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ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

The mission of the Association for Volunteer Administration(AVA), an international membership organization, is to promote professionalism and strengthen leadership in volunteerism. 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.

Individual membership is open to salaried and unsalaried persons in all types of public, nonprofit and for-profit settings. Organizational membership is available for international, regional, state/provincial, district and local organizations who choose to join with AVA to promote and support effective leadership in volunteerism.

AVA is an association run by its members. Active committees include: Public Information; Professional Development; Resource Development; and Public Policy. Members also plan the annual "International Conference on Volunteer Administration," a major event held each year in a different city in the United States or Canada. This Conference provides participants the opportunity to share common concerns and to focus on issues of importance to volunteerism.

AVA is divided into thirteen 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 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 U.S.A.

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

Note on the Tenth Anniversary Issue

It is with special pleasure that The Association for Volunteer Administration and the Editors and Staff of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* present this Tenth Anniversary Issue.

To our authors: Thank you. You are the center of this publication. Your programs, your research and your thoughts fill *The Journal.* Thank you for your willingness to share and the consistently high quality of your work. In return, we hope that we are a vehicle for your professional development.

To our readers: Thank you. You are the reason we exist. It is to you, for yourselves and the world, that we offer the new research, the innovative programs, the reflections on our profession. Thank you for your continued dialogue and support. In return, we hope that you are inspired in new ways and motivated to continue the growth of your important work.

To past Editors and Staff: Thank you. You made *The Journal* a publication of high standards and important content. Thank you for the thoughtful choices, difficult decisions, long hours and hard work which have created a professional journal unique and relevant to its field.

And to all who have had a part in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration's* last ten years: **Happy Tenth Anniversary!**

Editor's Note: It is with great pride that we reprint some of Harriet Naylor's last words. She was, indeed, a leader and a prophet in the world of volunteer administration, and her words have only become more meaningful with the passage of time. The Tenth Anniversary of The Journal *seems a fitting moment to honor her strength, foresight and wisdom by again hearing her thoughts. Perhaps they will help us to look both forward and back.*

Beyond Managing Volunteers

Harriet H. Naylor

FEBRUARY 1985

(Editor's Note: The following is excerpted from a talk Mrs. Naylor gave at the national conference of the Association for Voluntary Action Scholars in Autumn 1984 at Blacksburg, Virginia. Mrs. Naylor should not be held responsible for any dilution or distortion of meaning which may have occurred in this editorial condensation process.—Yellowfire Press)

In a world torn by political, social, and economic evolution, the profession of Volunteer Administration is challenged as never before to identify its role in society, its values and perimeters in the wide amorphous field of practice. Volunteering is found in all recognized voluntary organizations and many governmental and for-profit ones in our transitional society, from self-help groups to the most rigid and technical programs. Very understandably, such breadth creates uneasiness, and values and perimeters are hard to define. When experts are uneasy, they retreat into technology, where they are more comfortable. The universal search for certainty goes on, discovering more and more about less and less.

Most speakers on volunteerism deal with techniques of management. While it has been essential to have these mastered, we seldom attend to the implications beyond.

We must remember, too, that people don't seek volunteering to be "managed." They do have a right to expect an orderly and appropriate placement, orientation and training, supervision in the sense of a knowledgeable person to turn to, and recognition for their uniqueness, abilities, accomplishments, growth, and changing objectives.

Growth and change have occurred in our profession and in many of its individual practices. As an honorary life member of the Association for Volunteer Administration, I am proud of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*, an impressive body of knowledge, an ethics statement, and the calibre of emerging leadership—all developed during intensive and conscientious practice in a burgeoning constituency. Still, individual improvement has led many potential leaders out of our ranks into higher levels in their own or other organizations.[1] We hope that there they are advocates for the volunteer potential, but we have lost them to organizational loyalties and higher salaries. Loss of their experience and wisdom is hardly balanced by the constant influx of new practitioners and new fields of practice, since newness means backtracking to build technical competencies at the expense of attention to important political, social, and economic developments and values with implications for volunteering.

Another concern I have is the political

Harriet H. Naylor was the Director of Volunteer Services for the New York State Department of Mental Health, Consultant to the Office of Volunteer Development for the Department of Health and Human Services and Director of Education and Training for the National Center for Voluntary Action. She spent more than 40 years in the newly-emerging field of Volunteer Administration and was responsible for much of the governmental support for volunteers and acknowledgment of Volunteer Administration and Management as a profession. Additional information about her is available in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* (1986) *V*(1).

pressures on volunteering. In this sense volunteering may be getting more attention than we'd like. We feel a danger that volunteering is being manipulated into partisan programs with partisan priorities, which may exploit public good will and honest concern about community needs temporarily, and lose rather than gain momentum for other volunteering . . .

Another broad concern is the relationship between volunteers and government, especially at federal and state levels. We still believe that volunteers are needed to humanize governmental human services. Yet, beginning in 1976, citizens were discouraged from participation in development of public policy, and advisory committees have been severely reduced at the federal level. Nor is there visible impetus to eliminate the old law against voluntary service to federal agencies (U.S. Code 31, Sec. 665b), although many exceptions have been approved by Congress.

On the other hand, we have had some advocacy success. For example, the volunteer Mileage Equity Campaign was an effort to equalize the income tax allowances for volunteer travel with those for business. At least, we achieved a raise from 9 cents per mile to 12 cents, though this is little more than half the standard 21 cents for business.

I do believe we have much more important issues than volunteer mileage, but the success of that advocacy campaign may have taught us how to become effective advocates on other fronts.

Economic conditions have decimated support for human services on every front. As the gap widens between haves and have-nots, we still have to worry about social Darwinism. And the learning about doing *with* instead of doing *for* persons in need of human services, which we gained from the War on Poverty, seems to be needed now more than ever. Experiential learning and re-learning of this lesson, via volunteering, is not only for the very young, but essential for everyone in our segmented society. Only the knowing of victims as persons can break down the mythology rampant in a materialistic society—that if a person is really good he will not be poor or afflicted but will prosper, if he really wants to work.

Some of the people we used to do *to* and not *with* now present themselves to do *for*—themselves and others. Newcomers to volunteering include consumers of human services, court-referred miscreants as an alternative to jail, and sophisticated condominium owners who are concerned with their environment, too. In volunteerism, the shift from WASP domination to rainbows calls for skilled leadership. I believe that democracy can survive if volunteering does!

And, finally, work in America is evolving faster than we realize. Studs Turkel[2] has demonstrated that this could be a good thing, since so few people are fortunate enough to have work they can enjoy. One dramatic change is from the turn of the century when 90% of our economy was product-related and only 10% services, whereas today when 35% of production is in factories or on farms, and 65% services. By 2000 AD, the proportion of work opportunities will have reversed to 90% services and only 10% products.[3] According to Dr. Edward Kafrissen, Director of the Robotics Institute at the New York Institute of Technology, robots will take care of the dirty, dangerous, and dull jobs.[4]

What we expect of volunteers could seldom be done by robots; volunteer work is about as far away from robots as anyone could imagine. And we who work with volunteers have insight and skill in making work better. Many services are offered by unhappy people in our present economy—sales people, auto bureaus, self-service gasoline (especially where you have to walk to the cash register and pay before you draw your own gas!). You can think of as many for-instances as I can. My point is that we do not prepare people adequately for service roles, nor do we seem to know how to make service work enjoyable in the marketplace. Yet in a volunteer setting, people perform similar services prodigiously and with enthusiasm. Perhaps volunteer administrators have something to teach government and business. I think we have learned that appreciation of individual uniqueness—and skill in accurate placement—characterizes the difference. We respect the right of choice. We appreciate effort, reliability, and commitment. Job satisfaction is "pay" for volunteers. Instead

of relying only on salary, we must touch the interests and objectives of each worker, each in appropriate ways. Thus, volunteer administrators do everything personnel administrators do with a much more complex reward and recognition responsibility.

In all these ways, I believe we need imaginative inspiration, to dream of what could be and all the implications of what is that we haven't yet noted.

Hat Naylor died May 10, 1985. The tributes to her will be many, glowing, heartfelt, in grieving voices. Yet the most eloquent voice of all remains her own; the most beautiful testimonials are still what she herself had to say to us.

With this article, published just days before her death, we resolve that her voice will continue to be heard.

. . . Tomorrow's community capacity may well be determined by today's volunteers. We cannot "use" volunteers in minor services, and hope to have public support for essential human services in the future. We must provide some access to policy decision making for those serving without pay—who have the potential to become decision-makers themselves.

—*Harriet Naylor*

FOOTNOTES

¹See *Moving Along: Case Studies of Career Paths for Volunteer Coordinators*, Yellowfire Press, 1985.

²Studs Terkel, *Work in America*, Pantheon, 1983.

³From my notes taken at the annual meeting of the American Public Welfare Association, Washington, D.C., 1979.

⁴"Robots will do dirty, dangerous, and dull jobs." *This Week*, August 8, 1984, by Bernadette Barone, NYIT News Service.

ABSTRACT

Students were surveyed at a private liberal arts university as to their experiences with volunteer public service. At least one-half of the students volunteered in high school or college. Students who volunteered expressed both altruistic and instrumental motivations. Factors which prevent volunteering centered around being too busy or negative volunteer experiences. Finally, volunteers tended to be good students who were more interested in making a positive social and moral contribution to society.

Characteristics of College Student Volunteering

Ron Fagan, PhD

INTRODUCTION

Among the most distinctive and frequently celebrated features of American life is voluntary pluralism, which takes the form of a vast array of nongovernmental and noncommercial volunteer-staffed health, education, welfare, and political organizations (De Tocqueville, 1945, p. 523). Based upon democratic and religious heritage, Americans expect to become involved in the public sphere. The founding fathers thought that our democratic political system depended upon an educated and involved public (Jefferson, 1940; Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swindler, and Tipton, 1985).

There is currently much talk about volunteer public service in America. Levine (1988, p.4) observed that in 20th Century America there has been a revival of interest in volunteerism and service about every decade and a half. He located the first wave as pre-World War I, the second wave from the Depression to World War II, the third wave from the 1960s to the Vietnam War, and he said we are now beginning the fourth wave.

