THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

Fall 1982

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ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

The Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) is the professional association for those working in the field of volunteer management who want to shape the future of volunteerism, develop their professional skills, and further their careers. Members include volunteer program administrators 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. AVA is open to both salaried and nonsalaried professionals.

AVA also has a special membership category that enables organizations with mutually-compatible goals to AVA to become Affiliate Members. Affiliates range from local associations of directors of volunteers, to statewide volunteerism groups, to national organizations. Affiliates, each with its own membership base, broaden the networking possibilities open to all AVA members.

AVA is an association run by its members. Active national committees include: Public Information; Professional Development; Resource Development; and Public Policy. Members also plan the annual "National Conference on Volunteerism," 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 national issues of importance to volunteerism.

AVA is divided into twelve geographic regions, each of which develops a variety of programs to serve its members. These can include annual regional conferences, periodic local workshops, newsletters, and informal "cluster group" meetings.

Two major services that AVA performs, both for its members and for the field at large, are Certification and Educational Endorsement. Through the Certification process, which 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 volunteerism.

Finally, AVA produces publications, including several informational newsletters and booklets, and THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION.

For further information about the ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION, contact AVA, P.O. Box 4584, Boulder, CO 80306.

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Preface to the Inaugural Issue

As Editor-in-Chief, I take great pleasure in introducing this inaugural issue of THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION. Readers who have made the transition with us from THE JOURNAL's predecessor (VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION) will immediately notice the new look of this publication. It is the hope of THE JOURNAL staff and of the publishing organization, the Association for Volunteer Administration, that this "new look" points to a bright future for our field.

Many people have been involved behind the scenes in preparing for THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION's debut. Some of their names appear on the inside cover as continuing staff. It should be noted that all JOURNAL personnel serve as volunteers--giving many hours of personal time to ensure the most professional publication possible. A note of genuine appreciation is extended to THE JOURNAL's graphic artist, Laurence Manou, who willingly consulted on all aspects of this first issue's design, well beyond the original requirements of his contract with AVA. This extra time was also volunteered.

While the ultimate goal of THE JOURNAL is to be fully typeset, the present interior format will be maintained until funds permit moving to the next "stage" of production. This means that readers will continue to see visual changes as THE JOURNAL develops . . . something to anticipate with pleasure.

This inaugural issue contains quite a diversity of articles, as will all subsequent issues. THE JOURNAL will be meatier than before and will attempt to introduce readers to the "wide world of volunteerism." The variety inherent in our field is represented by the articles in this issue:

* The authors vary from directors of volunteers, to VAC directors, to academics, to professionals in related fields. They also are both salaried and volunteer.

* The location of the projects described ranges all over the United States. The authors themselves come from Wisconsin, Virginia, Nebraska, New York, Alabama, Ohio, New Jersey and Pennsylvania.

* The type of volunteering described includes both formal programs incorporated into agencies or institutions, and programs that are volunteer-run, including self-help groups. THE JOURNAL is one forum where all the many components of volunteerism can examine mutual interests and concerns.

* The point of the articles also serves different needs. Some present model programs, others give insight into new issues confronting the volunteer administrator.

The cumulative effect of issue after issue of THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION will be to broaden the horizons of readers to include the full scope of volunteerism.

There are a number of JOURNAL features still under development.

Readers will see these features introduced in upcoming issues, including:

Abstracts: Gordon Manser, co-author of Voluntarism at the Crossroads and active volunteer advocate even in "retirement," has signed on to be Abstracts Editor. He is presently redefining and restructuring the groundwork laid by Ivan Scheier in the previous publication, so that THE JOURNAL can provide readers with an invaluable resource for keeping abreast of the printed word about our field. Anyone interested in assisting as an Abstractor is encouraged to volunteer now. Abstracts will appear as a special JOURNAL section on a regular basis.

Training Ideas: As a periodic feature, THE JOURNAL intends to publish interesting and adaptable training designs developed by volunteer administrators. Because all program leaders must implement training for volunteers and salaried staff, ideas for group involvement can be of great aid. The next issue of THE JOURNAL will contain the first entry in this category and will be a sample of the type of design others could share. It will be a full explanation of how to run a "Strategy Exchange" such as the one offered during the 1981 National Conference on Volunteerism. Since there have been a number of requests already for this design, it seemed like an excellent choice to demonstrate the potential of this feature section.

National Conference on Volunteerism: Though this goal may require a few years before complete implementation, THE JOURNAL intends to be a way for the proceedings at the annual National Conference on Volunteerism to be documented. Presentors will be asked to submit articles (Barrie Alan Peterson's piece in this issue on self-help groups is already an example) that build on workshop sessions. Other aspects of the Conference will be captured by writers "commissioned" to record key ideas. Anyone wishing to help with this goal during the 1982 Conference in Disneyland is urged to come forward as soon as possible.

There are other ideas in the hopper, too. Special book review articles, updates of classic articles, and other sorts of reference pieces are planned. Letters to the editor are welcomed and will be printed if they respond to JOURNAL authors or raise pertinent concerns. Theme issues are a possibility in the future.

So, welcome to THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION. Add our issues to your library on volunteerism and actively help us to grow in value to you by responding to our ideas and calls for assistance. Look for THE JOURNAL in September, December, March and June. We'll mark the seasons together.

Susan J. Ellis
Editor-in-Chief

Recruiting Black and Hispanic Volunteers: A Qualitative Study of Organizations' Experiences

Susan Maizel Chambré, PhD

Volunteers are an important human resource for a variety of organizations and institutions in American society. In 1974 (the most recent year when a national study of volunteering was performed), close to 37 million Americans devoted some time to doing volunteer work (ACTION, 1975). The total economic value of this time was estimated as being $33.9 billion yearly, an amount less than its real value because the typical volunteer's time was calculated to be worth the minimum wage (Wolozin, 1976).

The traditional image of the volunteer--an affluent woman with extensive leisure time--is a narrow view of reality. Recent historical studies and current empirical data have shown that volunteers are a diverse group (Ellis and Noyes, 1978; ACTION, 1975). However, several social characteristics are closely linked with volunteering: whether or not an individual engages in volunteer work is significantly influenced by sex, age, income, educational achievement and race (Chambré, 1980; Morgan, Dye and Hybels, 1977; ACTION, 1975). The Americans Volunteer--1974 study found that whites were about twice as likely to be volunteers as nonwhites; approximately one-quarter of the whites and one-eighth of the nonwhites surveyed indicated that they had done organized volunteer work during the previous year (ACTION, 1975).

Volunteer administrators in social service agencies have been concerned with expanding the pool of volunteers, particularly the number of nonwhites. (Richards and Polansky, 1959; Chapin and Mok, 1979; Cruz, 1978; National Center for Voluntary Action, 1976; Grindel, 1969). Increasing nonwhite participation is intended to have several practical effects: 1) expand the actual number of volunteers; 2) have a more diverse group receive the benefits of doing volunteer work; 3) improve the quality of services provided when similarities between volunteers and clients are beneficial; and 4) expand the range of opinions represented when volunteers serve in an advisory capacity.

This article reports some of the findings of a larger project on recruitment of minority volunteers (Chambré, 1980). The study was conducted under the auspices of Big Brothers, Inc. of New York City and was supported by the Rockefeller Brothers Fund. The purpose of the project was to identify strategies for recruiting black and Hispanic big brothers and big sisters. This article describes the results of a survey of organizations concerning successful methods for attracting minority volunteers.

Susan Maizel Chambré is Assistant Professor of Sociology at Baruch College of the City University of New York. She conducted a study of ways to recruit black and Hispanic volunteers for Big Brothers, Inc. of New York City. At the current time, her research activities include studies of volunteering among the aged.

NOTE: The views expressed in this article are the author's and do not reflect the opinions or policies of Big Brothers, Inc. of New York City which sponsored the research project on which this paper is based. The author expresses appreciation to the following for their assistance in this project: John Odum, Winifred Brown and Dr. Florence S. Schwartz

Although volunteers serve a variety of significant functions and are crucial to the existence of many organizations, most social service agencies currently rely upon paid staff members to provide the bulk of direct services to clients. Big Brother/Big Sister agencies are unique in their continued reliance upon volunteers as a major source of direct services to individuals on a long-term basis. Thus, for these agencies, increased participation of black and Hispanic volunteers is particularly crucial, given the large number of minority children from single parent families who would benefit from having contact with a minority volunteer.

METHODOLOGY

Seventy-one unstructured interviews were conducted with individuals who were knowledgeable about or who had had direct experience with the recruitment of black and/or Hispanic volunteers. Those included in the sample were identified in three ways: they were working in organizations which had specifically recruited black or Hispanic volunteers; they were identified by another individual in the sample as being knowledgeable about the subject; or they served as directors of volunteers for organizations which were either located in or which served black or Hispanic neighborhoods.

Table 1 indicates the distribution of respondents according to the nature of the organization they worked for or the reason why they were included in the sample.

Due to time constraints, most respondents were interviewed by telephone. The interviews were unstructured; therefore, the questions asked were based on the particular knowledge, interests and experience of the respondent. Almost all of the interviewees were associated with interracial organizations. A substantial number voluntarily identified themselves as being either black or Hispanic. This information was not systematically recorded.

FINDINGS

The respondents expressed consensus on two general points: 1) that a well-designed volunteer program would attract minority volunteers; and 2) that recruitment of minority volunteers is affected by the overall characteristics of an organization.

With respect to the first finding, respondents pointed out that:

> *Minority volunteers can be recruited using the same techniques as those used for all volunteers. However, some special efforts must also be made and volunteer administrators must be sensitive to the unique needs of minority volunteers.*

This observation, expressed either extemporaneously or as a response to a direct question, was held by virtually all of those who were interviewed. A well-designed and carefully administered volunteer program will attract black and Hispanic volunteers. The major difference is that an organization must work harder to find minority volunteers and be sensitive to their special needs. The following statement summarizes this viewpoint:

> *Recruiting _____ is no different from recruiting anyone else . . . . You need to place a concerted effort to recruit them . . . . They must be made to feel they can give . . . . Tell them they need to come forth . . . . Don't make them feel as if they are tokens because that is resented. If you want them, you can get them.*

A second area of agreement concerns the effect of the organization itself rather than specific recruitment techniques.

> *All features of an organization influence whether or not an individual will volunteer. Minority volunteers, as members of groups with traditionally low involvement outside their own communities, are particularly responsive to positive or negative cues.*

The literature on volunteer recruitment (National Center for Voluntary Action, 1976; Selvidge, 1978; Naylor, 1967) and respondents in this survey indicate that low participation by nonwhites may reflect the fact that organizations are "hard to reach" rather than nonwhites do not want to volunteer. Organizations interested in increasing nonwhite involvement should be aware that minority volunteers may be "pioneering" by moving into organizations outside of their communities. The prevailing opinion among respondents is that when compared to whites, nonwhites initially tend to be less confident about their own abilities and the value of their contribution. Organizations which have increased minority participation have extensively reexamined and, in some instances, substantially modified their programs and procedures.

These two findings are rather general and refer to all phases of a volunteer program. Several specific findings also emerged from the interviews. These are presented in an order which follows the temporal sequence of a volunteer's involvement with an organization. Many of the points are applicable to successfully recruiting volunteers from all backgrounds.

PROMOTE AWARENESS OF THE NEED FOR VOLUNTEERS AND THE BENEFITS TO BE DERIVED BY THE VOLUNTEER

Modern volunteer administration does not rely solely upon humanitarian social values to assure an adequate supply of people. Rather, organizations stimulate altruistic behavior by "recruiting" volunteers. As a first step, volunteer programs promote awareness of their existence and purpose, communicate the volunteer's role, stress the organization's need for volunteers and specify the kinds of benefits which can be derived.

When recruiting blacks and Hispanics, organizations should indicate the consistency between their own goals and methods and the needs and interests of minority communities. A recruiter for the Girl Scouts indicated that she stresses that major goals of her organization are shared by the black and Hispanic parents whose children's participation is being solicited and who themselves could also serve as adult leaders.

The volunteer's role must also be presented as achieving these mutually-shared goals. In the case of Big Brothers, I considered whether the method of service delivery (a one-to-one relationship between an adult volunteer and a child) is relevant to potential minority volunteers. Since the problems of young people are widespread in many minority communities, a one-to-one relationship may appear inconsequential since only one child at a time is affected. However, one respondent, himself an upwardly mobile Hispanic, indicated that a one-to-one relationship is appealing because: "All of the guys who've made it in the South Bronx have done so because someone took an interest in them."

In order to promote awareness on the part of potential volunteers, organizations should communicate a general need for participants and, simultaneously, a special need for black or Hispanic volunteers. Both messages should be clear. One volunteer administrator has found that specifying the precise number and types needed has proven valuable. Knowing that a finite number are needed signals to a potential volunteer that his or her participation would be a significant contribution rather than being part of a never-ending need for people.

In addition to specifying the number needed, experience has shown that clearly communicating the need for black and/or Hispanic volunteers is also beneficial. In the opinion of some respondents, the inclusion of photographs of blacks and Hispanics in promotional material is not sufficient. While clearly superior to material excluding such photographs, it can also appear as "tokenism" if not done with sensitivity. To counteract the perception of tokenism, the tone and content of promotional material should strike a responsive chord in minority recruits, thereby signalling to them that the organization would be a place where they would be welcomed and feel comfortable. Benefits derived from participation should be clearly communicated to potential volunteers. Professionals who administer volunteer programs have come to recognize that a mixture of altruism and self-interest is an acceptable and valuable motivation. Organizations should therefore communicate clearly to all volunteers, particularly those who may be "pioneers," that they, too, will benefit.

A review of case records of minority big brothers and big sisters of Big Brothers, Inc. of New York City revealed two motives which exemplify altruistic self-interest. A number of individuals indicated that they had a particular interest in working with children. Others felt that they were particularly well-suited to the role because of their own childhood experiences growing up without fathers or in foster homes, the type of volunteer Sills (1957) labels as "veteran."

All of these findings suggest that systematic ways of promoting awareness should signal to the potential volunteer that an organization is an appropriate and also a comfortable context within which he or she might want to donate time. The following section considers how such messages should be communicated.

COMBINE MASS MEDIA AND COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION TECHNIQUES

A major difference of opinion pertained to the best medium of communication. Some respondents favored the use of mass media as the most efficient way of promoting awareness. Others contended that one-to-one contact and community organization techniques are the best methods for recruiting minority volunteers. A third viewpoint, which is endorsed here, is that a combination of the two approaches is the most consistent with the process of becoming a volunteer.

Mass Media

The use of newspapers, magazines, radio and television has the major advantage of reaching large numbers of people with relatively minimal effort. However, a negative by-product is that such publicity attracts individuals who may not be suited to the roles to be performed. Use of media may place an organization in the position of having to screen out a large number of people. Careful consideration must also be given to achieving this without damaging an organization's reputation, as ill-treatment can be communicated to others. To achieve this, some organizations have trained volunteers to screen over the telephone, thus lessening the burden on paid staff.

A combination of media efforts directed to varied audiences as well as to minority audiences will ensure that a broad range of individuals will be informed. When a foreign language is used, individuals with a limited fluency in English will respond. If this would disqualify an individual, then commercials and advertisements should clearly specify that fluency in English is a prerequisite.

