informed parents are more supportive of projects.
- *Transportation is available.* Most projects require students to be driven to and from

the site. Volunteer managers would drive and help schedule pick-up times for efficiency.

- *Project is documented.* Digital pictures would allow students the opportunity to make short videos with relevant software. Volunteer managers would take pictures of the students during the stages of the project. You may assist students in preparing the digital movies. They are a great way for parents and community members to enjoy the project.
- *Celebrate success.* The sharing of accomplishments in the atmosphere of success will help to seal their learning. The volunteer manager may help arrange the fun celebrations with the teacher. Everyone in the project is included no matter how much or little they helped. They may have a party with games, and music, a peer sharing time, or share a video of the project with parents.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATORS: GO FOR IT!

- You may experience ambiguity in the beginning. You may not know where the project will lead, but with guidance the students will perform with positive results.
- Planning upfront will be a big payoff when activating the plan. Plan even the little details for positive results.
- You will like how motivated the students become. They display mature behavior while doing service projects, and their enthusiasm is catching.
- Curriculum standards incorporated into service make an ideal situation for fostering life-long citizenship.

CONCLUSIONS

Students learned about their community while working together. Student driven projects are more developed because they are based on true concern. Service learning is a powerful way to integrate curriculum with student achievement. Community groups that support students are vital in building character traits that promote positive citizenship.

Increasing Staff Effectiveness When Working With Teen Volunteers

Shelley Murdock, University of California Cooperative Extension, Pleasant Hill, CA

INTRODUCTION

Teens are volunteering in record numbers. Whereas agency staff enjoy and value the teens' efforts, they vary in their effectiveness in working with teen volunteers for a variety of reasons. They may make the assumption that the strategies they use to guide and manage adult volunteers will work equally well with teen volunteers. Or it may be that staff, especially those from smaller agencies, do not have the resources or opportunities to participate in specialized teen volunteer management training. Hence agency staff, even those with the best intentions, may not be as effective in working with teen volunteers as they could be with increased training and support.

ADDRESSING THE ISSUE

To address this issue, a half-day workshop was planned and delivered collaboratively by a youth development professional with expertise in adolescent development and service-learning, and a (private) high school community service director who is also the former executive director of a large volunteer center. Staff from the local volunteer center also provided information about creating teen volunteer opportunities and using the center's resources.

All the agencies on the volunteer center's mailing list were invited. Registrants were charged $10.00 to ensure their commitment and to cover the cost of morning refreshments and workshop expenses. Scholarships were available for grassroots agencies but none were requested.

Twenty-six staff from 19 agencies attended the workshop. In an introductory activity called "the dipstick", participants rated themselves for both expertise and confidence in working with teens. Over 80% rated themselves strong in both categories. Despite this fairly high level of perceived expertise among participants, evaluations indicated that participants found the workshop beneficial and increased their knowledge about effectively working with teens.

WORKSHOP OUTCOMES

Intended outcomes for the three-hour workshop were as follows:

Participants will:

- Understand characteristics of normal teen development and potential program implications
- Acquire new strategies for effectively communicating with teens
- Know how to design volunteer jobs for teens
- Acquire teen volunteer recruitment strategies

Workshop Content

Following is the information participants rated as most useful. The concepts can be imparted through a variety of interactive strategies described in the training agenda and handouts that appear in the appendices. Two of the activities rated as most useful were adapted from a national curriculum, *Moving Ahead: Preparing the Youth Development Professional* (2000).

Shelley Murdock is a Community and Youth Development Advisor with the University of California Cooperative Extension (UCCE). UCCE's mission is to link University research with communities. She has a master's degree in education, expertise in service-learning, cross-age teaching and adolescent development, and extensive experience working collaboratively with community agencies. Her workshop collaborator, Mark Friedman, is the Community Service Director at the Athenian School and former Executive Director of Linking San Francisco.

Presentation by Teens: A presentation by teens was highly rated by participants and set the stage and tone of the workshop. The presenters were not "stars," but typical teens who initially were reluctant to volunteer. They described their experiences candidly, including what worked well and what did not. Participants asked the teens numerous questions. Developmental and communication concepts taught later in the workshop reinforced the teens' opinions:

- The teens were not interested in receiving extrinsic awards and public recognition, but most valued being treated with respect and as equals by agency staff.
- The teens highly valued the trust shown them by being allowed to conduct tasks unsupervised and worked extra hard to maintain that trust.
- Clear, objective feedback was always welcome and never resented.
- The teens felt that they had made a difference, especially when one of their ideas was adopted for use by the entire agency.