There are generally high levels of volunteering in America. A recent Gallup Poll showed that as many as four in ten (39%) adult citizens (up from 27% in 1977)

reported being involved in some type of charitable activity (Gallup Report, 1987, p. 33; VOLUNTEER, 1987). A survey commissioned by the Independent Sector showed that all adults (including non-volunteering households) volunteer an average of about two hours per week. The average volunteer donated 4.7 hours per week, up from 3.5 hours in 1985 (see Saunders, 1990, p. 39).

The study reported here focuses on college students, and the levels of, and motivations for, college student volunteering. Although most studies of volunteers have tended to focus on adults (usually defined as 20 years of age or older) (Smith, 1975), a significant number of studies have focused on college students (Chinsky, 1969; Chinsky and Rappaport, 1970; Cowen, Zax, and Laird, 1966; Fitch, 1987; Fretz, 1979; Gidron, 1978; Gilineau and Kantor, 1966, Gruver, 1971; Hersch, Kulik, and Scheibe, 1969; Hobfoll, 1980; Holzberg, Gewirtz, and Ebner, 1964; Holzberg, Knapp, and Turner, 1966; King, Walker, and Pavey, 1970; Knapp and Holzberg, 1964; Lemon, Palisi, and Jacobson, 1972; Leonard, 1977; Turner, 1973; Umbarger, Kantor, and Greenblatt, 1962; Weinstein, Gibbs, and Middlestadt, 1979). Some of the studies have focused on college stu-

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dents because they constitute a volunteer population with unique characteristics. Other studies use college students because they are convenient. Researchers primarily study antecedents and consequences of volunteering both for the individual and the organization.

Today's college students have been labeled by many commentators as the self-centered, "me generation." The Independent Sector (1985) reported that among people from 18 to 24 years of age, volunteering declined by 11 points (from 54% to 43%) from 1981 to 1985. Astin et al. (1987) reported in their summary of the Cooperative Institutional Research Program's (CIRP) annual survey of college freshmen that the student value showing the strongest upward trend was "being very well-off financially." It increased from 40% to 70% in the previous 15 years. The value showing the most precipitous decline was "developing a meaningful philosophy of life." It declined from 80% in 1967 to 43% in 1985. This research found that college students' interest in business as a career showed the largest increase in the previous ten-year period. Human service occupations all showed significant declines (except for a slight increase in interest in teaching). Astin et al. concluded that American students showed greater interest in material and power goals, coupled with decreasing interest in social concern and altruism. Derek Bok (1988) attributed much of the shift in student aspirations to a lack of relative economic compensation for these jobs as well as a lack of government support for careers in these areas.

But there appear to be some changes on the horizon. In the CIRP survey published in 1990, an all-time high of 44% of students reported it is very important for them to "influence social values." Over one quarter (26%) of the students said a very important goal to them was "becoming involved in programs to clean up the environment" (up from 16% in 1986). Almost one-fourth of the students cited participation in community action as a very important goal (up from 19% in 1986). They also reported slight decreases in interest in a business major and career (CIRP, 1990). Ernest Boyer (1987, p. 213) stated that "students

are torn by ambiguous feelings—idealism on the one hand, and, on the other, the temptation to pursue narrow career interests that would leave them politically and socially disengaged."

Bok (1982, pp. 61–68), in discussing the history of American higher education, commented that both the English and German academic traditions conceived of academic institutions as standing somewhat aloof from society and the public. Both emphasized learning and discovery for their own sakes. But he noted that Americans tended to want to (to quote Sir Eric Ashby) "dismantle the walls around the university"—for universities to provide the knowledge and trained personnel to service a developing society. Americans assumed that civic responsibilities should be explored and nurtured during college and graduates would participate fully in public affairs. At its best, college education offers ". . . the prospect that personal values will be clarified and that the channels of our common life will be deepened and renewed" (Boyer and Hechinger, 1981, p. 56).

But many commentators think that most modern universities have lost their commitment to educate the whole person. Both students and the institutions have come to place too much emphasis on a narrow vocationalism. Frank Newman (1985, p. 51) has stated:

> If there is a crisis in education in the United States today, it is less that test scores have declined than it is that we have failed to provide the education for citizenship that is still the most ·significant responsibility of the nation's schools and colleges.

Spurred by a number of leading education commentators, there are renewed cries for public service to take a central role in the educational process (Astin, et al., 1987; Bok, 1982; Boyer and Hechinger, 1981; Boyer, 1987; Eberly, 1988; Hesberg, 1987; Janowitz, 1983; Newman, 1985; Potomac Institute, 1979).

Stimulated by organizations such as Campus Compact, Campus Outreach Opportunity League (COOL), and various state and federal initiatives, many colleges and universities have responded to

the challenge of motivating and providing opportunities for students to volunteer for public service both on and off the college campus.

The purpose of this study was to survey college students at a private, liberal arts college in order to examine their experiences with, and attitudes toward volunteer public service, to determine what factors encourage or discourage them from volunteering, and what types of students volunteer.

METHODOLOGY

This study is part of a larger study on student attitudes, values, and behavior. Respondents were undergraduate students at a 2500 enrollment, medium-to-highly selective, liberal arts university in the southwestern region of the United States.

Four hundred names were selected using a systematic, random sampling technique. Students were sent the questionnaire by mail. Respondents were not asked to give their names. Responses were tracked by identification numbers on the questionnaire. To increase the response rate, a three-wave follow-up technique was used. After the initial mailing of the questionnaire with a cover letter, subjects were sent a reminder letter about two weeks later. Those who still had not responded were sent a new cover letter and another copy of the questionnaire. Despite the ten-page length of the questionnaire, 60% of the students returned the questionnaire.

Analysis of respondent characteristics indicated that the sample was representative of the university's population except that the sample contained slightly more percentage female than the target population. While no definitive claim can be made as to the degree to which the results are generalizable to other colleges and universities, the author believes the findings are most applicable to private, liberal arts colleges and universities. Data were also available from the Cooperative Institutional Research Program's (CIRP) annual survey of freshman college students in the United States, in which the target university was a participant.

RESULTS

Judging from a wide range of socio-demographic data in this study, the typical student in the sample was female, 18 to 20 years of age, white, a U.S. citizen, Protestant (comes from a religious home and is religiously active), of high academic standing (in terms of standard placement tests and high school and college grades), viewed herself as academically oriented (a student who is interested in the pursuit of knowledge and the social aspects of life), viewed most other students as vocationally oriented (a student who is primarily concerned about preparation for a future occupation), from a financially well-off family, a business major who is interested in a business-related career, is politically middle-of-the-road, and involved in clubs and organizations on campus. (See Appendix A.)

Over one-half (55%) of the students in the sample said they were involved in volunteer service activities in high school, while almost one-half (48%) said they were involved in volunteer service activities in college. Almost two-thirds (64%) of the students said there was a "very high probability" (27%) or "high probability" (37%) that they will do some volunteer service work after they leave college and pursue their careers.

Using the CIRP data for the first-year college students showed that over three-fourths (77%) of the students reported doing some volunteer work during the previous year (which would include their senior year in high school and some of their first semester in college). Over one-half (57%) of the students tutored another student. Data from other responses indicated that the students volunteered an average of less than six hours per week.

Many researchers have distinguished between altruistic motives (motives dealing with the expression of personal values such as a general obligation to participate) and self-interest or instrumental motives (motives dealing with personal growth fulfillment, or career exploration [Adams, 1980; Frisch and Gerrard, 1981; Gillespie and King, 1985; Howarth, 1976; Independent Sector, 1981; Katz and Kahn, 1978; Pearce, 1985; Schindler-Rainman and Lip-

pit, 1975; Smith, Reddy, and Baldwin, 1972]).

While most of the research concludes that altruistic motives tend to predominate, two qualifications should be noted. In general, society sees altruistic motives as more valid reasons to volunteer than self-interest motives; therefore, it is difficult to ". . . distinguish between the a priori desire to serve that led them to volunteer and the retrospective choosing of a socially acceptable 'reason' for their actions" (Pearce, 1985, p.211; also see Smith, 1981). Secondly, the specific goals of people who volunteer are dependent upon where those people are in their life cycles.

Students who volunteered were asked their reasons for becoming involved.

The students gave differing reasons for volunteering (see Table I). Focusing on the "very important" response category, over one-half (52%) of the students said, "It gives me a sense of satisfaction to help others." Other factors that were relatively important were "learning to relate to different types of people" (31%), "it upsets [them] to see people in need" (26%), and "service is part of [their] religious beliefs" (22%).

Focusing on the combined "very important" and "important" response categories, at least two-thirds of the students

Table I
Reasons for Becoming Involved in
Volunteer Service Work (Percentages)

Item	Very Important	Impor- tant	Not Very Important	Not Impor- tant At All	Total
Satisfaction in helping others	52	42	6	0	100
Social obligation to help less fortunate	18	51	27	4	100
Opportunity to learn new skills	13	52	25	9	99
Feel needed	10	45	31	14	100
Show employers an interest in community	8	25	41	26	100
Part of religious beliefs	22	28	25	25	100
Explore career options	7	26	44	23	100
Was once helped by a volunteer	5	13	24	58	100
Requirement for a class or group	5	11	21	63	100
Someone close in same situation as those helped	9	16	31	44	100
A change of pace from other activities	10	38	37	15	100
Particular concern for the population helped	16	43	35	6	100
Making friends with other volunteers	7	36	43	14	100
Upset by seeing people in need	26	57	13	4	100
Parents did volunteer work	4	17	36	43	100
Parents instilled a desire to volunteer	8	18	35	39	100
Encouraged by a teacher	7	21	35	37	100
Learn to relate to different people	31	47	18	4	100
Further the goals of the organization	13	49	28	11	101
To learn new personal, social, vocational skills	18	48	30	4	100
Experienced similar problem when young	6	9	24	61	100
Encouraged by a brother/sister	3	4	23	69	99
Responsibility to give back to the country	14	26	30	30	100

said (in order of importance) "[they] received satisfaction in helping others" (94%), "it upsets [them] to see people in need" (83%), they "learned to relate to different types of people" (78%), they "felt a social obligation to help the less fortunate" (69%), and "it was an opportunity to learn new personal, social, and vocational skills" (60%).

The factors that received the lowest ranking (less than 25%) were related to background or situational factors such as "encouragement by a brother or sister" (7%), "experienced similar problem when young" (15%), and "parents did volunteer work" (21%). Factors such as "exploring career options" or "to show employees that [they] were interested in the community" ranked relatively low.