Newspapers with a focused circulation--to communities, colleges, unions and businesses--should also be used. The inclusion of feature stories on current volunteers with a connection to the readership would simultaneously perform several functions: 1) promote awareness of the organization's purpose; 2) provide recognition of a particular volunteer's contribution; and 3) personalize the role to be performed by demonstrating it does not require exceptional abilities.

Community Organization

Volunteer administrators have profitably adopted community organization techniques to recruit members of groups with traditionally low involvement. The prevailing opinion among respondents is that recruitment of all volunteers, but particularly blacks and Hispanics, requires personalized efforts. Mass media is valuable but must be supplemented by direct appeals to individuals. The development of relationships with community groups enables an outside organization to tap new social networks while having the endorsement of an organization known within a particular community.

Scouting organizations have successfully adapted community organization techniques in recruiting youth and adult participants in inner-city areas. As a first step, they survey existing organizations. This enables them to assess the reputations of existing groups and their place in the local power structure. Local groups must be selected with great care; a coalition with an organization with a poor reputation will severely limit the success of a volunteer recruitment effort.

A second step is to establish a collaborative relationship with a local group. This should be viewed as an alliance which is beneficial to both parties. For example, Scouting organizations indicate to local groups that they have a program valuable to inner-city youth and also the expertise to implement it. The community group's contribution is crucial because it has access to other resources which are necessary for a program's success: a positive reputation, people, space and community contacts.

A potential problem in forming alliances is that an organization may overextend itself and be unable to follow-through on contacts which have been initiated. This has short-term as well as long-term implications as described in this excerpt from a Boy Scouts staff manual:

> *Knowledgeable Scouters are appalled at the percent of dropped or inactive units which occur in inner-city and rural areas . . . Project directors frequently reported ill-will on the part of the people toward Scouting, because someone had gone into their areas and unit sponsors made promises that either were not, or could not be, kept . . . Many people and sponsors seemed to have been disappointed by inferior or unsuccessful Scouting, thus creating this "burned over territory" condition when attempts were made to go in and try to organize again...at times, the memory of a bad experience in one church or school was reported during organizational attempts at a neighboring church or school . . . (Boy Scouts of America, 1973:25).*

A successful alliance with a community group should yield volunteers for several reasons. It promotes awareness of the organization's purpose and need for volunteers. The alliance itself communicates that there is a common interest between the organizations, serves as an endorsement by the community group, and signals to potential volunteers that they are likely to feel comfortable in the outside organization. Without any additional efforts, the alliance should yield volunteers. To ensure further success, recruitment should, however, also operate at another level: person-to-person activities should be instituted.

MAINTAIN THE INTEREST OF POTENTIAL VOLUNTEERS BY INSTITUTIONALIZING "TRIGGER EVENTS"

Studies of volunteering indicate that there is a gap in time between becoming aware of an opportunity and actually making a commitment. According to Sills (1957:102), deciding to volunteer is a two-step process. Actually becoming a volunteer requires that a "trigger event" transform vague interests and intentions into a tangible action. His study of the March of Dimes found that, most often, the trigger event involved another person known to the volunteer--a belief shared by the respondents in this survey. The actions of another person serve to crystallize a decision which may have been under consideration for a substantial period of time.

Data from a study conducted in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania indicate that blacks more often relied upon other individuals to "trigger" their decision to volunteer than whites (Nehnevajsa and Karelitz, 1976). This is probably due to their more limited experience with volunteer organizations, particularly organizations outside of their own communities. Another individual provides assurance that the potential volunteer is qualified, that the role to be performed is an appropriate one, and that a particular organization will be receptive to his or her contribution.

Organizations should recognize the decision-making process of becoming a volunteer and develop procedures which sustain the potential volunteer's interests. Any minority recruitment effort must build in the role of a "trigger" by using staff, volunteers and community leaders to assist individuals in crystallizing their decision to volunteer. Several strategies have been used to achieve this.

Some organizations have used influential community leaders, formal as well as informal, to identify and, in effect, "nominate" potential volunteers. The use of nominators personalizes the recruitment process and signals to an individual that an influential person has identified him or her as a potential volunteer.

A second approach is to hold gatherings of current and potential volunteers. This technique simultaneously serves as a "trigger" and a way of initially orienting potential volunteers. It further personalizes the role to be played because recruits can discuss the nature of the role to be performed with current volunteers.

A third trigger-like activity is a more impersonal one which involves the inclusion of phrases in recruitment appeals that crystallize the decision to volunteer. For example, a message such as "if you've wanted to be a ____ for a long time, now is the time to do it," provides recognition of the decision-making process and, with little effort, would perform the trigger function for some individuals.

ENSURE THAT SCREENING AND ORIENTATION DO NOT TURN OFF POTENTIAL VOLUNTEERS

Organizations typically screen potential volunteers to ensure that they are not given inappropriate responsibilities and, when they provide direct services, to ensure an adequate quality of services. In order to be certain that responsibilities will be carried out and the individual understands the nature of the organization, volunteers generally receive an orientation.

Screening and orientation may weed out inappropriate individuals but may also screen out potentially valuable people. The respondents indicated that minority volunteers are generally more sensitive to the negative cues at this stage of the process. Black volunteers, in particular, are especially sensitive to any implication that screening is intended to exclude individuals. If extensive screening is necessary, its rationale and relevance for both volunteer and organization should be explicit.

A significant gap in time between contacting an organization and assuming the volunteer role may unintentionally communicate to a potential volunteer that he or she is either not needed or is not wanted. For this reason, the time involved in screening and orientation should be as short as possible. Sills' (1957) work on volunteering suggests that the time between gaining awareness and deciding to volunteer may already be considerable. At this point in the process, recruits may be impatient. A delay can be interpreted as a rejection, which may result in a person's loss of interest in doing any volunteer work or in working for one particular organization.

SUMMARY

The relatively lower formal volunteer participation among nonwhites and the desire to expand their participation has presented volunteer administrators with a challenge. A number of organizations have spent significant time and effort developing ways of expanding nonwhite volunteering. This article summarizes the experiences of a number of organizations outlining some general perspectives and specific techniques for recruiting black and Hispanic volunteers.

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Table 1

Frequency Distribution of Individuals Who Were Interviewed by the Type of Organization in Which They Were Employed or the Reason Why They Were Included In the Sample

Organization or Reason Included	Number of Individuals
Youth Organizations	
Big Brothers	
National staff	3
Local agency staff	11
Boy Scouts	
National staff	1
New York region	2
Girl Scouts	
National staff	2
New York region	2
Campfire	3
Other youth organizations	2
Mayor's Voluntary Action Center	6
Hospitals and health organizations	14
Humanities*	4
National Center for Citizen Involvement staff	2
Child welfare	4
Citizen's Committee for New York City	2
Volunteer coordinators, other organizations	5
Familiar with volunteer administration	5
Familiar with Black and/or Hispanic lifestyles	2
Total	71

*Participants in the National Center for Citizen Involvement's project on recruitment of hard-to-reach volunteers.

If It Acts Like a Manager, It Must Be a Manager

Virginia M. Cronk

The position of director of volunteers has a commonly accepted definition in the health, social service and cultural organizations in which it exists. The director of volunteers is the person who is responsible for assuring an adequate number of volunteers to meet the needs of the organization. While the position is commonly understood to entail management responsibilities, there is currently no common agreement as to what competencies or attributes are employed by the directors of volunteers to meet these reponsibilities. There are repeated cries from directors of volunteers that they need to be treated as "professionals" and need to be given more recognition and respect for their special skills and abilities. However there is increasing recognition that the position is a valuable one within the organization, but more needs to be known about the people who hold these positions and the areas of competencies which they are expected by employers to demonstrate.

Are directors of volunteers "marginally accepted leadership of a marginally accepted workforce (volunteers)" as Ivan Scheier (1980) suggests? Do directors of volunteers still have to struggle to define their roles in organizations even though the career can be traced to the late eighteenth century? Although a great deal has been written which describes directing volunteers as a management position and as a professional career, how is the position perceived by those who hold the position and those who supervise them? One way of determining this is to look at the ways in which the director of volunteers is evaluated as an employee. If the position is seen within the organization as a management position, the employee evaluation will be done on management criteria.

A review of the classical management functions (identified by various experts) in conjunction with the acknowledged responsibilities of directors of volunteers is shown in the accompanying chart. This juxtaposition of management functions with the responsibilities of directors of volunteers shows that the position of director of volunteers carries management responsibility. However, as cited, much of the literature perpetuates the perception that there is a reluctance among executives of agencies and among directors of volunteers themselves to recognize or deal with the fact that they are indeed managers. The purpose of this paper is to argue that directors of volunteers should be perceived by themselves and by agency executives

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Management Functions	Responsibilities of Directors of Volunteers
Planning: Determining in advance what will be done.	Develop goals and objectives. Implement board policies.
Organizing: Determining how work will be divided and accomplished.	Interview. Develop job descriptions. Use community resources. Develop resources for volunteer programs.
Staffing: Assuring there are qualified people to fill needed positions.	Identify needs and opportunities for volunteer service. Utilize various recruitment techniques. Schedule volunteers.
Directing: Getting people to accomplish tasks assigned to them by motivating, communicating and leading.	Provide orientation and training. Supervise volunteers. Develop volunteer recognition program. Establish lines of supervision.
Controlling: Evaluating to determine if events have conformed to plans.	Do written evaluations of job performance. Monitor volunteer program. Provide on-going evaluation of program.
Interpersonal roles: Serving as a figurehead, leader, liaison.	Work creatively within the structure. Promote volunteerism. Serve as a liaison between agency and community. Assure communication between staff and volunteers. Maintain good public relations.
Informational roles: Serving as a a message center, monitoring and disseminating information, serving as a catalyst.	Enlist support of staff for volunteers. Maintain records. Be knowledgeable about trends and issues.
Decision maker: Allocating resources, negotiating, acting as group consultant.	"Hire," fire and assign volunteers. Identify service gaps.

as managers, and to suggest ways in which to build this perception.

An employee evaluation based on management criteria would include those characteristics which measure a person's ability to perform management tasks. However, directors of volunteers may undergo employee evaluations which are based instead on program evaluation. Such an evaluation would measure the health of the volunteer program but not necessarily the management abilities of the director of volunteers. Now we return to our original statement: if the director of volunteers is recognized as filling a management position, the employee evaluation criteria will be that of management.

EVALUATION CRITERIA

There are several criteria for evaluation which can be drawn from the functions of managers as outlined in the previously discussed chart. The commonly-accepted five areas of management responsibilities (planning, organizing, staffing, directing and controlling) could serve as a basis. Evaluations could be based on Drucker's concept of the manager's management of his or her own time, concentrating on results rather than work, and sticking to priorities (Wilson, 1976). A manager must also have technical and professional competence to run a department smoothly and see that employees carry out assignments. The manager must be a "competent subordinate" to his or her supervisor, or a good employee. Since the manager is the link between employees and administration, a good working relationship must be maintained with both. These dimensions of management as developed by Haimann (1973) can become criteria for evaluation.

Lopez (1968:280-282) has developed a checklist for evaluation of individual performance of managers. This includes such elements as:

Judgement. In executive situations it is necessary to deal with unknowns. A good manager should be willing and able to make quick judgements on the basis of a few, but not all, of the facts in a situation.

Skills: (a) in instructing others; (b) in planning; (c) in drawing from others the maximum in willing effectiveness.

Courage. When the going gets tough, how do you behave? Are you persistent, able to stick to a job, to work on it and to struggle through until it is finished?

Interest in people. An executive must be at ease with people from all backgrounds in personal relationships. How well do you handle hostile feelings towards others?

Cooperation. Even when in control, a good executive must be able to cooperate with others.

Acceptance of organizational responsibility.

Capacity to grow. Acceptance of personal responsibility.

A study done in London in 1973 (Gill, Ungerson, Thaker: 51-52) pulled together the characteristics of management and set them into criteria for evaluation. These characteristics were:

1. *Assertiveness. Inclination to assert oneself so as to be an active part of a group effort rather than remain passive to the requirements of the task or situation. Tendency to push forward one's own interests or ideas, despite opposition.*
2. *Persuasive or selling ability. Ability to convince others of one's point of view. The logical presentation of this point of view in order to convince others.*
3. *Oral communication. The ability to speak with clarity, good choice of words and poise. The presentation should be interesting, articulate, and easy to understand. Good vocabulary, grammar, syntax and semantics are all important.*
4. *Planning and organizing. The ability to organize work activi-*

ties. The ability to make an orderly approach to tasks. Use of guidelines in the approach to problems. Proper emphasis upon organizational structure, cohesiveness, and integration of ideas.

5. Self-confidence. *Positive belief in one's self which is positive yet realistic. Control of emotions. Need for approval by peers, subordinates and superiors is not excessive.*

6. Resistance to stress. *Ability to stand up in the face of unusual pressure. Ability to resist the effects of uncertain or unstructured conditions on performance. Tendency not to be disturbed by opposing views.*

7. Energy level. *Ability to sustain a high level of work activity on a continuous basis. Physical endurance. Vigor. Does not tire easily. Active participation in group exercises.*

8. Decision making. *Ability to make decisions quickly and accurately. Decisions are based on a careful and balanced consideration of all available facts.*

9. Interpersonal contact. *Sensitivity to the feelings of others. Makes a good first impression on others. Has political understanding, likeability and empathy.*

10. Administrative ability. *Accurate and reliable record keeping. Ability to properly delegate. Thoroughness. Attention to detail.*

11. Originality and creativity. *Unusual solution to problems; novel or imaginative organizational thoughts or ideas.*

12. Mental alertness. *The ability to deal with ideas at an abstract level, to learn and understand readily. The ability to perceive subtle relationships of importance.*

MILWAUKEE SURVEY

In order to determine by what criteria the director of volunteers is evaluated, a questionnaire was developed and administered in 1981 to fifty agencies registered with the Greater Milwaukee Voluntary Action Center. This questionnaire included management criteria developed from the review of the literature with special emphasis on the work of Lopez (1968), Gill, Unger, Thaker (1973), Wilson (1976), and Haiman (1973). It also included criteria which would be primarily a measure of the health of a volunteer program taken from the work of Reigel (1977). The criteria were accompanied by a rating scale to measure the importance of each criteria in the employee evaluation of the director of volunteers.

The first eleven evaluation criteria were criteria for evaluating management personnel. They were:

1. assertiveness in being part of total staff efforts
2. oral communications
3. self-confidence
4. resistance to stress
5. ability to manage own time
6. decision making ability
7. interpersonal skills
8. administrative ability
9. originality and creativity
10. ability to supervise staff
11. budget making and monitoring

Six additional factors in the list of criteria in the questionnaire were measures of the health of the volunteer program. These six criteria were taken from a volunteer program evaluation manual developed by Reigel (1977). They are measures of the volunteer program's success rather than of the director's abilities because the total volunteer program is impacted by top management, clients, other volunteers, the staff and the board of directors, in addition to the director of volunteers. For instance, excessive turnover of volunteers may be due to lack of commitment of the organizational administration, time and resources allotted to the volunteer program. While these six factors are not an accurate measure of the director's ability, they can serve as information to help the director identify problems and take action to solve them (Reigel, 1977). These six factors are:

1. number of new volunteers recruited
2. number of volunteers giving service to the organization
3. total number of volunteer hours contributed
4. length of service of volunteers
5. the quality of service provided by the volunteers
6. the degree to which volunteers aid the agency in reaching its goals

The responses to this survey came to the following mean values:

The directors and evaluators essentially agree on those criteria receiving the ratings of highest importance and those of lowest importance. Evaluators did rate the importance of oral communications higher than did the directors. Except for oral communications, the directors and evaluators followed the same pattern when their ratings for each criteria were graphed. The evaluators consistently gave a rating of more importance to each criteria than did the directors.