Developmental Characteristics: Participants found the characteristics listed in Table 1 and their implications relevant to their teen volunteer programs.

Teen Communication: Participants rated the communication activity as the most helpful. The following concepts were covered:

- Feedback should be given immediately and privately.
- The most effective feedback focuses on the behavior and its effects on the agency or you.
- Feedback given as an "I" message is much more effective than a "you" message. For example, saying, "I need you to update the data bank regularly" is much more effective than saying, "You are behind on your data bank work".
- An effective way to frame "I" messages, along with an example, is as follows:
  1. State the unacceptable behavior: *"When I see the teen volunteers sitting and chatting instead of doing their work..."*
  2. Express concern about the behavior: *"I feel very nervous"*
  3. Describe the effect of the behavior: *"Because we may not get all the work completed by our deadline."*

Most staff recognized that warning, threatening, preaching, moralizing, advising, lecturing and diagnosing are not effective communication strategies. They were surprised, however, to learn that praising, agreeing, sympathizing and reassuring could be equally ineffective and sometimes perceived by the

TABLE 1

Developmental Characteristics

Developmental Characteristics	Potential Implications
Can initiate and carry out their own tasks without the supervision of others	Train the teens for the job, then let them work independently. Avoid "hovering"
Will lose patience with meaningless activities	Explain how their job fits into agency's mission. Assign them higher skill tasks and not only menial tasks such as sorting, folding, cleaning, etc.
Can think abstractly, consider information and think of new ideas	Let them choose how to carry out their job as long as they achieve the agency's desired results.
Tend to reject ready-made solutions from adults in favor of their own	Involve them in resolving solving difficult situations and problems.
Want adult leadership roles; renegotiate relationships with adults	Include them in staff meetings. Ask for their opinions and use them.
Are ready for in-depth long-term experiences	Create opportunities that build autonomy and leadership over time.
Search for career possibilities	Share what you and other staff do and what you most like about your job.
Find a place in a valued group	Recognize and honor their contributions to your agency. Include them in staff functions and meetings.

teens as patronizing. For example, a teen who expresses doubt about her presentation does not want to be told, "Oh, it was fine." Instead, she would find it more helpful to be asked why she had doubts, what she would like to do better and be given a chance to brainstorm strategies for future presentations. Teens respond well to responses that demonstrate empathy, acceptance, reflective/active listening and willingness to hear more, e.g. "Tell me more about..."

Development of Job Description: Although a job description for the teen volunteer shares many similarities with one for adults, special mention needs to be made to the time commitment and its fit with school; how the job relates to the agency's mission; and the job skills the teen may acquire. A sample worksheet and job description is included in the appendix.

Networking/Recruitment Strategy Sharing: As with most adult learning opportunities, participants highly valued time spent networking with their peers. Many stated in their evaluations that they would appreciate more time for sharing in future workshops.

CONCLUSION

Often staff believe they are effective teen volunteer staff/directors because they genuinely enjoy working with the teens. Genuine enjoyment is certainly an important, key ingredient in successful teen volunteer programs. However, the results of this workshop demonstrate that even those who are experienced and comfortable working with teens can benefit from additional information and training, especially in addressing the developmental and communication needs of teens.

One participant said it best: "Thank you very much for inviting me to this workshop. I feel more knowledgeable and ready to take on the teen volunteers in our agency. Thank you!"

REFERENCE

USDA/ARMY School-age and Teen Project (2000). Moving ahead: Preparing the youth development professional. Kansas State University.