Students also were asked to indicate which factors inhibited them from becoming involved in volunteer service work (see Table II). Combining the "essential" and "very important" response categories, over half (51%) of the students said they would like to volunteer, but were too busy with other activities. Nearly one-third (30%) said volunteering takes too much time away from other, more important activities. A significant number of stu-

dents mentioned negative volunteer experiences: disorganized agency (19%), inability to directly help people (13%), and inability to find a suitable volunteer service project (17%).

These results are consistent with other studies on motivations for volunteering. In general, the research shows that while altruistic motivations are important for young people, younger people tend to be interested in using volunteer work as a means for personal growth and fulfillment, to obtain job training, and to explore career options (Gillespie and King, 1985; Gottlieb, 1974; Frisch and Gerrard, 1981, Fitch, 1987).

Students were asked what types of volunteer service activities most interested them. At the top of the list (with at least one-third interest) was working in/with schools (51%); followed by "[a] Big Brother and Big Sister [program]" (50%); "juvenile delinquents" (47%); "abused children or spouses" (43%); "children with physical disabilities" (40%); "children with illnesses" (38%); "drug and alcohol abusers" (38%); "adult criminals" (38%); "the homeless" (37%); "adult or child illiteracy" (37%); "visiting the elderly in nursing homes" (37%); and "recreation or

Table II
Factors that Prevent You from Becoming
Involved in Volunteer Service Work (Percentages)

Item	Essential	Very Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important	No Response	Total
Takes too much time	10	20	43	19	7	99
Dislike working with needy people	0	3	14	76	7	100
Needy people should help themselves	1	4	18	69	8	100
Cannot find a suitable project	5	12	32	44	7	100
Volunteered previously —disorganized agency	5	14	23	50	9	101
Volunteered previously —couldn't help people	2	11	21	58	9	101
No volunteer projects nearby	1	8	14	69	8	100
Do not have much to offer needy people	0	5	19	69	7	100
Would like to, yet too busy	23	28	29	12	7	99

coaching work" (35%). They were least interested in working with: "the elderly" (7%); "adults with illnesses" (11%); "adults with physical disabilities" (12%); "Boys or Girls Clubs" (11%); "foster children" (15%); "Boy or Girl Scouts" (19%); or "AIDS patients" (22%).

This study sought to determine which characteristics distinguished volunteers from non-volunteers. Researchers have identified a number of factors which influence or motivate people to become involved in voluntary activities or programs. Smith (1966) identified three broad categories of variables: personality traits, attitudes toward engaging in social activities in general, and attitudes toward a specific voluntary activity or group [see

Allen and Rushton (1983); Smith (1975)]. Other researchers have added socio-demographic correlates of participation (see Smith, 1975). Researchers tend to conclude that personality and situational factors are probably more important than socio-economic variables in predicting volunteering (Smith, 1975).

Volunteers were defined as any students who answered that they had volunteered in high school or college. A chi square analysis was done to identify the variables that discriminate between student volunteers and student nonvolunteers. Results are shown in Table III.

Volunteering was found to be associated with: students who are female; students who have a higher GPA; students who are

Table III
Characteristics of Volunteers
Versus Nonvolunteers

Variable	Total Number	Number Volunteer	Percentage Volunteer	Chi Square
Gender				
Females	159	114	72	
Males	81	47	58	3.95*
GPA				
3.5–4.0	43	36	84	
3.0–3.4	91	64	70	
2.5–2.9	64	33	52	
2.0–2.4	19	12	63	14.82**
Fraternity/Sorority				
Yes	65	52	80	
No	177	111	63	5.70*
College Clubs				
Yes	146	113	77	
No	93	48	52	16.03***
Characterize Self				
Vocational	63	35	56	
Academic	88	68	77	
Collegiate	11	9	82	
Nonconformist	22	13	59	9.72*
Volunteer After College				
Very High Probability	66	58	88	
High Probability	88	64	73	
Undecided	65	32	50	
Low Probability	16	5	31	
Very Low Probability	4	2	50	33.55***

Table III (continued)

Variable	Total Number	Number Volunteer	Percentage Volunteer	Chi Square
Personal Importance Areas				
Financial Success				
Essential	75	46	61	
Very Important	71	40	56	
Somewhat Important	75	60	80	
Not Important	18	14	78	11.41**
Life Philosophy				
Essential	91	62	68	
Very Important	76	53	70	
Somewhat Important	48	35	73	
Not Important	24	10	42	8.03*
Participate in Community				
Essential	28	23	82	
Very Important	63	44	70	
Somewhat Important	113	79	70	
Not Important	35	14	40	15.09**
Promote Racial Understanding				
Essential	35	26	74	
Very Important	63	41	65	
Somewhat Important	102	76	75	
Not Important	39	17	44	13.20**
Give Time to Help Needy				
Essential	81	64	79	
Very Important	90	59	66	
Somewhat Important	60	36	60	
Not Important	8	1	13	17.43***
Become Positive Moral Influence				
Essential	110	79	72	
Very Important	91	63	69	
Somewhat Important	33	15	46	
Not Important	5	3	60	8.39*
Personal Traits				
Academic Ability				
Highest Ten	48	36	75	
Above Average	139	97	70	
Average	51	25	51	8.79*
Writing Ability				
Highest Ten	33	26	79	
Above Average	124	90	73	
Average	72	39	54	
Below Average	13	8	62	9.40*
Altruism Ability				
Highest Ten	54	44	82	
Above Average	117	79	68	
Average	55	32	58	
Below Average	15	8	53	10.41*

*p < .05
**p < .01
***p < .001

members of college clubs or fraternities/sororities; students who consider themselves to be of the academic or collegiate type;[1] students who predicted they will volunteer after college; students who consider financial success less important; students who believe in developing a philosophy of life; students who believe it is important to participate in community action programs; students who want to promote racial understanding; students who want to give time to help the needy; students who want to become a positive moral influence;[2] and students who consider themselves to have an above average or higher writing and academic ability.[3]

Among the factors that did not differentiate volunteers from non-volunteers were their reasons for going to college (including vocational, financial, educational, and utilitarian reasons), self-evaluative personal characteristics (including altruism, self-confidence, and academic ability), and their social adjustment as indicated by a social well-being scale (The General Well-Being Schedule). Volunteers and non-volunteers also could not be differentiated on a number of individual "altruism" items including a summative altruism scale.

SUMMARY

To summarize, it was found that at least one-half of the students at the survey school had participated in some type of volunteer activity in high school or college, but the amount of time they spent volunteering was relatively low. Students who volunteered tended to emphasize both altruistic and or instrumental motives. Background or situational factors were given the lowest priority. They were most interested in volunteer activities that involved working with certain types of children. They were least interested in working with the elderly or people with certain disabilities. Factors which prevented them from volunteering centered around being too busy or negative volunteer experiences.

Finally, this study identified a number of characteristics that differentiated volunteers from non-volunteers. Volunteers tended to be good students who are interested in making a positive social and

moral contribution to society. Such a profile cannot only assist programs in recruiting receptive students, but it can also be used to target students who tend not to be receptive to volunteering.

DISCUSSION

Depending on the source, nonprofit organizations which involve volunteers are in varying degrees of crisis. Threatened by budgetary strains, tax policies that discourage corporate and individual donations, inflation, encroaching government intervention, growing demands for services, changes in the traditional pools for volunteer recruitment, population demographic changes, and increasing demands being made on the public's time and energies, nonprofit organizations are going through a crucial period of self-evaluation and public and private scrutiny (Powell, 1987). The attitudes and experiences that young people have toward volunteer public service are significant components in this evaluation process.

Salamon (1989) identifies a number of recent trends that seem likely to change the character of the volunteer, nonprofit sector, including a change in the relationship between the voluntary sector and government, significant restraints on its provision of resources, and changes in the demands for its services. This includes growing demands from traditional populations such as the poor, and also increased demands from the broad middle-class as our population gets older and as more women with young children enter the labor force.

There appears to be relatively strong evidence that volunteering by young people is on the rise. As discussed, colleges and universities increasingly are responding in significant ways. Colleges and universities are holding conferences on student volunteering, publishing articles, and sharing ideas and experiences. Students appear to be responding.

People who work with college-age volunteers have suggested a number of ways to motivate and maintain the interest in these volunteers. Catherine Milton (1988-89), director of the Public Service Center at Stanford University, discussed the factors that help students to volunteer. Among

the factors she feels are important are: support of the school president and other top administrators; allocation of sufficient resources including a visible space on campus; active support from the community and faculty; student involvement in all aspects of the volunteer program (fundraising, management, recruitment, and training volunteers); establishment of an advisory committee and a faculty steering committee; keeping the volunteer experiences varied and structured in advance; integrating the volunteer experience with the teaching mission of the university.

Hadsell and Ciwik (1987) added the need for training and development of volunteers and giving the volunteers suitable recognition beyond the intrinsic rewards of the volunteer experience. Schmidt-Posner (1989) spoke of the need for colleges and universities to develop formative and summative evaluations of their public service programs, especially since some of the central features of educational organizations are the transiency of students, the fact that volunteer centers offer very diverse services, and that they are most likely operating in underfunded environments. Vos Strache and Jackson (1989) identified the need for paid professionals to recruit student volunteers and administer the programs.

While many colleges and universities have developed effective programs for recruiting, motivating, and delivering young people for public service options, public service organizations need to be able to fit these young people into their programs. Volunteering is based on an exchange between altruistic costs and egoistic rewards which are in turn modified by the volunteers' expectations and the developmental phase of the volunteer effort (Gillespie and King, 1985; Phillips, 1982; Routh, 1977; Smith, 1966; Wolensky, 1980). People in volunteer organizations also need to be aware that the reasons for volunteering tend to change during the volunteer's life cycle. While young adults have multiple reasons for volunteering, in general, the trend is from more concrete to more altruistic as they grow older. For example, this research would indicate that to attract young volunteers, organizations need to stress not only altruistic rewards, but also provide realistic opportunities for realizing instrumental rewards such as job training and experience. Public service organizations need to offer a diversity of volunteer experiences that vary not only in terms of time commitment, but also vary in terms of level of involvement in program development and administration.