The first eleven criteria, which are those on which managers can be evaluated, were given higher ratings in general than the second set of six criteria which are measures of the volunteer program. The two exceptions are budget making (from the management criteria) which was rated lower, and the degree to which volunteers aid the agency in reaching its goals (from the program evaluation criteria), which was rated higher.

The four criteria rated of highest importance by the directors of volun-

Criteria	Directors	Evaluators
assertiveness	3.85	4.0
oral communication	3.59	4.24
self confidence	4.31	3.95
resistance to stress	2.75	3.95
manage time	4.79	4.75
decision making	4.39	4.41
interpersonal skills	4.42	4.55
administrative ability	4.15	4.10
originality	3.47	3.79
supervise staff	3.94	4.05
budget making	2.41	2.71
number of volunteers	3.38	3.53
new volunteers	3.0	3.5
volunteer hours	3.31	3.3
length of service	2.69	2.68
quality of service	3.94	3.89
degree aid goals	4.68	4.29

The criteria above the line relate to management skills, while the criteria below the line refer to program evaluation.

teers were, in descending order: self confidence, ability to manage time, the degree to which volunteers aid the agency in reaching its goals, and interpersonal skills. The four criteria rated of highest importance by the evaluators were, in descending order: the ability to manage own time, interpersonal skills, the degree to which volunteers aid the agency in reaching its goals, and oral communications.

The four criteria which received the lowest ratings from the directors, starting with the lowest rank and moving up, were: budget making, length of service of volunteers, the number of volunteer hours contributed, and, equally ranked, the total number of volunteers and the number of new volunteers. The four lowest ranked criteria by the evaluators, starting with the lowest ranked and moving up, were: length of service of volunteers, budget making ability, the numbers of hours of volunteer service, and the number of volunteers involved in the program.

CONCLUSIONS

From this study one can reach the conclusion that directors of volunteers in these agencies are evaluated on management criteria. Directors of volunteers and the people who evaluate them see the director as needing management skills and characteristics. If this existing perception is to be translated into acceptance among other managers and into the salaries and promotability which can be expected to accompany recognized management ability, directors of volunteers must concentrate on perceiving themselves and projecting themselves as managers. Unless Milwaukee is a unique situation, and that seems unlikely, directors of volunteers do not need to fight for proper evaluation; that is being done. However, AVA and other organizations of directors of volunteers as well as individual directors of volunteers should work to strengthen the management aspects of their positions.

Job descriptions for the director of volunteers should follow the same format and wording of other management level positions. Likewise, the recruitment and interviewing of directors of volunteers should be consistent with the process for other management positions. For instance, the placement and wording of a newspaper advertisement should be representative of the management skills required. We have all seen ads that say the only qualification is "ability to work with people." Organizations representing directors of volunteers should watch for such ads and protest to the employers. These organizations should also discourage people who lack management skills from claiming to be part of the profession. Funders should be alerted that "director of volunteers" is not a position for which the agency should be seeking funds to train an employee unless they treat other management and/or professional level positions the same way.

The individual self-development of directors of volunteers should not take place solely in the company of other directors of volunteers. The directors ought to seek out exposure to other managers and to the general body of knowledge about management. Membership ought not to be solely in organizations for directors of volunteers but ought to be also in the organizations in which other managers participate.

Directors of volunteers should perceive of themselves as managers and showcase the similarities in jobs and skills of their positions with other management positions. Those functions commonly performed by managers which are not always required of directors of volunteers should be developed. These might include budget making and other financial skills.

A final comment is the obvious. If directors of volunteers are evaluated most heavily on interpersonal skills, time management and the ability to develop volunteer resources which aid the organization in reaching its goals, then the competent director of volunteers will consistently demonstrate a high degree of competence and increasing sophistication in these areas. Those criteria which the directors of volunteers see as most important should serve as a springboard to the further development of standards for the profession. Those criteria which evaluators see as most important should be utilized as ways of demonstrating to executive management the valid management skills and knowledge which competent directors of volunteers possess.

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Community Group Leadership

Mele Koneya, PhD

Almost all that we know about leadership and group behaviors has been discovered in those formal organizations which occur in industrial, governmental and military settings. In organizations such as these, performance from an individual is encouraged and sometimes demanded through established systems of reward and punishment based on the intrinsic power the organization wields. In industry, government or any other formal organization in whichindividualsareonapayrollandcan quit whenever they want, demotion, transfer, pay cuts, or threats of dismissal are the favorite instruments of coercion and compliance. Conversely, promotions, pay raises, bonuses, and time off are the elements of reward which inspire workers to increase their productiveness. In the military setting, where people have been conscripted or have enlisted for fixed periods of time, failure to obey orders can result in a variety of sanctions ranging from the loss of rank to dishonorable discharge from the service, to imprisonment, and to execution in time of war. Promotions, medals, and weekend passes comprise part of the military reward system.

Applying leadership and group process principles which have been developed in formal organizations to informal and voluntary community-based organizations poses some problems. Getting compliance with a leader's and group's wishes from a person who is not paid or otherwise compelled to remain a member of the voluntary organization is no easy job. Without the formal organization's bag of substantial punishment and rewards, leaders of neighborhood and other community-based organizations need to be far more sensitive and tactful in the application of leadership principles than do their industrial, governmental, and military counterparts.

With this discussion in mind, let's look at some basic leadership and group process principles and apply them to community-based organizations.

BALANCE OF POWER BETWEEN GROUP AND LEADER

As our starting point, it is necessary to highlight the various ways leadership of groups and organizations can be expressed. Figure 1, "Continuum of Leadership Behavior,"[1] depicts the balance of power that can exist between a designated leader and members of a group or organization. The numbers along the base of the figure refer to positions of the leader in relation to the group or organization.

Position #1: At this position on the chart, the leader is extremely authoritarian. A political scientist

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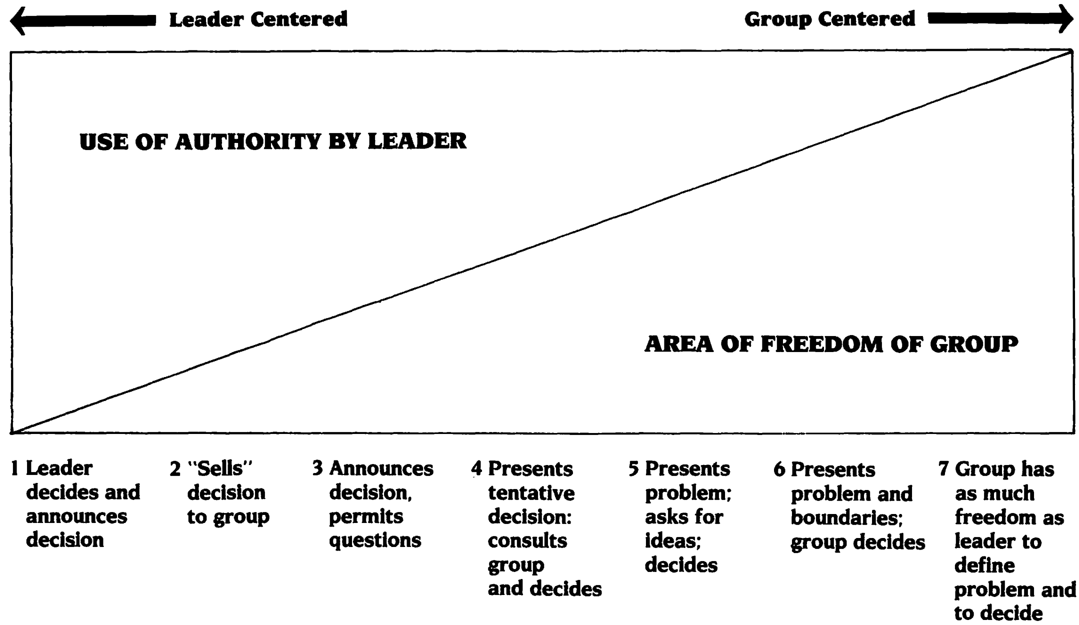
Figure 1: Continuum of Leader Behavior



would call this position fascist or totalitarian. The leader behaves as if the group doesn't exist and unilaterally makes decisions which are proclaimed in bulletins or memoranda.

Position #2: This position is only slightly less authoritarian; the leader acknowledges that there is a group and is sensitive enough to want to "sell" the group on the worthiness of the decision. The group's role is one of passive acceptance with no input to the decision making process whatsoever.

Position #3: In this one, the leader involves the group at least to the extent of allowing for questions. The questions usually do not affect the decision but enable the group to understand and presumably accept the decision which has been made for them.

Position #4: This middle position represents somewhat of a sharing by the leader with the group in decision making. By presenting a tentative decision, the leader implies room for change based on consultation with the group. Bear in mind that the group has had no say thus far in defining the problem or even acknowledging whether or not there is a problem.

Position #5: Here is where the group begins to assert itself in the decision making process. The group still does not define the problem but is able to provide ideas which determine the decision made by the leader.

Position #6: Now the power to decide is in the hands of the group members with the leader presenting the problem and its boundaries.

Position #7: This position, which is most opposite the fascist position at the extreme left of the diagram (#1) and most like the concept of utopian democracy, makes the leader basically undifferentiated from the group.

Why have a leader at all in position number seven? That is a question whose answer depends on the distinction between "leader" and "leadership" as concepts. We will deal with that distinction shortly.

THE CONCEPT OF APPROPRIATE LEADERSHIP STYLE

Though the foregoing discussion has mentioned "positions" which have been numbered in sequence, it is not proper to view the various proportions of leader/group influence in decision-making as dynamic phases of development. Some leaders and groups start and finish their lives in the same position. But the phases could represent evolutionary development in a situation where a leader "gets the ball rolling" via highly authoritarian actions and then gradually relinquishes powers as the group matures.

While a dictatorial leadership style can quickly dissolve a grassroots, voluntary, community-based organization, a leader who is willing to take full command when necessary is essential to the group's survival. What is most important to remember is the concept of <u>appropriate leadership</u>. When a building catches on fire and we are in it, we want some forceful and knowledgeable persons to lead or, if necessary, push us safely out of the building. To call a committee meeting and go around the table for ideas as the smoke billows and the flames dance would be very silly. So, appropriate leadership is that which is proportionate to the urgency, importance, and life threat of the situation. Most matters that community-based organizations deal with are not emergencies and can be given the time to enable group input to the solution in a cool, deliberative manner. But every so often in the life of a community-based organization, there will be an emergency that threatens the life of the group and a leader will be needed who faces that emergency without the luxury of consulting the group. This is a fact of political life, too. While we elect leaders of this country democratically, we allow that there might be a need in times of flood, fire, war, or other disasters to declare martial law and to suspend individual rights until the emergency has passed. We trust our leaders to restore our rights when normal times return.

It is also important to keep in mind the fact that even the best leader is not effective in his or her actions all the time. It is best to regard a leader as you would a good hitter in baseball. There is no hitter who gets a hit one hundred percent of the time at bat. In fact, getting a hit one out of four times at bat is good, while one out of three is outstanding and two out of five is stupendous. There are many more strike outs than there are home runs in a good hitter's overall performance. A good leader, then, is a person with a good "batting average" who does not expect to hit a "home run" each time at bat, who relies on the rest of the "batting order" (the group) for run production, who may be only the "clean up hitter" in an outstanding line-up and who, consequently, does not burn out prematurely.

LEADER AND LEADERSHIP

As was promised earlier in this discussion, we need to make an important distinction between two terms that have been used very generously thus far: leader and leadership. The term "leader" usually refers to a person who has a designated title or rank but, as we use it here, it refers to anyone who exerts influence on the behavior of others at any given moment in time. While we easily think of chairpersons, presidents, captains, etc. as "leaders" because of their titles, we often have difficulty regarding the untitled and unranked lowly group member as a leader. But, strictly speaking, each group member is a leader when he or she influences the behavior of the group. To cite an extreme example, if a group member who has not said anything all meeting long suddenly faints and falls to the floor causing several other members to come to his or her aid, that swooning group member has influenced group behavior and is technically the leader of the moment. That may seem a bit absurd, but the underlying point is that exercise of influence--whether active or passive, positive or negative, and not merely a fancy title--is what really makes a person a leader.

What a leader does to influence a group is called "leadership." Leadership is a dynamic process and not a commodity that belongs only to a person with a designated rank or title. In a democratic group atmosphere, leadership is free floating and can be expressed by any member of the group. Hence we speak of "leader-centered" leadership and "group-centered" leadership to contrast the two extremes and the in-between stages depicted in Figure 1, and to acknowledge the separateness of the terms, leader and leadership. The paramount lesson here is that a leader can give up leadership and still retain the honor and prestige of his or her rank. Those leaders who do not understand this and try to do it all overwork themselves and alienate members who would like to share in the influence of group actions.

SOURCES OF POWER FOR THE INDIVIDUAL AND GROUP

Incidentally, the word "influence" represents a soft way of saying "power;" the two words can be used interchangeably. The quest for power is the basic energizer behind the establishment of grassroots community-based organizations. These organizations empower themselves in order to deal effectively with local governments and other forces in their political surroundings. However, power is also an ingredient within the community-based organization itself. The six kinds of power available to leaders and groups have been identified[2] and are listed as follows:

REWARD POWER: Where a person or group uses valuable things (money, goods, services or psychological supports) to get responses from others. Power is good as long as the "goodies" last. Ironically, concrete and expendable rewards such as money and goods are apt to be less durable because of their limited supply than nonmaterial rewards such as love, esteem, and recognition which are unlimited in supply. Mark Twain once said that he could live on nothing more than a good compliment for two whole weeks.

COERCIVE POWER: Where actual punishment or a threat is used to influence others. Gangsters and totalitarians wield this type of power routinely. Democratic leadership uses it only in emergency situations such as national defense and public safety. In the Army, there are some sergeants who say: "We can't make you do it, but we can make you wish you had." This kind of power need not be brutal or physically painful to be effective; it can be nothing more than the threat of public exposure and ridicule. But, "when the cat is away, the mice will play," which means that coercive power needs to be applied continuously to be lasting. Very often, the resentment of oppressed citizens builds up and eventually explodes into violent overthrow of coercive leadership.

LEGAL OR LEGITIMATE POWER: Elected persons and legally-designated persons have this power. The leader's action is sanctified by law or by an election process. "No taxation without representation" was a slogan which questioned the legitimacy of a legal government which made laws without recourse to citizens' input through representatives. Legal is not the same as legitimate. It is possible for a leader to be legally chosen by a minority of the group's membership. That leader would then be subject to challenges to his or her legitimacy or right to represent *people who did not vote for him or her. It is possible for a leader to lose legitimacy as he or she moves away, in actions and thought, from the majority which elected him or her. (Haven't you known presidents like that?)*

REFERRENT OR CHARISMA POWER: Some people are well-liked and respected because of intrinsic aspects of their personalities. Other people do things for them because they love or respect them for who they are more than for what they are. Because people with charisma are loved and respected right off, they can get other people to do things for them.