Appendix 1 - Training Agenda

MIN	TOPIC	DESCRIPTION
10	Welcome, overview of day, "expertise dipstick"	As participants arrived, their first assignment was to identify their level of expertise/confidence in working with teens.
15	Introductions	Participants gave their name, organization, and one way their organization involves or wants to involve teen volunteers.
25	Youth/Adult Partnerships	The large group was divided into two smaller groups. Each group took on the role of either teens or adults and identified what their group thinks are the challenges and benefits of working with the other group. The strengths of partnering were discussed.
25	What Youth Have to Say	Two youths described their volunteer experiences including: why they volunteer; what worked well; how the experiences could be improved.
10	Components of Successful Volunteer Program	Participants reviewed a handout describing eleven necessary components of successful programs. They individually conducted a self-assessment in which they determined if elements are missing from their program.
25	Developmental Characteristics of Teens	The large group was divided into four groups. Each group was given a puzzle of teen characteristics (either 12-14 years old or 15-18 years old) and asked to discuss characteristics, assemble the pieces and determine implications for their programs.
15	Designing Volunteer Jobs for Teens	Each participant completed a job development worksheet to be used to draft a job description.
25	Effective Coaching/ Communication Strategies	Working in pairs, participants discussed typical communication issues that might arise in their agencies and appropriate responses. These were shared with the large group and discussed.
20	Recruitment	The large group discussed recruitment and shared tips including: where to find teen volunteers; partnering with other agencies; and using the Volunteer Center.
10	Wrap-up; evaluation	Participants completed a retrospective pre-post-test evaluation.

Appendix 2

Youth Volunteer Job Development Worksheet

Agency: _____ Supervisor: _____

Minimum Age of Volunteer: _____ Time Commitment: _____

The task I want accomplished is: _____

This task could be best accomplished by (write task (s) in appropriate boxes):

	Short Term Project On Site	Short Term Project Off Site	Long Term Project On Site	Long Term Project Off Site
Individual Teen				
Teen Team (2-4 youth)				
Adult Led Team				
Class (30 youth)				
Large Group (200 youth)				

The person or group needs these qualifications:

This task will help us fulfill our mission by:

In order to complete this task, we will need the following resources:

A volunteer will get this training and/or gain these skills:

These are the benefits youth will obtain from working at our agency:

Appendix 3
Job Description for Youth Volunteers
SAMPLE

What would the **JOB TITLE** be for a paid staff person performing the same type of duties?

LMNO Neighborhood Community Center

Job Title: Peer Educator

Supervisor: Project Coordinator

Time Commitment: 4 hours per week, as arranged (plus training time) in the afternoons.

Is the **TIME COMMITMENT** realistic and feasible for a student? How many hours are expected? When?

What are the "ideal" **QUALIFICATIONS** that you see in a volunteer for this position?

Duties:

- Provide direct education to youth clients on HIV Risk Reduction, STDs and pregnancy prevention
- Lead workshops in schools on these topics
- Assist in training of new volunteers

Qualifications:

- Non-judgmental perspective on very challenging
- Peer-counseling experience a plus, though not necessary
- Awareness of AIDS health issues
- Familiarity with local community
- Public speaking skills

Are there certain skills or **TRAINING** that a volunteer will be able to obtain through on the job experience?

Training:

- 20-hour training program
- 4-hour apprenticeship with experienced Educator
- Required monthly support group for all Educators
- Attendance at relevant conferences

What is your agency's **MISSION**? Why was this position created? How does it relate to others in the organization? Why is this position integral?

Importance of Job to Our Mission:

xxx Community Center is dedicated to providing our neighborhood with activities, educational programming, daycare, and other projects to empower women and children accomplish their personal and professional goals. The HIV Education project is the newest of our resources. Passionate and intelligent young people can educate their peers to fight against the further escalation of the AIDS crisis in youth communities.

If interested, please contact the Project Coordinator at 415-000--1-1

Whom should an interested youth **CONTACT**?

GUIDELINES FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS

Content

The *Journal Of Volunteer Administration* seeks to publish original manuscripts that provide for an exchange of ideas and sharing of knowledge and insights about volunteerism and volunteer management and administration. Manuscripts may focus on volunteering in any setting, in North America and internationally.

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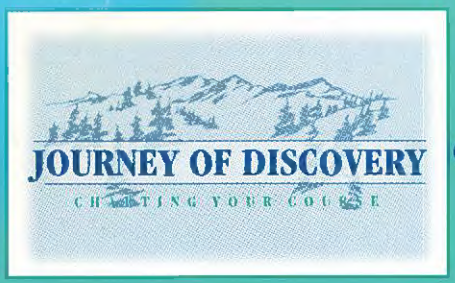

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