This study shows that while today's young people tend to be vocationally oriented, interested in personal, social, and financial success, they also feel an obligation to make a moral and social contribution to society (typically separate from their primary occupations). If organizations want to attract today's younger volunteers, if they want to motivate them to adopt volunteerism as part of their lifecourse, they must tap into these multiple reasons for volunteering, and they must adapt the volunteer experience to fit into the demands of their lifestyles. Public service organizations should also keep in mind, as the data indicate, that a number of factors inhibit young people from volunteering including negative volunteer experiences. Just as positive volunteer experience during high school and college can form a foundation for a lifetime of volunteering, so, too, can negative experiences sour the relationship.

The challenge for the future is to assure that the current interest in volunteering among young adults is not just a passing fad, but the foundation for a life-long commitment to make public service part of their lives.

FOOTNOTES

[1]"Academic type" of student was identified by asking the students to select which of four types of college students best typified themselves and the college students generally. "Academic students" were described as ". . . primarily concerned with the pursuit of knowledge, but also with the social aspects of campus life." "Collegiate students" were described as ". . . primarily concerned with the social aspects of life."

[2]The students were given a list of 21 areas to rate as "essential," "very important," "somewhat important," or "not im-

portant." Students who volunteered tended to rate "being very well-off financially" as less important, but "developing a meaningful philosophy of life," "participating in a community action program," "helping to promote racial understanding," "giving of my time to help others who are in difficulty," and "becoming a positive moral influence" as more important.

[3]Students were asked to rate themselves in terms of a number of traits compared with the average person their age. Students who volunteered tended to rate themselves higher in writing ability.

Appendix A
SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

Item	Percentage
Age	
18-20	61
21+	39
Total	100
Gender	
Male	34
Female	66
Total	100
Race	
White/Caucasian	86
Asian/Pacific Islander	7
Black/Afro-American	3
Hispanic	1
Other	3
Total	100
Citizenship	
U.S. citizen	91
Foreign citizen	9
Total	100
Religion	
Protestant	47
Catholic	19
Jewish	1
Other	22
None	11
Total	100
Class	
Freshman	25
Sophomore	20
Junior	26
Senior	29
Total	100
Major	
Biology/Premedicine/Physics	6
Communications/Advertising/Public Relations	17
Business Administration/Economics/Accounting	25
Sociology	7
Psychology	6
Sports Medicine/Nutrition/Nursing	7
Political Science/International Studies	7
Teacher Education/Liberal Arts	4
Music/Theatre	4
English/Journalism	4

Item	Percentage
Foreign Language	1
Math	1
Other	2
Undecided	10
Total	101
GPA	
3.0–4.0	56
2.0–2.9	34
1.0–1.9	0
No response	10
Total	100
Political Views	
Liberal	24
Middle-of-the-Road	72
Conservative	2
No Response	2
Total	100
Parents' Income	
Less than $65,000	29
$65,000–114,999	23
$115,000–154,999	11
$155,000+	27
No Response	11
Total	101
Probable Occupation	
Accountant	3
Actor	2
Business executive	13
Business owner	10
Business sales	3
Computer programmer	2
Diplomat	3
Lawyer/Judge	6
Physician	6
Psychologist/Therapist	4
Social Welfare	2
Teacher/Professor	7
Writer	2
Other	15
Undecided	13
No Response	9
Total	100
College Clubs	
Yes	61
No	38
Total	99
College Student Type	
Vocational	26
Academic	36
Collegiate	5
Nonconformist	9
No Response	24
Total	100

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Older Volunteers: An Agency Perspective

Catherine Burden, BA, BPR, and Alec J. Lee, MBA, MPA

INTRODUCTION

Since late 1989, the Victoria Volunteer Bureau, with the support of Health and Welfare Canada's Seniors Independence Program, has been involved in its Seniors Volunteering Project. The project's objective has been to develop and test strategies to promote seniors' involvement in volunteering. Earlier stages of the project, described in previous issues of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* (Lee and Burden, 1990-1991, 1991), focused on the extent and nature of seniors' volunteer participation in the Canadian community of Greater Victoria.

The research reported here examines this issue from an *agency* perspective. It sought to determine current and future practices in volunteer-based agencies. More specifically, this research examined the roles senior volunteers play in agencies, agencies' experiences with recruiting and retaining seniors and the agencies' willingness to respond to seniors' volunteering concerns.

NATURE OF THE STUDY

The data reported here were obtained through a questionnaire mailed to 226 agencies which have a volunteer component. The agencies were located throughout the Greater Victoria region and all were members of the Victoria Volunteer Bureau. Questionnaires were mailed in August, 1990, with a follow-up telephone reminder two weeks later. A total of 141 completed surveys were returned, for a response rate of 62.4%.

PROFILE OF RESPONDING AGENCIES

The sectors in which responding agencies were active primarily consisted of Health (37.6%), Social Services (27.0%), Social/ Recreation (14.9%) and Education (10.6%). The remaining 9.9% were involved with environmental, correctional, fundraising, cultural, international development and tourism activities.

Agency size, as measured by number of paid staff, ranged from one to over 100 employees. The largest proportion (34.0%) had one to five employees. Overall, the median number per agency was 6.7 employees.

Agency size, as measured by number of clients served, also had a wide variation, ranging from less than 20 to well in excess of 500. The largest proportion (36.9%) served between 101 and 500 clients. Overall, the median number served per agency was 384 clients.

The number of volunteers involved in each agency ranged from less than 5 to more than 500, with a median of 40 volunteers. Overall, 36.2% of the agencies had 20 or fewer volunteers, 25.5% had 21 to 50, and 38.3% involved more than 50 volunteers.

INVOLVEMENT OF SENIORS AS VOLUNTEERS

Although 86.5% of responding agencies indicated that they currently involve seniors as volunteers, over one-third (35.5%) reported that seniors make up no more than 10% of their total volunteer body. However, 33.3% stated that seniors constitute over half of their volunteers.

Not surprisingly, when asked if they would like to increase the number of seniors volunteering with their organization, 89.4% responded positively.

THE ROLES OF SENIOR VOLUNTEERS

The agencies which involved seniors as volunteers (86.5% of all respondents) were asked about the types of work they felt were most and least suitable for their older volunteers, the traits which benefitted and

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hindered seniors' performances, and the advantages and disadvantages particular to having this group as volunteers. It should be noted that many agencies pointed out that the age of the volunteer is immaterial; it is the 'fit' of the volunteer with the position that is important.

Well over half the agencies (59.8%) felt that there were no tasks which were unsuitable for older volunteers. However, 29.5% indicated that they had found tasks requiring heavy work (lifting, moving, etc.) to be unsuitable. A wide array of other tasks felt to be unsuitable were given, although each task was mentioned by no more than 4.0% of the respondents. Again, it was largely felt that suitability was not dependent on age, but on the individual's appropriateness for the job at hand.

When asked if there were tasks which were particularly *suitable* for seniors, agencies became much more expansive, mentioning a wide array of possibilities, as shown in Table I.

Table I
Tasks Which Agencies Have Found
to be Suitable for Seniors

Tasks	n	%*
Office Work	40	32.8
One-to-One Relating	33	27.0
Social	24	19.7
Visiting	23	18.9
Crafts	18	14.8
Library/Research	10	8.2
Sales/Fundraising	10	8.2
Tutoring	8	6.6
Hosts	8	6.6
Board/Committee Work	7	5.7

*Percentages are based on the 122 agencies which involve seniors as volunteers. Percentages total more than 100% since respondents could give more than one answer to this question.

To discover why the agencies felt certain tasks were more or less appropriate, respondents were asked to identify those traits which they felt affected seniors' usefulness. Table II shows that the patience of the older volunteers is a particularly useful characteristic, as identified by 27.1% of those agencies involving seniors as volunteers. Other useful traits included the time they have available (given by 26.2%) and the high levels of commitment (21.3%).

Table II
Positive Traits of Senior Volunteers

Traits	n	%
Patience/Personality	33	27.1
Time Available	32	26.2
Commitment	26	21.3
Knowledge	16	13.1
Special Interest	11	9.0
N/A	4	3.3
Totals	122	100.0

The only "less useful" characteristic of senior volunteers identified by a significant percentage of respondents (34.4%) related to physical and health limitations.

Agencies identified several key advantages of involving seniors as volunteers. These included their reliability (given by 45.9%), the time they have available (38.5%), their personalities (26.2%) and the experience they bring to the volunteer job (23.0%).

Primary disadvantages of involving seniors as volunteers included health limitations (31.9%), limited availability (16.4%) (this is in contrast to the 38.5% who saw seniors' availability as an advantage), lack of flexibility (13.1%) and a reluctance to take responsibility (9.0%).

When asked what worked well when involving seniors as volunteers, respondents identified five key approaches: giving volunteers specific duties (given by 29.5%); involving seniors in the agency (21.3%); communicating effectively (12.3%); providing orientation (11.5%) and showing appreciation (7.4%). What did not work well included improperly matching the volunteer with the job (13.9%) and using high pressure (12.3%).

RECRUITING STRATEGIES
The recruiting strategies these agencies suggested for reaching seniors included media advertising (21.3%), working with seniors' networks (11.5%), making presentations (7.4%) and familiarizing seniors with the agencies (4.3%). Interestingly, only 1.4% identified personal recruitment as a suitable approach. This is in marked contrast to what seniors themselves say are the best ways to reach them. Lee and Burden (1991) report that a "personal approach from someone you know" would have the most

recruiting influence, followed by hearing a speaker and advertising in the papers. While general appeals through the media may seem easier or more cost effective, agencies' reliance on this method indicates a reluctance to adapt to the requirements voiced by seniors themselves.

OPTIONS FOR INCREASING SENIORS' INVOLVEMENT

This section responded to issues brought forward by the senior volunteers as barriers to volunteering (Lee and Burden, 1991). It sought to determine the extent to which agencies would modify their practices to better fill the needs of the potential senior volunteers.

Agencies were asked whether or not they were willing to consider providing each of five different options: transport, bus fare/ mileage, flexible hours, vacations and job-sharing. Not unexpectedly, options which did not require additional funds were considered more possible than those which had a price tag attached. Table III shows that providing transport and bus fare/mileage are constrained by financial limitations. As well, many agencies pointed out that it is their policy not to provide transport for volunteers. Each of the other options, flexible hours, vacations and job sharing, were viewed much more favorably. Indeed, many agencies reported that they already provide these benefits to their volunteers.