EXPERT POWER: When a person has a talent or skill that he or she shares. Probably a permanent source since talents and skills last as long as the health and vitality of the individual. However, the need for specific talents and skills may fade through time. A person who can shoe a horse, though admired, is no longer valuable where there are no horses.

INFORMATIONAL POWER:Where a person has knowledge, facts, data, and thinking ability of use to others. Lasts as long as the information does. Person or groups with this kind of power must keep informed.

The foregoing list indicates that some power sources are in limitless supply and are quite economical. Leaders of informal organizations need first to inventory the sources of power they have and then to use these sources to sustain the voluntary involvement of members.

WHY PEOPLE JOIN GROUPS

The word "involvement" in the preceding sentence brings up the question as to why people join groups and organizations. One researcher[3] offers a plausible explanation of the needs people want satisfied through group membership. According to him, people expect to satisfy any of three kinds of needs in the group setting. These needs are <u>affection</u>, <u>control</u>, and <u>inclusion</u>. Each need has two dimensions: expressed (toward others) and wanted (from others). The needs and their dimensions are shown in Table 1.

Each person has his or her own unique proportion of these needs. Some may have very strong control needs in the "expressed toward others" dimension and could be expected to try to take over a group. Others may have strong inclusion needs in the "wanted from others" dimension and may feel terribly spurned if they are left out of group activities. Still others may have strong affection needs, desiring to cherish and be close to others.

<u>TABLE 1</u>

	INCLUSION	CONTROL	AFFECTION
Expressed (toward others)	I join other people and I include others.	I take charge; I influence people.	I get close to people.
Wanted (from others)	I want other people to include me.	I want people to lead me.	I want people to get close and personal with me.

Community group leaders should expect to find all of these needs in any random grouping of citizens. They should develop programs and plan meetings which satisfy these needs in positive ways. People with strong control needs make good leaders and good followers of directions, depending on the dimensions of their needs. Those with strong inclusion needs are good joiners or good at getting others to join, depending on the dimension. Finally, there is always room for genuine human affection in any organization. A community-based organization, by virtue of its very mission, enables people to cherish, to be personal with, and to get close to one another.

PHASES OF GROUP DEVELOPMENT

The phases of development which a group or organization passes through on its way to maturity and functional effectiveness can also be described in reference to inclusion, control, and affection needs.

Inclusion needs tend to predominate the initial phase of group development. When people come together to that first organizational meeting in the community, they are expressing their needs to be included and to include others. It is very important that the very first meeting enable each person to be a part of the group by getting his or her "two-cents worth" into the discussion. An interim leader facilitating the first meetings of community-based groups must take pains to acknowledge the presence and value of all who attend.

The next phase of group development is typically dominated by power struggles among those who have strong control needs. Those who want to lead others and those who want to be led by this or that person come into conflict in this phase. Having several leadership functions (i.e., the officers and committee chairpersons) available to the membership helps provide outlets for those with strong control needs. Remembering, too, that leadership is not the sole property of the designated leader results in membership sharing in decision-making, thus mitigating the severity of power struggles.

After the group has made everyone feel included and has resolved the power struggle conflicts, it is ready to deal with the affection needs which individuals have. Group members become aware of each other as sentimental beings and not just as fillers of organizational roles. They genuinely miss members who skip a meeting, and they become concerned with the mental and physical health of each other. Community-based organization leadership should allow time at formal meetings for informal socializing and might even schedule social events with no business agenda for the sole purpose of having fun and enjoying one another as real people.

Though a successful group satisfies the membership needs which dominate each of the three developmental phases, the needs never completely disappear. In mature groups, the needs remain in roughly equal proportions with no one of them ever dominating the group atmosphere. Sometimes a sudden influx of new members might bring the group back to the inclusion phase and might necessitate going through the control and affection phases again.

Another way of identifying the phases groups pass through has been cleverly provided by one researcher[4] who calls the phases "Forming," "Storming," "Norming" and "Performing." These phases parallel the previously discussed inclusion, control, and affection phases.

FORMING: The group gets together, agrees there is a need for an organization.

STORMING: Power struggles erupt and prevail. The officers and committee chairpersons who will direct the organization precipitate from these struggles.

NORMING: The group decides

what behavior is appropriate to a "good" member, what values should guide the group as a whole.

PERFORMING: The group is ready to deal with issues and problems and to take actions on matters which brought the organization into being.

Knowing that all groups go through phases of development should provide some comfort to community leaders who may be easily discouraged by the first meeting of the group where it looks like a disaster is the only possible outcome. A group is a living, organic entity. The fact that the words "organism" and "organization" have the same root is no mere coincidence. As a living thing, a group or organization ripens, matures. Community leaders must exercise patience while the group occupies any given phase of development. Impatience might frustrate development and fixate a group at an immature phase or destroy it completely. Different groups will spend different amounts of time in the various phases depending on the personality mix which the group comprises. Eventually, however, all groups can be expected to reach the mature "performing" phase of groupness.

SEATING ARRANGEMENT AND GROUP GROWTH

Despite a sincere desire on the part of community group leaders to share leadership and to attend to the inclusion, control, and affection needs of group members, there are some physical circumstances which thwart these desires. For example, the seating arrangement chosen by a group leader can determine who leads, who talks, and who feels included or excluded. Recently much has been discovered about the effects seating arrangements have on leadership and participation.[5] Figures 2 and 3 show two opposite seating arrangements. The circular arrangement facilitates inclusion and shared leadership. People tend to talk across the circle, and this can determine who talks to whom, but the circle symbolizes equality and unity.

Row-and-column or theater style seating depicted in Figure 3 keeps group members apart, establishes a single leadership position (up front) and may leave many group members in the back rows and sides feeling left out. People sitting in the front and middle tend to talk most to the leader and thereby tend also to dominate the discussion and decision making of the group.

Community group leaders should provide seating arrangements where group members are facing inward. It may be necessary to have a circle within a circle within a circle, and so forth to accommodate a large number of people. Rows of seats arranged into rectangles facing inward are another way to satisfy inclusion needs and to share leadership or influence over the group's deliberations.

It is also appropriate to break a large group into "buzz groups" and "huddle groups" during a meeting to help generate feedback in the nature of questions and comments. A "buzz group" is nothing more than two people who are already seated alongside each other being allowed to talk about what they have heard at the meeting thus far. A "huddle group" is formed simply by asking anywhere from three to six people sitting near each other to meet as a small group for a while to discuss what they have heard thus far. Out of this conversation in the "buzz group" or discussion in the "huddle group" might come a brilliant question or comment that has already been "field tested" by at least one other listener. One of the conversational partners or group members might now have the courage to put his or her question or comment to the group at large. These techniques are discussed fully in a lively book on group dynamics and leadership.[6]

Figure 2: "Steinzor" Effect

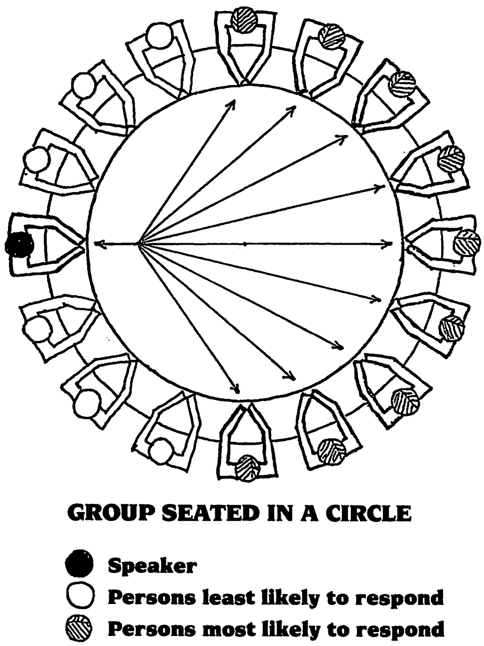
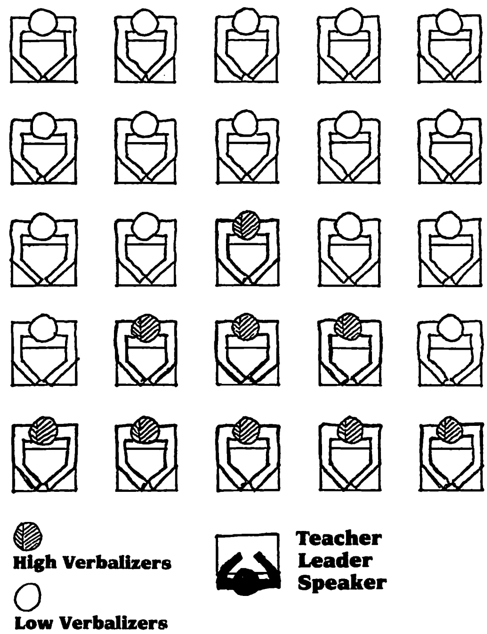


Figure 3: Row and Column, Classroom, "Theater-Style" Seating



SUMMARY

In summary, this discussion has merely scratched the surface of the knowledge and skills that are needed by community group leaders. Leading voluntary groups is much more difficult than leading paid groups, but the nobleness of the former is greater than that of the latter, if that is any consolation. Strong leadership; anticipating and satisfying group needs for inclusion, control, and affection; using available sources of power; and choosing physical settings that make for "groupness" and shared decision making are essential aspects of successful grassroots community leadership. The would-be community group leader must not merely ape his or her industrial and governmental counterparts, but must apply the leadership and group process principles developed there in ways that serve the unique setting of the voluntary, grassroots organization.

FOOTNOTES

[1] *Tannenbaum, Robert and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to Choose a Leadership Pattern," The Harvard Business Review, 36:2, March-April, 1958.*

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An Exploration of the Use of Past Presidents Within Volunteer Organizations and Professional Societies

Dorothy H. Blanchard

The new president receives the gavel signifying the transfer of power and authority. The past president walks away to face a new challenge. Is there a challenge? Will the result of time and resources expended on the president be further utilized by the organization? What role is appropriate for past presidents? A review of available literature in the fields of behavioral science and volunteerism has failed to reveal any specific information on this subject. Conversations with leaders of national organizations also indicate that the utilization and expertise of past presidents of organizations is a neglected area of research.

RESEARCH METHOD

To collect data for this study a questionnaire was developed to solicit information from persons involved in volunteer administration concerning the use of skills and expertise of past presidents within specific organizations. The survey instrument sought to identify other areas of endeavor in which past presidents might participate, specific placement procedures whereby past presidents automatically assume a specific role, if a vehicle should be in place for the continued utilization of the volunteer president, and the positive and negative aspects of continued leadership of past presidents within an organization.

The information which follows is the result of sending questionnaires to 26 people from New York to Kentucky and throughout Virginia. Six presidents from the Virginia Association of Hospital Auxiliaries (VAHA), American Association of University Women (AAUW), and the Society of Logistic Engineers (SOLE) were interviewed to collect information concerning their position and long range planning for their own skills development within their organization. Interviews were conducted with fourteen past presidents representing Girl Scouts of the USA (GSUSA), VAHA, League of Women Voters, Rotary International, Virginia Community Development Society, American Red Cross, SOLE, and Junior Women's Club. They were able to address the questions from the standpoint of their most recent involvement with their specific organization. Operational attitudes were obtained through interviews with six salaried executives of GSUSA and the Maryland Commission for Women, and Directors of Community Services and Volunteers at nearby hospitals. Four of these respondents were also able to relate to the questions as past presidents.

UTILIZATION OF PAST PRESIDENTS

The survey indicated two major positions regarding utilization of past presidents. First, some organizations have a specific placement procedure for past presidents. The bylaws state that the past president is to serve on

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the board: as an advisor, either with or without vote; from one year, until the next president is elected; or indefinitely. Interviews revealed that three boards each consist of 23 members-at-large plus officers, including president, one to four vice-presidents, a secretary, and a treasurer. One board has thirteen past presidents with full voting power; the other two have five and four non-voting past presidents sitting on their boards. Another organization automatically nominates the past president as a member of the nominating committee. Six organizations retain the past president on the board as an advisor, either with or without vote. In the other organizations the bylaws do not assign the past president to a specific office, committee, or task.

Second, in some of the organizations, the past presidents are not encouraged by the structure to continue serving the organization. It is assumed that if the past president desires to continue to serve the organization, he/she will seek out an area of special interest and inform the appropriate person. Some past presidents prefer to slow down and return to one of the seemingly less stressful roles they enjoyed within the organization before assuming the presidency. They may be heard to say, "now it's someone else's turn."

APPROPRIATE ROLES FOR PAST PRESIDENTS

The survey respondents had several opinions about the roles of past presidents. A small percentage believe that there should be no role at all. Some past presidents do not want to lead anymore. They really want time to relax. Not infrequently, some past presidents suffer from "burn out." They have given almost all of their time and attention to the organization. The more demanding it became on their time, the more they gave, until the election of the new president. It was like running a race, giving the last spurt of energy, passing the finish line, collapsing and saying, "no more." In this case, an organization may retain that person by refraining from interrupting their chosen exile.

Several reasons were given for not retaining the past president as a member of the board. One was that the past president really wasn't that good. A not-so-good president advising a new president would prove harmful to the organization. Another reason for not returning the past president to the board is that it often discourages new membership development. Some new presidents take time to develop and may produce very little for the first six months, but during the subsequent period of time may achieve a great deal. It is sometimes difficult for new people to break into the inner circle, which may deny growth to the organization. Additionally, a domineering past president could stifle the creativity of the new president. Some people have difficulty divorcing themselves from former roles as key decision makers. If the past president automatically continues to serve on the board without a time lapse, sometimes new ideas and personalities are unable to emerge and changing direction may not be possible. So it seems most appropriate for a past president to be available to answer questions and to be invited to a board meeting for a specific purpose.

One past president role which the respondents felt strongly about was providing support within the organization. They indicated a number of ways that this could be done. Most past presidents are able to give continuity to long range plans, are usually well trained, and know how and when to use their knowledge. They have come up through the system, know the organization, its policies and procedures, history, past problems, and successes. They can clearly articulate its direction and offer other members strength and support. They provide broader perspectives and can bring distance and objectivity to view situations. They are concerned about the organization and can help to implement its dreams.

Some past presidents act as a resource not only to the president, but to many of the committees and task forces. Since they understand the organization so well, they find satisfaction in being involved as informal leaders and counselors to committee chairpeople responsible for fund development or public relations, working on newsletters, acting as liaison with the community, being a training consultant or member of a speakers' bureau, serving on special task forces, doing long range planning and future development, acting as a parliamentarian for an annual meeting, and assuming a senior spokesperson role.

A few respondents suggested that there be a council of past presidents or ambassadors who would serve as an advisory committee and could speak for organizations and impact the community and the voluntary sector. They would be an elite, knowledgeable group who would be able to study the tough problems that the organization faces. Acting as a senior statesperson by being involved in the organization allows past presidents to pursue what they can do best. Another role which utilizes special skills is that of being talent scouts for specific organizational needs. Past presidents can be valuable resources within their community by helping to plan and develop coordinated efforts through their contacts with people and other organizations.

Appropriate roles for past presidents would also be to serve on district, state, and national committees as internal relations area representatives, serving on resolutions committees, working with legislative committees, chairing state conventions, and being a trainer in their area of special interest. The presidency has been a training ground.

CONCLUSIONS

There are different practices for utilization of past presidents in various organizations. Some groups have no form of guidance for past presidents. This easily leads to confusion and a loss of talent to the organization. Many respondents felt that an effective volunteer would seek out some way to use his/her expertise, not necessarily within the organization where volunteer administration was learned. Other groups have a predetermined slot for past presidents. This could jeopardize the development of other volunteers and stagnate the organization as well as the past president. Preparing and training the president for a position after the presidency by continuing the developmental process of the volunteer appears to be necessary even as a president examines the options of what happens when the power of the office is transferred. The lack of literature on this subject indicates that nothing is being done to actively recruit and utilize past presidents nor to document the roles they have assumed. Based on available sources, supported by these interviews, the expertise of past presidents is not being fully utilized. This represents an untapped source of volunteer leadership ability.

These research findings are preliminary in nature due to the limited size of the data base. However, these findings are considered to be significant in view of the few literature resources in this area. Thus, one obvious recommendation is that further research should be conducted on this subject.

The following are some questions that need to be addressed. What are the positive and negative implications of continuing participation of past presidents on boards? Should the board structure be such that there is a president-elect? Should the first, second, and third vice-presidents assume that they will be successive presidents? If so, does that inhibit the future growth of the organization or provide a long-range planning network to function more effectively? A circle of influence may prohibit more volunteer input, at the same time a need for continuity in long range plans exists as well. How can organizations alert volunteers to keep records of their management performance in the event that they need this information for a job resume? These are just a few of the questions that should be addressed in the field of volunteer development.

OPTIONS

There are four options which past presidents or organizations that are interested in the long range plan of volunteer development might consider. These options have implications for organizations and for their respective past presidents, but each organization will decide the future of the individual depending on its unique structure. Various past presidents have different goals and so each person will also select the option most comfortable to her or him.

Option I: Reduced Level of Participation

A. Past president's choices:

1. Participate in an exit interview between president and organization's executives.

2. Think about returning to a more active role in the organization after a breather.

3. Consider ways to utilize special leadership skills.

4. Avoid taking a volunteer position just because of having been asked.

5. Avoid taking a position where special skills are underutilized.

B. Implications for the organization:

1. Recognize that the past president may wish to temporarily reduce level of participation within the organization.

2. At least twice a year follow up to insure that the past president does not become lost or alienated from the mainstream of the organization.

Option II: Work Actively Within the Organization

A. Past president's choices:

1. Have an exit interview with new president and executive of organization.

2. Consider making maximum use of skills by serving in various other leadership roles within the organization.

3. Continue personal growth and productivity.

4. Use expertise to be a spokesperson and visable advocate for the organization.

B. Implications for the organization:

1. Avoid keeping the past president in roles that prevent the organization from growing.

2. Avoid incestuousness and inhibiting of new members by continued recycling of past president and board members (not letting in new ideas).

Option III: Aspire to More Leadership Development on District, State, and National Levels

A. Past president's choices:

1. Develop more leadership skills on district, state, and national levels.

2. Keep abreast of issues, trends, program ideas, and human and material resources through participation in peer networks involving other voluntary organizations.

3. Expand participation outside the local organization by accepting invitations to participate on higher levels within the organization, in order to continue the learning process plus gaining peers' recognition.

4. Avoid getting discouraged if

talents aren't recognized by organization.

B. Implication for the organization: Avoid passing over opportunities to nominate people who should be considered for higher level leadership within the organization.

Option IV: Consider Paid Employment

A. Past president's choices:

1. Learn how to identify employable skills acquired through volunteer experiences and incorporate them into a resume.

2. Use paid employees within organization to write recommendations.

3. Use organization to test out skills appropriate for paid employment opportunities.

4. Avoid under-selling skills acquired through volunteer work.

5. Avoid regarding volunteer experience as inferior to paid experience.

6. Encourage organization to support certified volunteer units (CVUs) or other formalized learning criteria recognized by higher education or by employers.

B. Implication for the organization: Respond to the issues above.

The volunteer who has been a president is a valuable resource. Care must be taken by an organization to nurture this dedicated person.

Utilization of Volunteer Family Advocates in the Emergency Care Unit Waiting Room

Jacqueline Crocetti, RN, MSN

Providing physical, emotional, and psychosocial care for family members who must wait in Emergency Care Unit waiting rooms has been a formidable challenge for hospital administrators and professional staff. A busy Emergency Unit means a busy family waiting room: a wife seeking direction to the admissions office; a family of children needing activities to keep them occupied while their brother receives stitches; an anxious husband needing someone to talk to while awaiting the report on his wife's condition.

In response to this concern, St. Luke's Hospital of Bethlehem, PA has sought the assistance of trained volunteers to help the nursing and medical staffs meet the needs of families who must wait during emergencies.

The idea of providing care for families in the Emergency Care Unit (ECU) waiting room was initiated by the Ladies' Aid Society--an existing volunteer group at the hospital. Since other hospitals were already utilizing volunteers to assist families waiting in operating room areas, it was felt that this concept could be extended to the ECU room (Moran and Sutter, 1979).

DEFINING THE ROLE

The role of the volunteer in the Emergency Care Unit waiting room evolved as a Family Advocate. The role of the Family Advocate was jointly planned with input from Nursing Administration, Nursing Inservice Education and the Ladies' Aid Society. Input from the Director of Nursing, the ECU Head Nurse and Supervisor, and the central instructor from Inservice Education, as well as from the officers of the volunteer group helped to establish the purpose and objectives of the program. This cooperative effort also defined ground rules such as the limitation of the Family Advocate role and the hours when the volunteers would work.

The purpose of the Family Advocate volunteer was established in order to assist families experiencing the acute crisis of injury or illness and possible hospitalization of a family member. The planners of the Family Advocate program identified four main reasons where volunteer assistance would be utilized in the waiting room:

1. act as a liaison between professional staff and the patient's family;

2. provide a readily available listener for the patient's family to talk to and listen to their concerns;

3. entertain children; and

4. act as a liaison between the community and hospital by educating families regarding hospital routines and policies.

In addition, it was hoped that the

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Family Advocates would serve as "good will ambassadors"--a link between the community and the hospital emergency unit which is often misunderstood in it's attempts to provide efficient, quality care. Oftentimes, the need to serve the most seriously ill patient is obvious to the staff in the ECU, but is not always obvious to the less seriously ill patients and their families. Hospital administration identified the need for such community awareness, and hoped that the Family Advocate Volunteers could assist the hospital with this task.

TRAINING

The basic orientation to the new Family Advocate role was planned and coordinated by Nursing Inservice Education, since the volunteers would be working on a Nursing Unit. Objectives of the orientation were to provide the volunteers with the ability to:

1. demonstrate effective communication skills with adults as well as with children;
2. offer brief explanations of the ECU's admission procedure to the patient's family;
3. act as a listener for the patient's family;
4. assist the patient's family during the acute crisis of hospitalization by creating a comfortable, therapeutic climate; and
5. assist family members experiencing grief and loss.

The central instructor from inservice coordinated the ten-hour course which was planned as five afternoon sessions. In order to prepare the volunteers for the role of a Family Advocate, classes were presented on effective communication, hospital policies, and the role of the professional staff in triage nursing. Additional information that the volunteers received included: a basic knowledge of ECU procedures such as the admission, transfer, or discharge of a patient; patient education materials; infection control measures; risk management guidelines; knowledge of the grieving process and its application to family members in the ECU waiting room. Information regarding special emergency admission procedures including the abused child, the rape victim, the patient in labor, and the patient with multiple trauma were reviewed by the central instructor as well as hospital staff guest speakers. Selected readings and tours of the ECU and hospital rounded out the orientation.

Throughout orientation, the role of the Family Advocate and its limitations were defined; situations indicating the need for a nurse were explained; and the need for a chaplain to meet with bereaved parents, the need for security to handle a hostile visitor, or the need for police to meet with an assault victim were stressed. Volunteers were instructed to seek assistance from the Nursing staff whenever necessary. When reporting on and off duty or when needing assistance, the volunteer was responsible to the Head Nurse or Charge Nurse of the unit.

Two groups of volunteers completed the planned orientation. There were twenty volunteers in the first orientation group and thirteen volunteers in an added, second orientation group. In addition to the didactic portion of orientation, the second group of volunteers received on-the-job training with the more experienced volunteers. Volunteers selected to participate in the initial orientation classes had all had previous volunteer experiences in the hospital.

SCHEDULE AND ACTIVITIES

Upon completion of the orientation, and after consideration by the ECU Head Nurse, the hours that the volunteers would work were selected from 11:00 a.m. to 2:00 p.m., and from 4:00 p.m. to 7:00 p.m. These times seemed to be most busy with incoming patients. The volunteers would then also be available to help supplement the staff through dinner and supper hours.

Volunteers were allowed either to select a partner with whom to work or to volunteer alone. All volunteers were required to give at least six hours of service per month, in order to maintain skills and to be sure that the established hours were staffed.

The ECU waiting room at St. Luke's Hospital is separate, yet close to the patient triage and treatment areas. Since beginning the volunteer program, the Ladies' Aid Society has established a reception desk in the waiting room. Communication is made possible with the nursing and medical staffs by means of an inter-hospital phone—an important link from the patient treatment area to the family waiting area. Volunteers are encouraged to call the treatment area so that they may keep waiting families updated on their patient's status, treatment regimen, or the possibility of being able to see the patient.

The ECU waiting room is quite a new place since the advent of Family Advocate volunteers: children are read to while waiting for a sibling to receive treatment; directions on how to get about the hospital are provided for family members who must admit a family member; change is available for an important phone call or cup of coffee; and a few comforting words are offered to the spouse who must await test results--all vital services, yet difficult for busy nursing and medical staffs to provide. In addition, volunteers have added carpeting, wall hangings, children's furniture, games, books, and magazines to the waiting area, making the room more home-like and comfortable.

EVALUATION AND FUTURE PLANS

Approximately one and a half years after the original orientation classes were held, a survey was distributed to the volunteers. Statistics were compiled to evaluate such aspects of the program as the volunteers' response to their new role, the functions of the Family Advocate volunteer, suggestions for future orientation classes, as well as opinions regarding the continuation of the program.

When tabulated, over thirteen hundred volunteer hours had been served in the ECU waiting room during the eighteen-month period. Volunteers cited listening to family members and helping to entertain children as the most frequently provided services given to families. Among the many rewarding aspects of being a Family Advocate, helping to comfort another person topped the list.

At the present time, supported by hospital and nursing administration, an additional orientation class is being considered. Several changes are being planned based on the family Advocate survey as well as on the changing needs in the ECU, all in the hope of providing quality care for families who must wait. These changes include:

Concentrating orientation into 1 or 2 days. Offering the course over 5 days caused some difficulties for volunteers who did not want to miss a class but who had made a previous commitment for one of the orientation afternoons.

Accepting volunteers from outside the hospital. Several colleges are located in the same city as the hospital; utilization of students is being considered. The nature of the existing Ladies' Aid Society is also changing, which would then allow men to serve as Family Advocates.

Expanding volunteer hours. The need to cover more hours is of concern to the patients, their families, and the hospital staff. It is hoped morning hours as well as change of shift hours (2:00 p.m. to 4:00 p.m.) might be added.

Scheduling of volunteers should be handled by the Director of Volunteers. With an initially small group of Family Advocate volunteers, scheduling was handled by two of the volunteers. However, as more volunteers begin to work, the scheduling has become more complex. The Director of Volunteers is someone who is at the hospital on a daily basis, and would be available to assist with: 1) master schedules; 2) scheduling changes; and 3) recruiting of new Family Advocate volunteers.

Expanding volunteer responsibilities. Due to the "feast or famine" nature of many ECU's, several volunteers responded in the survey that they would like to have additional responsibilities when few family members are in the waiting room. These activities may include helping the unit clerk with such things as putting together admission packets.

Utilizing an information tool to be used between hospital and nursing staffs and the volunteers. This could include monthly meetings to keep all persons involved and updated on new policies, procedures, changes in volunteer hours, or job responsibilities.

There are clearly continued challenges ahead, but the Family Advocate program at St. Luke's is well worth the effort. Patient and staff needs are met while volunteers are challenged and appreciated.

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Self-Help Mutual Aid: An Idea Whose Time Has Come Again

Barrie Alan Peterson, MDiv & CAVS

The self-help movement is booming. Widespread attention is being given to it and there is much evidence that people are increasingly participating in mutual aid groups. Glen Evans in The Family Circle Guide to Self-Help suggests there are 500,000 local self-help groups in the country. A lot of positive attention is being given to the self-help movement in the media. Phil Donahue and other talk show hosts have frequent guests representing self-help groups and many advice columnists refer people to the groups.

The Summer 1981 issue of Voluntary Action Leadership contained a letter by Bruce Stokes of Worldwatch Institute who estimated that the value of services contributed by the self-help movement was nearly as much as the value of services contributed by traditional philanthropic volunteers. If this is so, then the shape of our profession of volunteer administration may undergo drastic change. As Ivan Scheier has cautioned, we cannot yet precisely define ourselves because the people have not all gathered. It is time to look at these self-help volunteers and develop ways volunteer administrators can connect.

This paper will examine the self-help movement, its connection to philanthropic volunteerism and examples of how volunteer administrators in various contexts might respond programatically.

DEFINING A SELF-HELP GROUP

The term "self-help mutual aid" is most accurate, since popular usage links "self-help" to self-improvement books and courses or implies solitary, self-aggrandizing behavior. Dr. Alfred Katz, Professor of Public Health at the UCLA Graduate School of Health, describes self-help groups as similar to any other small group: they are people who share personal problems. This sharing is the heart and soul of the group. Help occurs then and there in the group. Furthermore, a self-help group is composed of peers with common goals, with any professional role being minimal and advisory. The group, Katz observes, has shared power, being democratic and often informal. Officers and Robert's Rules are not usually important, there being "no forms and no fees."

Most groups are totally independent of agencies, while others have been started by them or by other professionals. The myth that an agency or professionally-provided service and a self-help group conflict dissolves when we learn that exten-

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sive interaction occurs, including referrals in both directions. The benefits provided complement each other.

A wide variety of structures is evident. Some groups meet weekly; others monthly. Groups will often start out meeting at a member's home but as they get larger (or if they want to appeal to the public) will meet in a house of worship or library, or any accessible and inexpensive place. The size of groups is another variable, ranging from four to over 100, with groups over twenty arranging opportunities for smaller discussion sessions. Groups may be a unique, local "home grown" gathering, cautious about publicity. On the other hand, some groups are part of a well-organized national association. To locate a group, one should locally contact one of the twenty or so self-help clearinghouses, a helpline, or an information and referral service.