Table III
Agency Willingness to Provide
Various Options

Would agency consider providing:	Yes %	Perhaps %	No %
Transport	14.9	23.4	61.7
Bus Fare/Mileage	25.5	27.6	46.8
Flexible Hours	75.2	9.9	14.9
Job Sharing	78.7	9.9	11.4
Vacations	92.9	1.4	5.7

These findings complement what senior volunteers themselves are saying. As reported in Lee and Burden (1991), senior volunteers appear less interested in the financial sides of volunteering than with the flexibility which breaks and job sharing afford.

ROLE OF THE VOLUNTEER BUREAU

This final section asked agencies to identify the role they see the Volunteer Bureau playing in supporting older volunteers. It was quite clear to 41.8% of respondents that the major role for the Bureau is in matching volunteers with the agency needs. Secondary roles included providing training (12.1%) and recognition for volunteers (7.1%). The kind of training agencies wanted to see the Bureau provide was not specific or job-related. Rather, it focused on the role of volunteers, their rights and responsibilities, and a general orientation to volunteering.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PRACTICE

The experiences and observations of the agencies reported here can benefit groups considering expansion of their complement of senior volunteers. Understanding what seniors can bring to the volunteer experience and what limitations one can reasonably expect will help in ensuring a suitable match between the individual and the volunteer job. As well, ensuring that the volunteer jobs are well defined and communicated and that volunteers are suitably oriented and recognized for what they provide will go a long way in making the volunteer experience work well for both the individual and the agency.

NOTE

This report is the third and final stage of research on the Seniors Volunteering Project. The results of all three stages have been used in the development of a practical manual for agencies to use in helping to recruit and meaningfully involve seniors as volunteers. To obtain a copy of the manual and its accompanying promotional kit, contact: The Victoria Volunteer Bureau, 211-620 View Street, Victoria, B.C., Canada, V8W 1J6.

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Book Review

The Healing Power of Doing Good

by Allan Luks with Peggy Payne

Reviewed by Elizabeth Sweet, MA

Need a quote? Do I have a book for you! Unless, of course, you have already heard about it through the professional grapevine. This just may be this year's "in" book. For whether you are a volunteer or an administrator, whether you are in the corporate sector or the public sector, whether you are writing a grant, training volunteers, or participating in a job interview, *The Healing Power of Doing Good* by Allan Luks with Peggy Payne (Fawcett Columbine: $18.00 US, $23.00 Canada) is well worth your owning, for present reading and for future reference.

The result of a survey of over 3,300 volunteers, personal experience, and numerous interviews, this piece presents a strong case for the physical and emotional well-being that results from volunteer involvement. Luks has obviously researched his topic well and offers more than lip service to the concept of volunteering being good for society. I found myself wanting to cheer at some of his findings.

While many of the existing research pieces relating to volunteerism are based on outcome, on what volunteers accomplish and at what value to society, Luks's research and the resulting book look at what happens to the individual while volunteering. What happens to the physical and psychological health of the volunteer? What happens to stress levels and tension, to pain levels and actual medical conditions?

Subsequent to an open ended survey in a popular woman's magazine and follow-up appearances on morning television, a survey was developed and sent to over 3,300 volunteers at more than twenty interested organizations across the United States. Although the research methods might be questioned by a purest, the results leave little space for doubt. Volunteering is good for the body and the soul!

Luks's book presents numerous cases that demonstrate improvement in the health of the person who reaches out to help others; that this improvement in health passes through phases which range from the immediate high, not unlike that of a runner, to a calmness that involves an increased feeling of self worth; that those who experience this "healthy helping syndrome" also perceive themselves to be physically healthier, with a direct relationship between the frequency of volunteering and the increased health benefits; and that the remembrance of the helping incidences causes the health benefit to return.

If it is true that 45% of the adult population volunteers then we should be super healthy; however, this feeling of wellness comes from direct "one on one" helping rather than being involved in the background work of envelope stuffing, donating a can of food or writing a news release. These are words that those of us deeply involved in volunteer administration need

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to hear if we are to avoid burnout in ourselves as well as in key volunteers.

Planning a "busman's holiday" may be a necessity to keep the professionals healthy and happy. This book certainly gives credence to those of us who have chosen to spend our vacations participating in workcamps in developing countries rather than putting that money into cruises or traditional vacations. Anyone who has done such volunteering will quickly attest to the "I gained more than I gave" syndrome. Volunteers who take on such projects often live in the most crude dwellings under very questionable sanitary conditions and remain quite healthy. And I can personally attest to how renewing the "high" is each time I give a talk or presentation which relives the helping experience.

Recorded interviews tell of those who had reduced pain, fewer colds and flu, a lessened tendency to overeat, quicker recovery from surgery, fewer migraine headaches, and even a cure of stomach aches as a result of their helping activities. It seems apparent from these findings that greater resources spent in volunteerism would greatly reduce the present health insurance crisis.

While it is stated that 45% of the adult population reports volunteering in some way, not all will receive the health related benefits; however, Luks does caution that the greatest benefit comes from helping strangers. Helping family members does have some benefits; however, this helping is not as stress-reducing as those acts done purely as volunteers. One piece of quoted research, and there are enough studies quoted in this book for those of us who are curious to keep digging for months, states that those who are caring for family members with Alzheimer's disease show an immune system strength 200% lower than people without such a responsibility.

Using extensive references to the theme of "brotherly love" as an historical premise of the world religions and showing how this is played out in a variety of organized religious institutions, the reader finds plenty of Old and New Testament quotes and enough illustrations of the benefits of volunteering to help any clergyperson present an excellent case for a staff position of volunteer coordinator.

Containing interviews with everyone from Mother Theresa to high school dropouts, from stress managers to World War II pilots, the book is easy reading, even at the end of the day. The discussions of endorphins in the system, which is the physical reason for the "runner's high," is made palatable with illustrations and quotes.

Luks comes on strong for the community service component in the public school systems to start at grade three. He suggests that this is an essential part of the healing of the American society from an era of self-centeredness, poor health, urban turmoil, and all else that ails us. Young people as well as adults become more concerned about rights of the elderly or research on AIDS after a few personal encounters with those in hospitals and homes. As a former Peace Corps volunteer, Luks speaks to the issues of world peace and of being part of a world community. It is hard to think about going to war with a country in which you have worked side by side with local citizens.

A concluding list of agencies where one may volunteer is certainly incomplete as it gives only those opportunities related to health. However, each entry is interesting in that it lists, in addition of the number of volunteers needed, the task, the mission of the organization, and the "Helpers High In Return," a practice which might be helpful in listing any volunteer position.

In this present wave of co-dependency literature, talk and organization, I personally found this a refreshing book. Suggesting that by moving beyond ourselves and helping others we begin to feel better, rather than by navel-gazing and getting deeper into the "me-first generation" may not be a popular stand today. Maybe it comes from being a volunteer administrator, maybe from knowing the highs of being a volunteer myself, maybe from watching the increase in the self-esteem of volunteers of all ages, but I think Allan Luks and Peggy Payne are onto something. I'd suggest you take time to read it . . . you'll certainly find a quote for the next board meeting.

Volunteering in the UK

Jacqueline Lane

INTRODUCTION

In the United Kingdom (UK) volunteers traditionally have made a substantial contribution to the activities of the voluntary sector. However, in recent years many voluntary and other organisations in the UK have found it increasingly difficult to recruit new volunteers and even to maintain existing levels of volunteering. This has prompted some talk of a 'crisis' in volunteering (Volunteer Centre UK, 1991).

This, if true, gives cause for considerable concern at the present time as we see a combination of increasing demands on the voluntary sector for service provision and increasing competition for resources. Many voluntary organisations are having to spend more and more time trying to increase donations of both time and money from all potential sources. In this context it becomes very important to have an accurate picture of the extent of current volunteering as a basis for policy.

CHARITIES AID FOUNDATION RESEARCH ON VOLUNTEERING

Since 1985 the Charities Aid Foundation, together with a consortium of national charities, has commissioned an annual survey of giving and volunteering in Britain. The 'Individual Giving and Volunteering Survey,' previously called the 'Charity Household Survey' (Charities Aid Foundation 1985), has been the major source of information about the charitable behaviour of individuals in the UK. The aim is to provide an accurate statistical picture of giving and volunteering by individuals and establish trend data over a period of time as a basis for developing policies to increase charitable donations and volunteering.

The survey involves interviews with a quota sample of over 1000 individuals in Britain. Interviews took place over a one-year period and were conducted face-to-face with the individuals in the sample. Questions were asked about giving in the month prior to the interview, with the aim of reducing the problem of people having to recall what they had done over a longer period.

Respondents were shown a list of 39 voluntary activities and asked which they had done in the last month, and whether they had done any volunteering in other ways.

About a third (29%) of respondents reported that they had done at least one of the listed activities or some other voluntary activity in the last month. However only 8% had been involved in more than two voluntary activities, and only 2% in more than five. The mean and median (*i.e.*, typical) number of activities undertaken by each individual was 0.7. This suggests that people typically undertake a voluntary activity about eight times per year, although many do none and a few do a lot more.

This skewed distribution of voluntary activity is also seen in the pattern of overall time spent volunteering, with 72% of respondents giving no time, 12% giving up to 5 hours and 4% giving more than 30 hours. This means that the typical time spent volunteering was quite small— about 40 minutes per person in the month prior to interview.

Many of the listed voluntary activities were undertaken by few respondents, so it is difficult to establish and analyze patterns in the data. We can, however, identify several activities which were undertaken more commonly. These include

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visiting the sick or elderly (6% of respondents), helping with a club or activity (5% of respondents), collecting things to be sold (5% of respondents), selling raffle tickets/organising a raffle (5% of respondents) organising/helping at a jumble sale (5%) and serving on a committee (4%). Less common activities such as answering a telephone helpline, parish visiting and campaigning for a voluntary organisation tend to be done by people who also undertake other activities. In other words, people undertaking less popular activities tended to be more involved in several types of volunteering.

The pattern of total time spent on each voluntary activity by all respondents broadly reflects the number of times a particular activity is undertaken, so that visiting the elderly and sick and helping in a club or activity each represent 12% of total volunteer hours. At an aggregate level there is a 95% probability that volunteering by all adults in Britain over the year from July 1989–June 1990 totaled between two billion and three billion hours.

Looking at different groups of people according to their sex, age, and social class we can see variations in the voluntary activities undertaken. However, despite these differences it cannot be predicted, except to a minor extent, how much time people will give to volunteering on the basis of their sex, age, household income and similar factors.