EXAMPLES OF SELF-HELP GROUPS

The leading edge of the self-help movement is seen in the growth of three groups in New Jersey. Parents Anonymous (for parents who abuse or neglect their children) has grown since 1980 from under 10 chapters to nearly 30. Also since then, Narcotics Anonymous (another group borrowing from Alcoholics Anonymous, the grandparent of all self-help groups) has jumped from 5 to 35 groups. Finally, Tough Love (for parents with acting-out teens) increased from 3 groups in the State in early 1981 to nearly 20 by mid 1982. The N.J. Self-Help Clearinghouse has identified over 400 different groups in the state with some 3,000 local meetings.

The range of concerns these voluntary groups address is as broad as that of the agencies in which they serve. In the health area are found groups such as Mended Hearts, composed of people recuperating from heart surgery who meet to help each other adjust to their new lifestyles. There are numerous general disabilities support groups and special groups such as the Agent Orange Victims Association, which does advocacy work and conducts support groups of Vietnam vets who were exposed to this chemical and who now suffer Delayed Stress Syndrome.

The area of addiction has Overeater's Anonymous and Gambler's Anonymous and, of course, Alcoholics Anonymous which alone has thousands of meetings. Present as well are thousands of Al-Anon groups for the family of the alcoholic and Alateen groups for teens whose parents are alcoholic. In the mental health field, Recovery, Inc., founded in the thirties in Chicago, has over 1,000 chapters across the country for people with nervous symptoms. An upsurge of interest is being felt in starting mental patient support groups and family of the mentally ill groups as the process of deinstitutionalization continues. In the death and bereavement area there are many widow and widowers groups such as THEOS and, for parents who have lost a child, The Compassionate Friends.

In the parenting area, besides the examples already given, are numerous adoption and stepparenting groups. In the category of divorced and singles are found many religiously-affiliated support groups with rap sessions and recreational activities. Moreover, the NOW-related womens' support groups and the mens' groups deal with identity and relationship issues.

Finally, some groups do not fit into any neat category: Speak Easy, for those who stutter and need to practice proper speech and get positive feedback from a group; Little People of America, for short-statured people combating stigmatization; and economically-related groups such as tenants associations, food cooperatives and job clubs.

This overview has covered only a few examples of self-help groups. A clearer picture of the movement can come from discussing common characteristics of the groups.

SERVICES OF GROUPS

Most important of the many services offered by a self-help group is peer support to help people realize they aren't alone in struggling with a problem. Advocacy work is sometimes done to insist on member's rights, to try to improve local agency service, or to implement legislation. Third is education of members through speakers, publications and discussions on various topics at each meeting. Education of the public occurs via literature and public talks about the group's particular life situation focus, as well as presentations to professional bodies. The groups have a lot to volunteer in terms of what it feels like "to have gone through it" and this can be tapped for in-service staff development programs at agencies.

Groups often have a 24-hour phone network or a newsletter for communication between meetings. That this can serve as a vital link between theory and practice to enable people to carry out responsibilities for their treatment is seen in the following story. A leader of a Juvenile Diabetes group received a call early one morning from a new member who was panicked at giving his son the necessary insulin shot. This father had received training from the hospital staff on how to do it, but he froze. The group member, remembering her feelings when she began giving her own child injections, was able to calm him and talk him through it. This is service money can't buy!

Another form of help is that some medical, addiction, and bereavement groups will send visitors to help those who are currently going through the difficult experience. One such program will be described later and works through the volunteer department of a hospital.

BENEFITS OF GROUPS

What are the basic contributions of self-help groups? First, isolation is eased by speaking with others who have been there and can give reassurance. Second, the groups help reach the underserved--those who live too far away from a population center with its agencies or those who are resistant for whatever reason to professional services. Third, self-help groups can supplement diminishing agency services. The cuts are coming fast and furiously and self-help groups can be utilized by creative professionals to assist in many ways.

Fourth, groups help supply what the family once commonly provided. Dr. Leonard Borman, Director of the Self-Help Institute in Chicago, has pointed out that self-help is a positive response to the breakdown of traditional institutions: the extended (and now, the nuclear) family; the social glue once provided by religious and civic groups; and living in one place for years. The destruction of such natural helping networks has eliminated rites of passage, familiar role models and neighborliness, while commercial, mobile and mass values have increased. The consciously-created, problem-oriented self-help groups are efforts to make new families.

Another contribution of the groups is in taking problems out of the closet so they can be addressed. People are now saying: "I'm a person, I'm me and I'm proud of it. I have my rights and my responsibilities. I'm not going to be passively taken care of nor ignored. I have my problems but I also have strengths and together we can make it." Both an identity-pride and normalization process are evident.

Finally, groups offer opportunities for people who have gone through a difficulty, people who were aided successfully by an agency, to give something back by being role models for others. This is also related to the "helper principle." Alan Gartner, Co-director of the National Self-Help Clearinghouse, points out that the person who tutors often learns more than the student. Thus the veterans in a self-help group, by assisting the novices to the experience, also help themselves by gaining perspective on how far they've come and by building their self-esteem through assisting others.

Having surveyed the voluntary self-help field, let us turn to how volunteer administrators can work through a philosophic rationale and expand their activities to cooperate with these groups.

RELATING VOLUNTEERISM TO SELF-HELP

Volunteer administrators have always known of the "emotional paycheck" received by the volunteer and some recently have begun to market volunteer "opportunities," stressing the various benefits from volunteering. A few have begun work with "transitional volunteers" who are volunteering explicitly in order to aid in rehabilitation. Some are even confronted with court-referred "community service or restitution" volunteers. It is but another step to consider how to refer to, help start, advise and tap the energy and expertise of self-help groups.

There is a personal side for volunteer administrators to consider, too. Each person should think back to any direct experience with a self-help group. Building on one's own involvement with mutual help, or the involvement of a relative or friend, is just as valid a base of expertise as anything written in a book or article. The personal attraction to a group, how and why one became active, etc. can guide a director of volunteers in understanding how to form a self-help group around any concern.

SELF-HELP CAME BEFORE ORGANIZED VOLUNTEERISM

To conceptualize the self-help-volunteer relationship from a different angle, a brief review of the roots and development of both is in order. By The People--A History of Americans As Volunteers by Susan Ellis and Katherine Noyes, reviews the mutual aid patterns of the 18th and 19th centuries which led to the creation of our municipal services and private non-profit agencies. As these institutional responses to the problems of industrial life grew, professions emerged. Only within ethnic and labor groups did widespread self-help modes continue. Once Federal funds began flowing in earnest to social programs during the Depression, volunteerism began to be defined by our emerging profession (especially since World War II) as citizens helping agency professionals deliver services.

Now, however, we are at the end of the period of ever-expanding agencies with their volunteer components. Public support for institutional ways of solving problems has shrunk and we must look again at the self-help ways of doing things which had been our primary way of meeting human needs before, say, our Centennial.

The change in public policy is not simply due to Reaganomics but also is based on a realization of the limitations and even of the paternalism of some of our social service institutions. Christopher Lasch has written of this in The Culture of Narcissism.

In 1978, the President's Commission on Mental Health described self-help groups as an untapped resource and urged the creation of new self-help clearinghouses. The 1979 Surgeon General's Report echoed this and urged professionals to make more use of such groups. In a review of the seventies by The New York Times, the growth of the self-help movement was named as the most significant development in behavioral science during the decade. In Alvin Toffler's book, The Third Wave, he describes the new attitude favoring people participating--not simply receiving services or providing services--and he coins a new term for it: "prosumerism." This well describes the trend to become active in meeting one's own needs locally with other people who share a common situation or problem.

Even closer to home, Sam Brown, then Director of ACTION, made self-help the subject of his keynote speech at the 1979 AVA-AVB-AVAS National Conference on Volunteerism. It was later printed in Volunteer Administration as "Self Help: Building Communities of Competence" (Winter, 1979). He applauded the healthy development of self-help, called it a form of volunteerism and charged volunteer administrators to begin incorporating it in their work. The programs created in response to emergencies, to meet perceived human needs and in an effort to advance justice were needed, he said, and to a large degree helpful, but bit by bit the cumulative effect has been to strip away from individuals the sure sense that they have control or responsibility over their lives.

The self-help movement enables people to once again become active locally in solving their problems and this is the essence of volunteerism. A new balance between what individual citizens do and what the government should do is being struck by the self-help movement--a balance which transcends political or philosophical labels. There are already fewer agencies and professionals providing services so the survivors are searching for ways to make more efficient use of their time. Working with and through self-help groups is one avenue by which services might be continued.

On the other hand, simplistic rhetoric from Washington about volunteerism and self-help substituting for decreased services must be challenged. Frank Riesmann, editor of Social Policy magazine, has pointed out that the basic Reagan cutbacks affect jobs, welfare, housing, food, education, day care, services for the elderly, etc. He warns that self-help groups cannot possibly meet all these problems. Self-help groups can, as informed advocates, struggle to aid related agencies maintain vital services by appealing to funding bodies.

Since Brown's keynote three years ago, signs of increasing interest in self-help are popping up among volunteer administrators. The Volunteer Leader, the publication of hospital volunteer administrators, printed an excellent piece in its Fall 1980 issue, "Self Help Groups Offer New Service Options" by Carol Keenan. A National Self-Help Clearinghouse staffer was a resource person at the Spring 1981 National Conference on Citizen Involvement, while the author of this article presented a workshop on this subject at the October 1981 AVA-AVB-AVAS National Conference on Volunteerism. Voluntary Action Leadership includes in its yearly index a category called "Self-Help," listing articles dealing with neighborhood revitalization and anti-crime groups. The January-March 1981 Journal of Voluntary Action Research contains a review of a book by major self-help author Phyllis Silverman.

With an understanding of the self-help movement part of volunteerism and being motivated to develop constructive and cost-efficient new ways to foster social services, let us examine exemplary models within the different contexts volunteer administrators work.

SELF-HELP GROUP PROMOTION BY CIVIC AND RELIGIOUS GROUPS

The Essex County, New Jersey Section of the National Council of Jewish Women strives to blend needs and skills of volunteers from their 4,400 members with unmet community needs. After consultation with the N.J. Self-Help Clearinghouse, Project GRO (Groups Reaching Out) was launched in 1981. Women were recruited and trained based on their having been through key life experiences which needs assessment revealed as problematic for area women. Peer support groups are now facilitated by these volunteers around various issues: Women With Small Children, Women With Aging Parents, Women Going Through Divorce, Widows, Adoptive Mothers, and other concerns as interest arises. Blanche Dorman, Volunteer Director, helps screen potential facilitators along with handling potential volunteers for other Council volunteer projects. She reports an extremely high caliber of women coming forward to share their own personal experiences and also that Project GRO has stimulated increased volunteering on behalf of other projects.

Other service groups convene support groups. The National Council of Negro Women has a project to get Debtors' Anonymous groups going for people who have budget planning and credit card problems. One Junior League chapter in New Jersey started Chemocare, a peer counseling service for cancer patients; another is planning a group of parents suffering fetal and stillborn deaths of infants.

Religious organizations are the most popular sites for all self-help group meetings and are involved in other ways. The Lutheran Social Services Committee in North Dakota invites parishioners to volunteer their availability to speak with other people about crucial life experiences in a program called Friends. Over a dozen groups have emerged from these pairings. Singles or widow/widower groups are commonly sponsored by congregations of all faiths. Just as religious organizations have begun utilizing volunteer administration techniques, so volunteer administrators may be able to learn from them how to weave together self-help and traditional volunteerism.

HOSPITAL VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS TAPPING SELF-HELP ENERGY

Volunteer Directors can utilize local self-help groups as sources of specialized or "like kind" volunteers. As the DVS at a psychiatric hospital a few years ago, the author brought in members of Recovery, Inc. and Overeater's Anonymous to present monthly educational programs for patients. Since patient education was a nursing function, members' hours were logged as nursing volunteers, yet they were not put through orientation or required to wear jackets. The DVS announced the programs at morning staff meetings, put up posters and occasionally observed the meetings. Group reps passed out lists of local meetings so patients could get involved once they went home.

At Newark Beth-Israel Hospital, DVS Sonia Brody initiated a program whereby members of Open Heart (recovering heart patients) formed a visitation committee. These visitors are trained and come in daily to see pre-operative patients, doing what no one else could so effectively--reassuring the patient by their presence and encouragement.

Another way a DVS could interact with self-help groups is by being a liaison to or starter of a group. Nancy McBain at Abington Memorial Hospital in Pennsylvania has developed these roles with both an ostomy and a stroke club and a chapter of Make Today Count (for people with life-threatening illness and their families). An administrator of the hospital is pleased with her connection to these groups because patients can thereby be referred more easily and the hospital welcomes community groups to use its facilities. Similar roles are played by both the DVS and the Auxiliary of Parkway General Hospital in North Miami Beach regarding cancer patients, people with pacemakers, lung disease, arthritis and heart problems.

The most common hospital involvement with self-help groups is in the cancer area, with nurses leading the way. The DVS, however, is in a unique position to be able both to suggest community resources at the appropriate point to aid in a patient's emotional adjustment, and to channel the grateful recovered patient's energies into assisting in humanizing the curing of others.

VOLUNTEER BUREAUS AND VACS

Volunteer recruitment agencies--especially those with an information and referral component--can develop into local self-help clearinghouses. The VAC of Northeast Pennsylvania in Scranton, for example, received grants in early 1982 to hire two staff to identify local self-help groups and to train professionals in working with these groups.

Clearly the opportunity exists for the creative volunteer-promoting organization to shape new approaches to apply personnel resources to help solve problems. This is their mandate. VACs can work more extensively with "like kind" volunteers by encouraging volunteer directors to create job descriptions based on volunteers sharing what they've been through. Another option is inviting representatives from self-help groups to workshops and meetings of volunteer administrators.

OTHER CONTEXTS FOR CONNECTING VOLUNTEERS AND SELF-HELP

The volunteers who work one-to-one with clients of mental health agencies as Community Companions or out of elderly service centers as Friendly Visitors can be equipped to help natural leaders convene support groups, or to establish phone chains.

The traditional concerns of health foundations have been raising money to eliminate the illness and to educate the public. The need for patient services is an increasing priority and some foundations are encouraging self-help groups for both patients and family.

A support group for single parents is a natural offshoot of running a big brother/big sister-type program.

Volunteer administrators working with neighborhood, anti-crime, economic development and co-op groups are already taking a self-help approach. Sufficient stress needs to be given to the emotional support aspect, however, since advocacy efforts often take the spotlight.

Volunteer administrators are often involved with the personal lives of volunteers and sometimes do counseling. Referrals to self-help groups can be made as part of the response to volunteers' needs.

Finally, DOVIAs and local AVA groups could become more of a self-help forum for giving and receiving personal and professional support. As volunteer administrators are often isolated at the agency, with no one else doing what they do, mutual support is needed to prevent burnout.

SUMMARY

The decrease in public support for agency methods of delivering human services presents an enormous challenge to volunteer administrators. To the extent volunteer programs are tied to professional-intensive institutions, they will be asked to do more with less staff, budgets and time of supervisors.

But to the degree volunteer administrators can broaden their perspectives and assertively and creatively connect with the self-help movement, all kinds of new avenues of volunteer service and sources for agency revitalization will open up. The result will be true teamwork, facilitated by volunteer administrators, between professionals and self-helpers--teamwork whose first generation of leaders will lay the foundation for social policy for years to come.

We the People, Inc.— Teenagers Serving Their Community

Kathy Litwack

Editor's Note: During "Volunteer Venture," Ohio's state volunteerism conference held this year in Akron in May, participants were treated to an evening of entertainment by a special group of young people performing under the name "We the People." WTP had been invited to perform not only because of its bouncy show, but also because WTP members are all volunteers on behalf of many community service projects. THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION asked the group to write an article, sharing WTP's history and present structure with our readers. Their submission follows. It should broaden some concepts about the role of teenagers not only in volunteer service, but also in decision making.

This article also introduces a new, periodic feature of THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION: a forum for volunteers themselves to present ideas to those leading volunteer efforts.

We The People, Inc. is a musical and community action group of young adults from the Kent-Stow area of Northeastern Ohio. Our performances and our community action projects are our "raison d'etre," so to speak, but the backbone of the group is the variety of people who have come together to share the ideals and beliefs of We The People. The members of the group are dedicated, hard-working and united to spread the messages of brotherhood, positive involvement, peace and love.

I have yet to find any other organization that even comes close to We The People's levels of acceptance and tolerance and honesty. It is indeed a unique group.

HISTORY

The history of We The People (WTP) begins in the early spring of 1968. The Kent Kiwanis contacted the local high school, Kent Roosevelt High, and offered to sponsor sending a group of students to see an "Up With People" show in Cleveland. "Up With People" is a national movement whose original purpose was to express concern and hope for this country and its citizens through songs, and to inspire the formation of local casts all over the country. Ms. Leslie Hudak, a teacher at Roosevelt, volunteered to take a group of students up to Cleveland for the performance. After seeing "Up With People" perform, the Kent students who attended decided to start their own group with Ms. Hudak as the advisor.

In May, 1968, "Sing-Out Kent" was officially organized. The members began learning the songs and choreography of "Up with People." After a year or so, however, the members of Sing-Out Kent found that some of the "Up With People" songs, although musically entertaining, did not communicate the personal concerns which the group felt. They

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Kathy Litwack, 22, has been a member of We The People, Inc. for seven and a half years, currently holding the office of Public Relations Chairperson. Her volunteer background also includes work in both public television and radio. She received her Master of Arts in Telecommunications from Kent State University and her Bachelor of Arts in Radio, Television and Film from the University of Michigan.

wanted their audiences to think about specific problems which faced the world. Part of this was solved by singing songs written by professionals. The other means was to look to their own members for new, original songs which would satisfactorily express the sentiments of the group. Members of Sing-Out Kent began writing songs on topics such as ecology, brotherhood, positive involvement, drugs, mental retardation, friendship/family life, peace and the treatment of the elderly. These songs conveyed a more personal and direct message to their audiences.

In the winter of 1971, "Up With People" notified all local Sing-Outs like Sing-Out Kent that they could no longer continue their affiliation and support of the local Sing-Outs due to financial difficulties. The members of Sing-Out Kent decided to discontinue their association with "Up With People" totally. This whole change involved a new name for the group which is now "We The People."

WTP is a non-profit interfaith organization. There are currently approximately 50 members in the group. The requirements for joining are that a person be fourteen or out of the eighth grade. People of any race, religion or background are eligible to join. A person does not have to be able to sing or dance, just believe in the ideals of WTP. These ideals are reflected in our songs and community projects.

COMMUNITY PROJECTS

Our community projects range from visiting the elderly to devoting time to our communities to working with children. Over the years we have been involved as volunteers in many different types of projects, such as painting the Summit County (Ohio) Home for the Blind, collecting food baskets at Thanksgiving, holding benefit shows for various organizations like the American Cancer Society, the Big Brothers/Sisters program and the MERCY (Mental Retardation Concerns You) Committee, as well as singing at the Special Olympics.

One of our major projects began in 1970 and it is known as our Children's Summer Project (CSP). This project is in its thirteenth year this summer and is one of our most successful. A chairperson is elected early in the year and coordinates CSP. Approximately 10-15 children from the Portage County (Ohio) area schools are selected to participate in this project. Every Wednesday during the summer, the children are paired up with a WTP member and are taken to various places such as a zoo, an amusement park, a bowling alley, and swimming. The day lasts from 9:30 to 3:00 and there is no charge to the child or his/her family. WTP provides food and transportation and a chance for unique relationships to develop.

Our community involvement grew when, in 1971, we began monthly visits to the Kentway Retirement Center in Kent. At first, everyone played cards and games and sang occasionally. Now we sing at Kentway every other month and join the residents after each show for refreshments and socializing. In 1981, we began singing at the newly-opened Tower 43 Retirement Center, also located in Kent. We alternate between the two centers and find that the elderly are among our most accepting audiences.

In November 1974, we began our most ambitious undertaking. We began publishing a children's magazine called Smiling Faces. This magazine is written and assembled by the members of the group. It is sent out during the school year to over 1500 children in Portage County and is free of charge. These children are home-bound, learning disabled or mentally retarded. Smiling Faces includes puzzles, games, crafts, jokes and a personal greeting from "Smiley." It is another of our most successful projects.

We make ourselves available to the community at all times and recently helped plant flowers and do weeding at the city parks for the city Environmental Council. Many of the individual members recycle cans, newspapers and plastic at the Kent Recycling Center. And every year, the group goes holiday carolling to shut-ins, friends and neighbors.

Our shows are also a way we express our beliefs. With most of our songs being original music written by past and present members of the group, we are able to share our concerns with many varied audiences. We sing at churches, festivals, dinners, nursing homes, camps, schools, etc. Our costumes are made by each member and are either yellow or red. Each girl chooses one of these colors for her dress and wears black shoes. The boys have either a yellow or red shirt and black pants. Our costumes change periodically and are chosen by a group vote.

When we are contacted to do a show, we discuss it at our weekly Sunday night practices. As Public Relations Chairperson, I am responsible for organizing the show details. A simple majority vote is taken to determine whether or not we will accept the show. We try to limit our shows to about one per week, but sometimes, especially in the summer, we have many more engagements.

In addition to our songs, we also use what we call "Speak-Outs" in these shows. Speak-Outs let us share our messages by talking to the audience and introducing the songs. They are also written by group members.

Every year (or nearly every year) we put on what we call our Big Show. In 1982, our Big Show was entitled "Pyramids" and was held on March 12 and 13. Months of planning goes into these productions and everyone's help is necessary to ensure a successful show. These shows are open to the public and give us a chance to share our new music, messages and choreography with our parents, friends, sponsors and supporters.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

We The People's officer structure is very simple yet highly effective. All of the officers are elected on a yearly basis, by the members, for a one-year term. The advisor is the only officer required to be over 21; all other officers can be any age. Any member can run for any office, depending on his or her individual interests.

The advisor oversees every aspect of the group with the assistance of four elected trustees who are adult non-members. Under the advisor are the three major offices: president, director and community action chairperson. These three people oversee all the eighteen other offices. Each office has a written description of the duties of that office and each person is expected to fulfill those duties.

At our Sunday night practices, we have a business meeting every week to vote on shows, make announcements, conduct business and discuss any problems. During the week on Tuesday evenings, we have our official business meetings. These are called Action Councils, at which all of the officers give reports about their offices, decisions are made regarding policies and recommendations are decided upon. The Action Councils meet at a different member's house each week and are the most effective way to get business details ironed out.

We also publish a monthly newsletter called "The People's Express" that goes to members, parents and sponsors to keep them informed of our activities.

Every July, the members of the group get together for their annual Retreat weekend. Since 1968, we have been going back to the same place: Camp Muskingum in Carrollton, Ohio. During that weekend, we elect our officers for the upcoming year, hold discussions on where the group has been and where it is going, get to know each other better, share our feelings about each other, and strengthen our ties to We The People. Many members consider this weekend to be the highlight of the We The People year. The group elects a chairperson in May and that person oversees the planning of Retreat.

A unique aspect of our Retreat is the last activity held on Sunday afternoon. We call it our "Final Circle" and every member of the group is given a chance to share any feelings they may have about themselves, the other members, the group or anything at all. It is a very special time for everyone.

WTP is a non-profit organization that financially supports itself by donations. These donations partially come from community sponsors and patrons. Sponsors can be any business or individual who donates $25.00 or more, on a yearly basis, to WTP. Patrons generally donate time or services to the group. Currently there are 35 sponsors and eight patrons. WTP also receives money through our shows. Being non-profit, we do not charge a fee to perform. We do accept donations, though, and usually receive $25.00 from our audiences.

IMPORTANCE TO MEMBERS

WTP's uniqueness stems from the people who make up the group. We range in age from 14 to 35. We are high school students, college students, working adults. We all support WTP's ideals and beliefs. All of our projects and shows could not be accomplished if it were not for the dedication of the members. We have all learned to work together, grow together, learn together. WTP's openness and ultimate acceptance of people with varied backgrounds and personality are two of the many things that draw people to the group.

I have been a member for seven and a half years. Many of those years, I was only a part-time member since I was away at college. I always knew, however, that WTP and the people in it would be there whenever I returned. Holding the office of Public Relations over the past year has been exciting, challenging, frustrating, rewarding and a learning experience. I am so grateful for the things I've learned from WTP: responsibility, leadership, cooperation, acceptance. WTP will always be a part of me and I will carry its ideals with me wherever I go.

Here are some other current members' feelings about WTP:

> *Dave Griffiths, 1981-82 Director:* *I have been involved in WTP for over 3½ years. During that time, I have had the opportunity to learn about how it is to be truly responsible. I have held four offices in that time and have grown with each one. As I became more involved in the group, it became easier to give more of my time. I think it was because the more work and time I put into the group, the more I felt like I was accomplishing something; and I was doing it on an adult level. I was responsible for my actions. I had room to try new things, learning from my mistakes, develop my own creativity and learn my limitations. The level of personal development, positive comments and constructive criticism cannot be matched by any other organization that is honest with itself. Not everything is perfect by far, but at least we admit it.*

> *Lauri Litwack, 1981-82 President:* *Throughout my 7½ years in WTP, I've been involved in different capacities ranging from a general member to the choreography committee to president. The group has helped me to grow emotionally and my experiences have been invaluable. I've learned to deal with many types of people, organizational skills, responsibility and patience. The community projects we do are good for all of us to give us a sense of helping and caring for others. Because of our projects, we are continually learning and growing--giving of ourselves.*

<u>Jon Darrah, 1981-82 Speak-Outs Chairperson:</u> *WTP is a very unique group, bound together by love and caring. I joined the group as a high school freshman and I'm now a senior. Throughout my time in WTP, it has helped me angle my thoughts toward school, I've been able to communicate better and I've developed a sense of understanding. WTP has helped me express myself, and has helped me learn more about myself. WTP helped me find me. When one joins WTP, it may not be forever, it rarely is. But one learns of himself and shares that with others. The cycle goes on forever.*

<u>Teri Evans, 1981-82 Assistant Choreographer:</u> *WTP not only sings about important issues but does something about it. I have helped myself by helping others. I have become aware of changes in the world that I can make. The idealism of youth has found fertile soil in WTP and has grown into a productive use of that idealism. WTP has also shown me how to care about people on a more personal level. Other members can call each other "friends" and mean it. We have worked together, played together, cried together, shared our feelings, and made new friends. I feel good that I can share my talents with others, and others can share theirs with me.*

As you can see, WTP members recognize the potential of the group. Each member learns and grows at his or her own rate. They are encouraged to express their opinions and contribute to the group's decisions.

WTP's future is, of course, unknown. Based on our fourteen year history, I feel that WTP will be around for a long,long time. It has had its good times and its bad, its up moments and its down, but it has survived all. Many people have passed through WTP and many more will. One thing is for sure: no matter what happens to WTP, its impact on people's lives will never be forgotten. Each member will carry what they have learned and spread the message to other people.

One of the songs we perform is called "Building Together" and it says: "We can build together, one step at a time." WTP has been building for fourteen years and we hope to continue to work, learn, love, share, grow and build together for many years to come.

The Use of Management Information Systems in Volunteer Program Management

Robert Sigler, PhD and John G. McNutt, ACSW

Management information systems are effective tools which can be used by the managers of volunteer programs to increase the effectiveness and efficiency of their operation. Most managers see management information systems as complex automated processes requiring substantial allocation of resources and sophistication of staff. But management information systems and their use are more a matter of orientation than a matter of complexity. In essence, "management information" refers to the systematic collection, storage and analysis of data which can be used by managers to make effective decisions in the maintenance and modification of their programs. The collection of data can be by hand, the storage of data can be made on mimeographed summary sheets, and the analysis of data can involve the computation of simple totals and percentages. If the information is systematically and continuously collected, the most basic of information provides the manager of the smallest program with fact rather than belief as a basis for making management decisions. A recent development, however, has been the availability of micro-computer technology. These small, relatively inexpensive units can bring the cost of automated management information systems within the reach of many smaller programs (Taylor, 1981). Management information systems can range from complex computer based systems to basic hard copy systems.

The information developed by a management information system can have serious consequences. The fact that information developed through the use of these techniques is used to make decisions which alter programs and which affect human lives mandates the application of the most rigorous criteria in the data gathering process. The standards applied in each stage of the project must be as high as that applied in theoretical research projects. It should be noted that the procedures for gathering and analyzing information are or should be the same regardless of the application of the data gathered.

MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS

A management information system is a process in which information is gathered on a regular and routine basis for the purpose of monitoring the operation of a program; providing a data base for making decisions about the allocation of resources and modification of program components; and making cost assessments, cost-out-

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come assessments, or outcome assessments (Washington, 1980). An effective management information system becomes the basis for decision-making in both daily operations and long range planning. In the loose sense of the concept, management information refers to all of the decision-relevant information a program coordinator needs to manage effectively any operation or program.

While management information systems have existed in the private sector for many years, public agencies and volunteer programs are in the early stages of the development and implementation of these programs. As is the case in evaluation research, the need for accountability has facilitated the adoption of management information systems. Public and private nonprofit agencies are expected to operate in an effective, rational, well-planned manner. Public dissatisfaction with the level of performance in public agencies has encouraged the development of effective information systems for both increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of program operations, and for rationalization of the decision-making process in the public policy setting (Perlmutter and Slavin, 1980). This need has produced techniques such as "zero-base budgeting," Program Planning and Budgetary System (PPBS), and Goal-Oriented Social Services (GOSS). Because this process is located in a political-survival context, the pressure to obtain the "right" information is often strong (Weiss, 1972). For this reason, extraordinary care must be taken to protect the quality of the data gathered to insure objective, unbiased measurements.

From a measurement perspective, there are two different tasks in most management information systems. The first task is the measurement of goal accomplishment or outcome. The second is the measurement of specific aspects of program operations.

The goal assessment or outcome measurement component of the management information system is similar to the implementation of an evaluation research project on a continuous basis. Many evaluation research projects are one-shot approaches to the development of information. The volunteer program is evaluated at one time, producing information about the effectiveness of the program at that time. In management information systems, which are designed to measure goal accomplishment or outcomes, the measurements are a part of the routine procedures and can be summarized at regular intervals, providing a relatively continuous assessment of volunteer program "success" as measured by the specific outcomes targeted for measurement.