Women were more likely than men to be involved in voluntary activities in the past month, although this was a very weak relationship. There are some variations in the type of activity undertaken—for example, women were more likely than men to be involved in collecting things to sell and organising or helping at a jumble sale.

The age of the respondent was also related to the type and extent of volunteering undertaken; for example, people in the 25 to 44 age group were less likely to volunteer, but more likely to give more time when they did. More older and younger people visited the elderly and sick and more middle-aged people served on committees. Again, the relationships were very weak.

Looking at volunteering across different socio-economic groups, it is the interme-
diate non-manual workers who have the highest proportion undertaking more than 10 hours volunteering in the past month (25%), followed by managers and professional workers (14%) and then the lower socio-economic groups in turn.

Respondents were also shown a card listing 11 statements of different reasons for volunteering. The most common response selected by 47% of volunteers was that they 'wanted to do something useful or help others.' Other popular responses were 'had an interest in the activity or work' (22%) and 'thought I would enjoy the work or feel needed' (21%). Also, many (17%) said they volunteer because they were asked.

More general questions on attitudes to charities and charitable giving revealed that most respondents thought that the government should take the basic responsibility and should not rely on charities. However, people do prefer charities to step in rather than leave the needy unsupported, and this is reflected in their willingness to volunteer.

OTHER RESEARCH ON
VOLUNTEERING IN THE UK

During the 1980s there have been several other major surveys of volunteering in the UK. The Office of Population Censuses and Surveys (OPCS) conducts the General Household Survey annually, randomly sampling about 15,000 household in Britain. In 1981 and 1987 the survey contained questions on voluntary activity, aiming to estimate the proportion of the population doing voluntary work, their characteristics and what kinds of voluntary work people do. In the 1981 survey 23% of respondents had done some voluntary work in the previous 12 months, and 15% had in the previous 4 weeks. Only 9% of those interviewed undertook at least one activity regularly each week.

In 1981 and 1991 the Volunteer Centre UK conducted a National Survey of Volunteering (Volunteer Centre UK 1991) which aimed to establish a more detailed picture of volunteering in England, Scotland and Wales. The findings of these surveys vary considerably from the findings of the 'General Household Survey' and the Charities Aid Foundation 'Individual

Survey of Giving and Volunteering.' The 1991 'National Survey of Volunteering' found that 51% of people over the age of 18 had volunteered at least once during the previous 12 months, whilst 31% had volunteered at least once during the last month. Over 75% of respondents had been involved in informal neighbourhood activity.

DISCUSSION

The differences between the surveys can be explained to a large extent by the problem of defining voluntary activity. Volunteering may include all unpaid work, or just unpaid work which is in the service of others. It may exclude services to family and friends. Volunteering may include all informal care, e.g. shopping and visiting the sick, or just activities undertaken through an organisation. Finally, it may include work for statutory or private organisations. The Volunteer Centre Survey definition is quite wide and includes all unpaid work in the service of others, whether on behalf of an organisation or not. Problems of definition can be reduced by showing respondents a list of activities, rather than just asking them if they have undertaken any voluntary activities. The latter avoids relying on people's own definition of volunteering, and this is the approach adopted in the surveys mentioned.

A further source of difference between the surveys is the fact that the Volunteer Centre Survey is exclusively on volunteering, which is likely to reveal a greater extent of voluntary activity than a more general survey.

The substantial differences between the figures remain something of a mystery; but it seems that despite talk of a crisis, volunteering is still a common activity for many people in the UK today. The worrying fact identified by the 'Individual Giving and Volunteering Survey' is that volunteering is not increasing from year to year. The level of volunteering, in terms of the number of voluntary activities undertaken in the past month, was almost the same in 1988–89 and 1989–90, with 70% and 71% respectively reporting that they had done no volunteering in the past month. This trend, along with the uneven spread of volunteering between voluntary organisations, perhaps explains the difficulties groups face in recruiting and maintaining volunteer levels at a time when increasing demands are being placed on organisations throughout the voluntary sector to supply more services with fewer resources.

NOTE

As part of the continuing research programme at the Charities Aid Foundation, successive surveys of individual charitable behaviour continue to fill gaps in knowledge, enabling those involved in the voluntary sector to address the issue of how to increase the future levels of donations of both time and money. The most recent figures on the extent and nature of volunteering in the UK contained in the 1991 'Individual Survey of Giving and Volunteering' was published by the Charities Aid Foundation in May 1992 (ISBN 0 904757 58 7). This will provide invaluable up-to-date information for all policy makers and fundraisers in the voluntary sector.

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Volunteers: The Overlooked and Undervalued Asset

Linda L. Darling and Roberta D. Stavole

INTRODUCTION

Volunteers play an invaluable role in the nonprofit sector. At the very least, every nonprofit organization must have a volunteer Board of Directors, but many could not fulfill their missions, without extensive volunteer involvement. Volunteers fulfill a variety of functions ranging from organizing mass mailings to providing professional services. It is conservatively estimated that in 1990, over 20.5 billion hours of volunteer services were given in the United States valued by Independent Sector at approximately $170 billion.

Volunteers are not free labor. Organizations must invest time and money in the recruitment, training and rewarding of volunteers. They must recognize and willingly bear those costs if they are to maintain a strong, well-qualified work force (American Red Cross, 1990). This expense is often disguised on the balance sheet within other line items such as personnel costs, making it difficult to accurately account for the cost of maintaining a volunteer staff. While a few nonprofit organizations include the value of volunteer labor in their annual reports, it does not show up as either an expense or income on the Operating Statement. By neglecting to include the expense and benefit gained from using volunteer labor, nonprofit organizations are not accurately reflecting the true value of their accomplishments. Because it does not appear on the financial statements, such value is not reflected in other economic measures such as the Gross National Product (GNP). It is the contention here that nonprofit organizations should include the value of volunteer time on their balance sheets and that it should be taken into account when economists determine the level of productivity in the United States.

VOLUNTEERS BRING BENEFITS

Volunteers enable nonprofit organizations to maximize their resources by providing manual labor, skills, governance, and access to other resources for which the organization would otherwise pay. Citizens and corporations are willing to donate time because nonprofit and government organizations work for the good of the public, putting all of their resources into the fulfillment of a charitable, educational or religious mission, or the mutual benefit of the members.

Aside from actual labor, volunteers bring numerous non-quantifiable benefits to the organizations which they serve. They are seen as more credible and empathetic by the public and the people they serve, are able to be more objective as policy makers and are more free to criticize than salaried staff. Volunteers can be powerful advocates with the media and public policy makers (Ellis, 1986). Volunteers are conduits for communication both into and out of the organization, effectively helping the organization take the pulse of the community and enhancing the organization's image in the community. Volunteers frequently bring energy and a "can do" attitude to the organizational culture. "They are considered central to the organization,

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not mere extensions of the paid staff . . . They bring with them experience, skill, dedication, clout, passion and unparalleled ability to reach out to the American Public" (American Red Cross, 1990, p.1).

Interest in quantifying the value of volunteer work is increasing. Funding sources demand to know the return for their investments in volunteer programs. Administrators of volunteer programs look for reliable cost-benefit formulas when they receive a directive from an agency head or city council to justify the return of the volunteer program. Individual volunteer programs publish annual reports proclaiming the worth of their cumulative volunteer efforts, although these totals are rarely seen on the balance sheet (Karn, 1982). Volunteers also contribute more money to charitable causes then non-volunteers. In 1989, the average charitable contribution per volunteer was $1022, three times higher than the non-volunteer's average contribution of $359. Comparatively, volunteers give 2.6% of their household income, while non-volunteers contribute 1.1% (Hodgkinson & Weitzman, 1990).

Care must be taken when monetary value is placed on the volunteer product. By fixing a dollar value to volunteer time, one may be led to believe that volunteers replace paid staff. The ethic that "volunteers supplement, not supplant, paid staff" is one of the commandments of volunteer administration. We must also remember that by quantifying volunteer value, the intrinsic value of the volunteer contribution as previously discussed is not captured (Karn, 1982).

DETERMINING THE VALUE OF VOLUNTEER CONTRIBUTIONS

There is currently no uniform method used to determine the value of volunteer labor. Most methods grossly underestimate the equivalent worth of the volunteer work, "the volunteer donation." Listed below are some examples of methods which do not give a true value to volunteers worth:

- One method is to multiply the total number of volunteer hours from all of the volunteers by the current minimum wage as established by the Fed-

eral Government. This results in a significant underestimation, since many volunteers are involved in tasks that require greater skills than those required in a minimum wage job. The method of multiplying volunteer hours by minimum wage is blatantly apologetic and results in the most significant underestimations (Karn, 1982).

It is important to note that Independent Sector does use the minimum wage dollar amount in determining the value of volunteer time for both informal and formal volunteering by teens between the ages of 14 and 17 years. The minimum wage value in this case is a close estimation taking into account the skill level of most volunteer activity performed by youth (Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1990).

- Another method frequently used is to assign the value of the national median hourly wage and multiply it times the number of volunteer hours. Currently this value is $10.36, as assigned by U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics. This method also leads to an underestimation of the equivalent worth of volunteer work, since it does not take into account the skill level of the volunteer.

- Using an hourly wage half way between the lowest and highest wages of the organization or agency as the multiplier grossly underestimates the value of volunteer work. This method also does not take into account the skill level of the volunteer, which will lead to an underestimation.

- Another method which is highly inaccurate is based on the earning power of the volunteer. This may not lead to an underestimation, but to an inaccuracy in the actual worth of the contribution. For example, an accountant volunteers to clean up vacant lots for an agency. Using this method, the value of the volunteer time would be the accountant's salary, which is much higher than the value of the actual volunteer activity taking place. On the other hand, if the accountant assisted the agency with setting up a budget for a new program, the earning power value would be accurate

for the volunteer work. This example clearly shows the inaccuracy of using the earning power method as a way to measure volunteer value.

Several methods which are far more accurate for computing the value of volunteer donations have been developed. The authors recommend that agencies choose the method which most closely meets their needs until industry-wide standards have been established.

- When Independent Sector computes the overall value of time donated by volunteers 18 years and older to the nonprofit sector, they multiply the total number of volunteer hours times $10.91. This figure is based on the average hourly wage for nonagricultural workers as published in the Economic Report of the President of the United States in 1989, increased by 12% to estimate fringe benefits (Weitzman, personal communication, Nov. 1991). As stated previously, for volunteers 14 to 17 years of age, the minimum hourly wage of $3.35 is used as a measurement. This value is assigned to teens because of the basic skill level of the majority of volunteer positions that they fill (Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1990).
- The equivalency method was developed by G. Neil Karn. Karn states that the true value of volunteer work should be based at the fair market value of the same paid job. It is the value of the volunteer time that becomes the "actual worth of the contribution, not the volunteers' earning power" (Karn, 1982). For example, if an attorney volunteers at a food bank as a food packer, then volunteers to do some legal consultation for the same nonprofit agency, there would be two volunteer hourly rates assigned this volunteer, one for the foodpacker assignment and one for the legal consultation.

"To formulate an equivalency rate for a particular job, carefully assess the duties performed and the knowledge, skills, and abilities demanded by the position. This requires that all volunteer positions have specific job descriptions so they can be compared to standard employment classi-

fications" (Karn, 1982). Karn has developed a model work sheet that adds the value of benefits to assist in computing the hourly value of an equivalent paid position. The hourly value is then multiplied by the number of hours donated. (Appendix A includes this model work sheet and two examples.)

Many professional volunteer administrators believe this method to be the most accurate; however, determining the equivalency can be very time consuming. If there are many different job positions, it will of course take longer to establish this system within the organization, but it is very efficient once it is implemented. It also requires the involvement of and continued communication with the organization's personnel director, presenting the opportunity to develop further support for volunteers throughout the organization.

- A short-cut version of Karn's Equivalency Model is to multiply the hourly equivalent by a standard percentage which represents fringe benefits, added to the hourly rate and multiplied by the number of volunteer hours.

IMPRESSIVE STATISTICS

Independent Sector estimates that, in 1990, 98.4 million Americans over the age of 18 (54% of total adult population) volunteered. This totals 20.5 billion hours including 15.77 billion hours of formal commitments to organizations and 4.8 billion hours of informal assistance. The formal volunteering represented an equivalent of 9.2 billion full time employees for an estimated value of $170 billion at $10.91 an hour (Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1990). These numbers represent the estimated total of all volunteering in the United States, including for social service, arts, mutual benefit, and religious organizations, and volunteers to public sector volunteer programs and services.

The majority of Americans do their volunteer work within religious and charitable nonprofit organizations. In 1989, 19% of volunteer labor was given to religious organizations, 15% to health organizations, 14% to youth organizations, 12% to human services organizations and 11% to educational organizations. The remaining

29% went to recreational, general fund-raising, citizenship, political, community action, social welfare, and cultural organizations (Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1990). Volunteer labor accounts for 40% of the labor force of service nonprofits (Weisbrod, 1988).

These impressive statistics, however, are based on sketchy data and inaccurate computing methods. Independent Sector gathers its data by surveying approximately 2,775 families on their giving and volunteering habits, then extrapolating these figures to create national statistics. Organizations which involve volunteers are not surveyed. Were there a uniform reporting method for individual organizations and agencies which involve volunteers, data on the type and value of volunteer contributions could be more accurate.

WHEN VOLUNTEER DONATIONS ARE DISREGARDED

Some nonprofit organizations include in their annual reports the number of volunteer hours donated or their approximate value. Sometimes this appears near the Balance Sheet or Operating Statement, so that it can be compared to the financial status of the organization, sometimes it is included in the narrative portion of the annual report. Either way, it may receive only a cursory glance, and the figure is not based on any standard method of calculation. This approach does not give the proper weight to volunteer activity and misleads the public, funders, directors and sometimes even management to undervalue the role of volunteers in the organization. Since, in some nonprofits, volunteers are the primary providers of service, this oversight can be very dangerous. With the new emphasis on efficient management of nonprofits and the "bottom line approach," the value of volunteer time must be included in the financial accounts of the organization. Not only will it make the job of management and evaluation easier, it will, in turn, have an impact on the national figures on employment and productivity.

Nonprofit organizations and governments must prepare annual financial reports which are governed by Generally Accepted Accounting Principles. These statements include a Balance Sheet which lists assets, liabilities and the fund balance as of a certain day (usually the last day of the fiscal year), an Operating Statement which is a statement of financial activity (including sources and amount of income and expenditures), and a Statement of Cash Flows which shows kinds and amounts of sources of funds and the uses for these funds. They report actual cash flow and the estimated cash value of assets. The purpose of these reports is to give a clear picture of the financial activity and fiscal health of the organization, and are used by the organization's management, funders, and the public to determine if the organization is being operated efficiently and legally. The Internal Revenue Service may request an audit of these documents if there is some question about the source or use of income. These financial reports sometimes are used in an evaluation of the organization's effectiveness, by comparing ratios of administrative expenses, personnel costs, fundraising, endowments and grants. The emphasis here is on the flow of cash, on measuring dollars.

These analyses miss an important aspect of the organization's operation: volunteer activity. As we have seen, it is possible to give a realistic and meaningful dollar value to the work of volunteers, but because their work does not involve the exchange of actual money, it is not carried on the books or included in the financial statements. Their contribution does have actual value, though, and enables the organization to maximize its resources in pursuit of its goals. By placing a monetary value on volunteer work, the organization can prepare an accurate cost/benefit analysis, and in so doing place emphasis on the necessity for a well managed and fully funded volunteer management program.

. . . volunteers are invisible when the agency presents its assets, liabilities, cost-effectiveness, and resources to the public. And that invisibility also too frequently results in a lack of financial support being given to volunteer efforts. Non-profits always "spend money to make money" and therefore account for fund raising expenses. But

volunteer involvement is not seen as a "cost center." If we acknowledge that volunteers are a form of revenue and support, perhaps we will also budget accordingly so that we can "raise people" as well as raise funds (Ellis, 1991).

The value of volunteer work should be carried on the books as if it involved the actual exchange of money. The contributions of volunteer time can be seen as equal to the contribution of money which would then be used to purchase labor. The same work is performed, having equal monetary value to the organization (although there are numerous nonquantifiable benefits to involving volunteers, as outlined above), while transaction costs are slightly lower. Since cash donations are carried on the books and appear in financial reports, volunteer donations can also be included in these reports. Generally Accepted Accounting Principles are being expanded to accommodate the complexities of nonprofit accounting, and although the Financial Accounting Standards Board recently issued a new standard which directed organizations that utilize volunteers to include donations of services as assets, relatively few organizations do so (Chronical of Philanthropy, 1990). The Internal Revenue Service currently asks nonprofits to report the value of donated goods and services on Form 990, which they require nonprofits to file annually, but it does not allow them to include this figure as support or expense (Ellis, p. 150). It is possible that the IRS will amend its Form 990, especially if nonprofits and accountants push hard for the change.

On the Operating Statement, the category of volunteer donations would be listed as one area of public support, along with grants, gifts, and fundraising, thus increasing the total income of the organization. The volunteer donations would also appear under expenses, since the work was actually performed, just as if the cash donation had been used to purchase labor. The net result is that they would cancel each other out and the fund balance would remain unchanged. (See Appendix B).

This would, however, give a truer picture of the financial activity of the organization or agency. When ratios of costs and sources of income are used to evaluate the organization, volunteer donations will then enter in the picture. Their inclusion may show an organization to be far more efficient and to have a greater spread of community support. For instance, if the percent of program costs was being compared to the percent of administrative and building maintenance costs as a measure of how much of the organization's efforts go into programs, the inclusion of donations gives a truer picture of the total of program costs. By omitting volunteer donations, although the amount of dollars spent on programs is apparent, it may be considerably less than the true program cost if the agency involves many volunteers. Likewise, including volunteer donations as a source of income will demonstrate the organization's ability to diversify income and gather community support. Indeed, during recessionary periods in the economy, volunteer donations may be the organization's most stable source of income.

> Properly presented, inclusion of donated time and materials on your financial statements should impress potential funders with the degree of support demonstrated by the community and with your managerial sophistication at recognizing the value of such support (Ellis, 1986).

IMPLICATIONS ON A NATIONAL LEVEL

Including volunteer donations in financial statements will facilitate the collection of accurate statistics about the activities of volunteers overall, production in the nonprofit and government sectors, and economic activity in the nation. Independent Sector has begun the practice of computing volunteer donations as part of the overall financial activity of the nonprofit sector. In 1987, the assigned value of volunteer time (computed at the average hourly wage) increased actual operating expenditures by 33%, from almost $262 billion to more than $348 billion (Hodgkinson & Weitzman, 1988). Weisbrod strongly recommends that more research be conducted into the extent and value of volunteer donations.

A major form of resources to nonprofits—volunteer labor—is another mystery, in large part because official labor force statistics disregard it; given the evidence that the market value of volunteer labor actually exceeds nonprofits' revenues from donations, the inattention to volunteerism handicaps our understanding of how the nonprofit sector and, indeed, the labor market as a whole functions (Weisbrod, 1988, p. 167).

Volunteer donations are not taken into account by the U.S. Department of Labor, Department of Commerce, and other government agencies which compute statistics about labor and productivity in the United States, resulting in grossly inaccurate statistics.

By not counting volunteer labor in national statistics on the labor force, we understate both the total number of persons who are engaged in productive activity outside the home and the number of employed persons. In the process we understate the proportion of the labor supply that is "employed" productively outside the home. Moreover, individuals do shift from one activity to another paid employment, volunteer work, housework and other productive activities, formal and informal; by not counting volunteers, we do record such shifting as changes in the size of the labor force and in the number of persons "employed" and "unemployed" (Weisbrod, 1988, p. 131).

For example, if a man quit his job as a lawyer to raise his children, and also started to volunteer as a trustee for a nonprofit hospital, he would no longer be counted as active in the labor force. Not only would his child rearing activities not be included in measures of productivity, but his donation of time and expertise to the hospital would be disregarded.

The volunteer force is especially important to the nonprofit economy. Volunteer donations represented 41% of the total employment in the nonprofit sector in 1987. Seventy-six percent of total employment in religious organizations, 66% in

arts and cultural organizations; 59% in civic, social and fraternal organizations; 41% in social and legal services; 24% in education and 20% in health services was provided by volunteers (Hodgkinson & Weitzman, 1989). This is the equivalent of 11.4 million full-time employees, and represents 6% of the total labor force of the United States (Weisbrod, 1988). Looking at the labor force as a whole in the United States, the proportion of working age population with "paying jobs" is 61.5% as of July 1991, which is a total labor force of 125.5 million full time equivalent (FTE) workers (U.S. Department of Labor, 1991). Adding the 9.2 million FTE volunteers, would total a labor force of 134.7 million people. This means that 6.8% of our labor force is being overlooked.