The measurement of specific program maintenance or routine operations is usually the primary process in management information systems. The volunteer program is defined in terms of the processes which occur as the program functions and/or achieves goals. A measurement is designed for each of the processes which monitors the rate, and in some cases, the quality of the action which is occurring during the process. One example of this type of operation would be accounting processes. This information is summarized at regular intervals and is used to guide decisions about each process in terms of other processes and the overall operations of the program. In other instances, the management information is designed to operate with some degree of autonomy. That is, specific "triggers" are established for the various measures. When the rate of activity increases or falls to the trigger point, the operation of the process is adjusted. In this sense, management information systems have developed from cybernetic and basic feedback system theory.

MANAGEMENT FEEDBACK PROCESSES

The concepts of management

feedback processes can be traced to general systems theory and to the basic cybernetics feedback model. There are three basic components: a receptor, a controller, and an effector. The receptor monitors the fluctuation in a variable or variables. When the fluctuations exceed specific levels the controller is signaled. The controller then activates an effector which intervenes until the system is in balance or within the parameters set for the receptor (Wiener, 1965).

Feedback operates in two ways. In a negative feedback system the level of activity is reduced. In volunteer programs, the number of clients or tasks accepted is determined by the available person power. As the pool of available volunteers is exhausted, the number of new clients or tasks accepted by the program is decreased. Agencies receiving services from the volunteer program would be advised to seek additional resources in accomplishing their tasks.

In positive feedback the output in the process is increased. In the case of matching available volunteers with client or task needs, control of production is just one alternative. The response could be an increase in recruitment efforts and expansion of the volunteer program to meet increasing needs for services.

It is possible to use both positive and negative feedback components in the same management information system and in the same process. That is, the volunteer program could control the rising level of services to be delivered through careful review of present capability while increasing recruitment efforts and planning for future growth. In a fairly stable need situation, the increase or decrease in recruitment efforts could be tied to increase and decrease in the size of the available pool of volunteers ready for assignment, and in the screening and training components of volunteer preparations.

Maintenance components can be automatic or can provide information for administrators to use in managing agencies or programs. In automatic systems, the information is generated and assessed by machines or by a human operator. Guidelines have been established for most conceivable contingencies. Specific responses ranging from no action to minor changes, or referral to management for further consideration are defined and are implemented. If the contingencies are within the group of contingencies for which responses have been established, the response is automatic in that it is made without further evaluation of the facts or circumstances in the situation. When no specific response has been defined, management is alerted with additional information or clarification sought followed by a specific appropriate response. Extraordinary care should be taken in the development of a system with automatic components to avoid the embarrassment which is created when the system works improperly. When the responses of the volunteer program staff or volunteers are not monitored, errors can become significant before they are noticed. It is also best to provide for regular monitoring of program operations to insure continuous smooth performance.

Most volunteer program information systems are not automatic. Most volunteer programs need to maintain the maximum amount of flexibility in response. Volunteer program management information systems tend to be reflective rather than reactive. The system develops information which is summarized on a regular basis for managers. Volunteer program managers evaluate the information and develop a response or intervention if a response is warranted. In this approach, contingencies and responses are not predefined. There are usually triggers or response thresholds in the system, but when the threshold is reached, the manager is notified that a situation requiring an intervention exists.

The manager reviews the situation, then develops and implements a response.

DESIGNING A MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM

In designing a management information system, the basic tools of measurement and design characteristic of research are used. Thus any of the basic techniques and approaches described in texts focusing on social science research can be used in the design.

Staff Involvement

The human factor in system design must be considered in systems development. It must be remembered that people will contribute the data, run the system and make use of the information the system develops. Their involvement, therefore, is critical.

The management of the volunteer program must, of necessity, be involved in the development of the management information system. Management makes crucial decisions and so the information developed by a management information system must be relevant to the decisions to be made. As Senn (1978:17) notes: "The primary emphasis of Management Information System is that of providing decision support to management . . . . " Chapman (1976:11) states that: "Nothing can extinguish a Management Information System quicker than the fact that its reports are not used to make a difference in resource allocation." The manager, then, must participate, so that he or she can specify the information he/she needs, and develop a supportive attitude toward the management information system and its products. Senn (1978:38) states that "successful management information system efforts require the direct involvement and participation of the managers who will use the system."

Staff must also be involved in the system design process. Chapman (1976:11) observes that "the agency's staff should participate in the design process. Not only is this essential for the system to be acceptable to the people who must work with it, but personnel at all levels have useful contributions to make." Systems designed in the abstract may be unworkable in the field. The management information system designer may have insufficient or inappropriate understanding of the task environment. Early involvement by actual users can prevent this problem.

Acceptance of the system is also critical. If a system is not accepted by the volunteers and paid staff, they may not furnish accurate information or any information. Social scientists (Rothman, 1974; Burke, 1979) have found that people are more likely to support plans that they have been involved in formulating.

Taylor (1980:29) notes: "The computer always threatens to disrupt the power balance within an organization." This can be a serious problem. We cannot expect staff to furnish needed data if they perceive it as a weapon to be used against them. Taylor (1981:29) goes on to say that "the trick is to design the information system so that balance of power is not disrupted. This requires that all levels of staff have a chance to reflect on the system's implications for themselves and for their work." Regardless of program size, paid and nonpaid staff with management responsibilities should be involved in the development of the management information system.

Designing a System

The first step in the development of a management information system is the identification of the goals or anticipated outcomes of the volunteer program. In most cases, this is a fairly straightforward process. The goals or outcomes are fairly visible and only need to be clearly defined. In some volunteer programs, however, the goals and products are not easily identified or defined. In many cases the goal is the maintenance of a particular process. Thus, the goals of a program which provides guides for the local museum include: providing information; conducting tours; explaining special exhibits; and operating information slide shows. These goals can be identified and defined for the management information system with some attention to characteristics of the process as a part of the goal. Thus, in the sample museum program, the amount of time required to provide a guide or perhaps the number of tours conducted or percentage of visitors served becomes a part of the goal statement.

Once the goals have been identified and clearly defined, the specific activities which are required to achieve the goals are identified and clearly defined. This articulation can lead to changes in the procedures and processes of the program. If some procedures appear to be counterproductive or fail to contribute to the goals, or if some procedures which are necessary for goal achievement are missing, the volunteer program is modified so that the goals, procedures, and processes of the program are consistent. The result is a clear statement of the goals and processes of the volunteer program in fine detail. As mentioned earlier, resistance can be anticipated here.

For each process and goal, measures are developed and each goal is defined in measurable terms. The scales needed to measure the appropriate outcomes are developed. The same procedure is followed in developing measures for each processes. Measurable factors in each process which track or monitor the flow of productivity are identified and scales are developed for each factor. The factors designated for measurement must constitute, in combination, a complete tracking system for the processes which constitute the operations of the volunteer program. That is, the measures measure every key factor in the operations of the program.

Measures for the processes should be diagnostic rather than success-failure measures. That is, the measures should provide descriptive information which can be used in planning, rather than information which simply indicates that the system is working or not working. At the simplest level, this means using an expanded scale rather than a two-point threshold scale. Thus, if the measure monitors the placement of children in foster homes in a volunteer program which recruits, screens, and trains foster parents for the juvenile court, the measure should be the number of children placed as an unreduced fraction with the number of children who need placement as the base. The development of diagnostic measures can also include choosing measures which focus on various aspects of the process rather than the immediate procedural outcomes.

If the measurement focuses on the volunteer recruitment process, measures might include: type of advertisement reported during inquiries, source of referrals; reasons for making the inquiry; reasons for pursuing and not pursuing further involvement; evaluation of rejection rates or success rates of screening staff; and any other measures which would tell the manager which tools and techniques are effective and ineffective. Thus, if the number or percent of successfully-recruited volunteers declines, the manager will be able to assess specific tools and tasks as contributory factors. A more refined system would track specific elements or factors which make volunteers difficult to recruit. With this type of information, the specific type or types of procedures which are impeding performance can be identified, permitting the development of targeted procedural changes or development of specific resources to improve performance.

Measures should also be designed so that they are as unobtrusive as possible. Senn (1978:23) feels that a management information system should be "a natural part of daily activities." Information systems tend to operate most effectively when the data is generated as a part of the normal operations of the volunteer program or agency. Programs with fully automated data processing equipment are better equipped to implement an effective management information system. In these cases, a large volume of information is routinely collected and stored in an accessible format. Subtle changes in the types of information collected and the manner of collection will often permit the development of an effective management information system in an automated agency.

Most volunteer programs do not have access to the equipment needed to maintain fully automated or even partially automated systems. When a management information system is developed for a program with a non-automated information system, care must be taken to develop forms and procedures which will make the collection of data a part of the normal routine of the staff. Because collection of data in management information systems is continuous, the data is collected by agency employees who have other responsibilities as well. Those other responsibilities tend to be their primary job responsibilities and so care must be taken to build measurement tasks into these primary job functions. The routinization of these tasks will also protect the quality of the data. Routine tasks once learned and implemented tend to be repeated regularly. The task should be divided into fairly simple steps. Any complexity should occur during the design phases and data analysis phases of the process. These principles apply to one and two person agencies as well as to larger operations. The consistent, regular recording of information provides fact instead of belief for making program management decisions regardless of the size of the program.

Training for the staff is essential (Chapman, 1976; Taylor, 1981). Training will provide the staff person with an essential knowledge of the operation of the management information system and, more importantly, his or her role in it. Documentation is also vital (Taylor, 1981; Chapman, 1976). A well-articulated description of the processes of the management information system can provide a basis for implementing and maintaining it.

USING MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEM DATA

In management information systems, data is collected and stored on a regular basis. The data is summarized and analyzed at specific predefined periods or when management needs information. In fully automated systems the summarization of data is a relatively simple process. A program or summary procedure is developed during the planning and implementation process. When summary data is required it is drawn from the system. The same process can be established for a non-automated system. As each event which is monitored occurs, it is recorded on a summary sheet. When summary information is required, the summary sheets are pulled and the data is summarized.

Since most volunteer program management information systems are non-automated, summary sheets are already fairly common because of the need to record hours of service and similar accountability data. For example, if the progress of a match in a one-to-one direct client service program is to be tracked, then each report filed by the volunteer or the volunteer supervisor will be recorded on summary sheets. Thus, when a report is written it is noted on the appropriate summary sheet in the manager's or secretary's office by a unique identifier as the activity report is processed. Each meeting of the volunteer with the client or a monthly case summary will generate a written report. The presence of the report and the type of action taken is recorded on appropriate summary sheets in the office as the report is placed in the client or volunteer file.

Such summary sheets constitute the primary information in the management information system which is concerned with the operation of the process rather than the specific facts in any particular case. In this example, information is available about: the number of matches; the number of contacts; types of problems; types of activities; types of achievement; and, if recorded at the conclusion of the match, an assessment of the relative success of the process in meeting the client's needs. The data could also be summarized by type of problem, by type of outcome, or by any other factor which the system is designed to measure.

Regular summarization and review of data provides the information for regular monitoring of agency operations. The level of operation of each component of the volunteer program is reviewed in terms of expectations for performance of that component. If the information indicates that the component is functioning below expected level or if the amount of work to be completed has exceeded anticipated work level then adjustments need to be made. If the functioning of the modified component affects the operations of other components, then the level of operation of all affected components are reviewed and can be modified. If assignment data indicates that the available volunteers lack the skills needed to provide the services in demand, the location of additional resources or the development of targeted procedures for recruitment can be coupled with the allocation of additional resources or the development of expedited procedures for training. These changes would produce a volunteer prepared to provide the needed services. Information from the management information system is used in this manner to make adjustments in volunteer operations on a regular or continuous basis to enhance program effectiveness and efficiency.

Management information system data can also be used in planning. Once the system has been in operation for more than a year, a data base is established. That is, summary information is available for one or more years of operation. As this data base is developed the data can be evaluated for patterns and trends. To some extent the patterns which emerge in the first years of operation that require agency adjustments can be anticipated. Plans can be made to modify agency operations to meet the needs of the agency as they emerge. This concept can best be illustrated by considering fluctuations in the recruitment process. Some months are better months for volunteer recruitment than other months. Information gathered from prior years will indicate the strong and weak months. The manager can then allocate more resources to recruiting in highly productive months and reduce allocations in weak months. At the same time, the size of the pool of volunteers available for assignment will be expected to vary as the program moves from good months to bad months and back again to good months. Targets can be set for the size of the resource pool for the beginning of each month to insure a steady supply of volunteers. To the extent that a volunteer program gathers information about outcomes and processes and uses the information to modify program operations, it is using a management information process. The extension of this approach to all or most aspects of the volunteer program operations produces a management information system.

Planning can also involve change based on management information system data. Information developed may indicate weaknesses or inadequacies in program operations. In the planning process, changes in agency procedures or allocations of resources are made to strengthen the agency's operations and eliminate inadequacies. Management information systems also provide information which can be used when planning for a change in agency goals or purposes. If a state changes its Juvenile Court Act to raise the age limit on juvenile court jurisdiction, juvenile and adult court information systems can be used to project the size of the increased caseload. Volunteer program management information system data can be used to project increases in resources at each level needed to maintain effective volunteer program operations. The more sophisticated the management information system, the more refined the planning process recommendation will be.

SUMMARY

The management information system is a useful tool for managers of volunteer programs of any size. Management information systems provide factual data which can be used in making management decisions. Because this data is used to make decisions about programs and human beings, care should be taken to insure that data collection and analysis processes be of the highest possible quality. Basic research techniques from the social sciences can be used to develop designs and measurement tools. Management information systems can have both outcome and process components. In either case, the measurements developed should be diagnostic so that the manager will have precise information about the part of the process which will need modification to improve the effectiveness and efficiency of volunteer program operations.

Each volunteer program manager should assure the possible applications of management information procedures to his/her program. The increase in the quality of program management should outweigh the costs in virtually every case.

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THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

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GUIDELINES FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION encourages the submission of manuscripts dealing with all aspects of volunteerism. We will gladly work with authors to assist in the development of themes or appropriate style. The following are key guidelines:

I. CONTENT

A. THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION provides a forum for the exchange of ideas and the sharing of knowledge about volunteer administration. Articles may address practical concerns in the management of volunteer programs, philosophical issues in volunteerism, and significant applicable research.

B. Articles may focus on volunteering in any type of setting. In fact, THE JOURNAL encourages articles dealing with areas less visible than the more traditional health, social services, and education settings (though, of course, these are welcome as well). Also, manuscripts may cover both formal volunteering and informal volunteering (self-help, community organizations, etc.). Models of volunteer programming may come from the voluntary sector, government-related agencies, or the business world.

C. Please note that THE JOURNAL deals with volunteerism, not voluntarism. This is an important distinction. For clarification, here are some working definitions:

1. volunteerism: anything related to volunteers or volunteer programs, regardless of setting, funding source, etc. (so, for example, this includes all government-related volunteers).

2. voluntarism: refers to anything voluntary in our society, including religion; basically refers to voluntary agencies (those with volunteer boards and private funding)—but voluntary agencies do not always utilize volunteers.

Our readership and focus is concerned with anything regarding volunteers. A general article about, for example, changes in Federal funding patterns may be of value to executives of voluntary agencies, but not to administrators of volunteer programs necessarily. If this distinction is still unclear, feel free to inquire further and we will attempt to categorize your manuscript subject for you.

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Articles must be conscious demonstrations of an issue or principle.

II. PROCEDURE

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A. Manuscripts should be ten to thirty pages in length, with some exceptions.

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