The Gross National Product is the total value of the nation's annual output of goods and services. This is monetized trade only, not including economic activity that does not have a dollar value attached, such as volunteer donations, barter, and unpaid work at home. In 1989, the GNP was $5,200.8 billion (Bureau of the Census, 1990). Independent Sector puts volunteer donations for 1989, based on a $10.91 per hour value, at $170 billion. Therefore, if the GNP were to be more accurate, it would be increased by the $170 billion of volunteer donations for a total of $5,370.8 billion. This represents nearly 3% of the total GNP. The implication is that the U.S. economy is 3% more productive than is reported.

It is startling how little is known about this large and growing segment of the economy. It's overall contribution to national product remains largely a mystery. . . . An expanded statistical program could be carried out by existing agencies . . . such as the Census Bureau and the Bureau of Labor Statistics (Weisbrod, 1988).

ALTERNATIVE THEORIES

Why is it that volunteer donations are not valued enough to be included on Operating Statements and considered assets, and volunteers not counted among productive Americans? The economists who developed the dominant economic

theories, including even Marx, considered only those goods and services which were produced in the private (business) sector and traded for money. Consequently, when economists talk about the "economist pie" or compile statistics which reflect productivity and economic activity, they look at only monetary transactions. Non-monetized transactions, such as barter, volunteer work, work done at home without pay, and the value of natural resources do not enter into the picture. Only recently have they realized that activity in the public and nonprofit sectors, although their purposes and behaviors are very different from those of the private sector, is truly productive. Furthermore, economists assume that there is a limit to the amount of product available to consumers. When considering natural resources (fresh air, earth, etc.), volunteer labor, and work done at home to benefit one's family, is there really a limit to these products?

Hazel Henderson, a "new age economist," has developed a cutting critique of traditional economic thinking. She prefers to use a holistic model of which traditional economic theories and measurements are a small portion. In a demonstration of non-linear thinking, Henderson depicts the Total Society as a sphere. The sphere is quartered, with only one quarter representing the monetized sector of production, jobs, consumption, economic growth and profits. The three other sectors include the non-monetized social system (laws, customs, culture, the environment), unpaid work (volunteerism, hidden social costs, government risks and infrastructure), and the market and pride system which govern social choices and consumer guidance. In Henderson's model, those costs which are considered externalities (unintended benefits and costs of production not benefiting or borne by the producer) are no longer excluded from economic consideration.

Henderson even turns the "economic pie" theory around and develops an "economic cake." The private sector layer on top rests on the public sector layer, resting on the social-cooperative economy which is supported by Mother Nature. In this scheme, the social-cooperative layer which includes volunteering, bartering, unpaid

work at home (including child rearing and care of the sick and elderly, and home-based production) are clearly a part of the economy with value. Although Henderson does not specifically advocate placing a monetary value on volunteer donations, by doing so a picture of the approximate size of each layer develops. A deeper appreciation of non-monetized trade in general and the contributions volunteers make to society as a whole also develops. When volunteerism is valued by society, as evidenced by its inclusion in economic theories and economic indicators, the value of volunteer donations will then be part of the Operating Statements of those organizations which utilize volunteers.

Another interesting model which places more emphasis on the public and nonprofit sectors in general, and volunteerism in particular, is emerging. Several researchers of the nonprofit sector have proposed that there are really more than three sectors (public, private and nonprofit) in our society. Several have proposed that there are four, but David Horton Smith proposes five;

- The Business Sector: Typical of the private sector in the more common three sector model. The main activity is economic exchange in the pursuit of profit. For all intents and purposes, there is no voluntary labor.
- The Government Sector: The main activity of governments is to produce public goods, financed through taxation. Volunteers and volunteer programs abound in governments. Indeed, in small municipalities the entire governmental body may be composed of volunteers.
- The Public Benefit Sector: This sector is composed of nonprofit/voluntary organizations which produce collective goods and services (hospitals, schools, social services, arts). They are financed through contributions and service fees. The majority of voluntary activity occurs in this sector, and all organizations are governed by volunteers.
- The Membership Sector: Membership Associations (members joined together to accomplish some mutually beneficial goal through collective

activity) are the typical form of this sector. Most typical are those which produce private goods benefitting members directly (unions, professional associations) but also included are membership associations which seek collective goods, such as Sierra Club. This sector is composed almost entirely of volunteers, with perhaps a small staff to maintain the business affairs of the association.

• The Personal Sector: The personal sector is composed of people and informal groups who work together for mutual benefit based on caring intimacy. Family, friends and neighbors are the basic units, which may extend to social groups, co-workers or other members of the community. Private goods which can be individually enjoyed or which benefit the family or group are pursued, and income is limited to personal wages. All activity in this sector is voluntary but informal and thus does not appear in any data (Smith, 1990).

Unfortunately, Smith does not define in which sector religious activity takes place. While church membership may seem to fall in the personal sector, how then do we place volunteer work, organized by churches, which produces collective goods, such as soup kitchens? While Smith, a sociologist, does not analyze the economic activity of these five sectors, it is obvious that economic activity takes place in all five, although in the personal sector it is much harder to track. Volunteer activity occurs in all but the business sector. The membership and public benefit sectors are most dependent on volunteer donations, but the government sector benefits by volunteer donations, and it is in these sectors the value of volunteer donations should be computed. Interestingly, the public benefit, membership and government sectors correspond to different tax-exempt codes granted by the IRS. Indeed, these sectors may be determined as much by their tax status as their economic or sociological functions. By segmenting society into five, rather than three, sectors the importance of volunteers to each sector and the extent of their participation is emphasized. In some sense it may be important to distinguish mutual benefit volunteer activity from public benefit volunteerism and government volunteers.

CONCLUSION

Clearly, volunteers are intrinsic to our social fabric. Three of five sectors depend on volunteers for their very functioning, and the half of our economy which involves monetized trade depends on the health and stability of the non-monetized layer. Despite the importance of volunteers' contributions of time, skill, and caring they are ignored by economists, financial managers, and the administrators of the very organizations to which they contribute.

Most of the economists and researchers studied here advocated further research into the role of volunteers in the nonprofit and public sectors. The authors heartily agree. Volunteering, whether it be through religious belief, in community agencies, serving a term in a state or local office, or just helping out should be quantified, so its extent may be measured, where and when it occurs, and its role in the economic activity of the nation. Volunteer work of any type is truly productive; it has monetary value to the organization and the individual or public which receives the benefit, and produces intrinsic, non-quantifiable benefits to the volunteer. Furthermore, financial contributions by individuals who volunteer are three times greater than non-volunteers' contributions, continuing to replenish those organizations which they serve.

Including the monetary value of time volunteers give (however that is determined) in the organization's Operating Statement is only a small step. But that will enable researchers to determine the true contributions which the nonprofit sector makes to our society, in turn making it easier for nonprofits to raise funds, manage themselves, and recruit still more volunteers. As it becomes common practice, government sources will begin to incorporate those figures in other economic measures which have become commonly understood. Perhaps it will encourage economists, sociologists and the like to embrace new ways of thinking

about how our economy functions. Perhaps we will begin to think about ourselves in new ways.

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APPENDIX A
MODEL WORK SHEET
TRUE VALUE ASSESSMENT COMPUTATIONS (REVISED)

I. VOLUNTEER JOBS COVERED:

I. EQUIVALENT PAID CLASSIFICATION:

II. ANNUAL SALARY FOR EQUIVA-
LENT PAID CLASSIFICATION

II. SALARY:

III. VALUE OF BENEFITS PACKAGE

III. FICA:
Retirement:
Health Insurance:
Life Insurance:
Workmen's Compensation Insurance:
Other Benefits: _____

_____ + _____

TOTAL VALUE OF BENEFITS = ══════

IV. VALUE OF TOTAL
COMPENSATION PACKAGE

IV. Annual Salary =

Benefits package + _____

ANNUAL COMPENSATION PACKAGE = ══════

V. ESTABLISHED ANNUAL
WORK HOURS FOR AGENCY

V. _____ hours/wk x 52 weeks =

VI. HOURS PAID BUT NOT
WORKED ANNUALLY

VI. Annual Leave =
Paid Holidays =
Paid Sick Leave = + _____

TOTAL HOURS PAID
BUT NOT WORKED = ══════

VII. HOURS ACTUALLY WORKED
ANNUALLY

VII. ESTABLISHED ANNUAL HOURS =
HOURS PAID BUT NOT WORKED = − _____

ACTUAL WORK HOURS
ANNUALLY = ══════

VIII. TRUE HOURLY VALUE

VIII. TOTAL COMPENSATION ÷
Actual Hours =

IX. NOTES ON THE COMPUTATIONS:

IX. NOTES:

EXAMPLE

TRUE VALUE ASSESSMENT PROCESS
Member of the Board of Directors for a Non-Profit Agency

1. Equivalent Job Title: Executive Director
    Annual Salary - $30,000 (a)

2. FICA: A $30,000 × .0670 $ 2,010.00
    Retirement: $1500 lump sum per yr.   1,500.00 (b)
    Health Insurance: $40.42 × 12   485.04 (c)
    Workmen's Compensation: $.42 per $100   126.00

    TOTAL BENEFITS $ 4,121.04

    Annual Salary $30,000.00
    Benefits   + 4,121.04

    ANNUAL COMPENSATION PACKAGE $34,121.04

3. Annual Work Hours for Agency = 2080 hours
    (40 hours × 52 weeks)

4. Annual Leave @ 13 days per year   104 hours (d)
    8 Paid Holidays   64 hours
    4 Personal Leave Days   32 hours (d)
    4 Sick Leave Days (Average)   32 hours (e)

                                                                         232 hours

    Annual Work Hours for Agency   2080 hours
    Paid Hours Not Worked   −232 hours

    ACTUAL WORK HOURS
    ANNUALLY   1848 hours

5. $34, 121 ÷ 1848 hours = $18.46 per hour

NOTES ON THE COMPUTATIONS

(a) This non-profit agency quotes no hourly wage for its executive director. (b) Retirement contribution for all employees is a single lump sum of $1500 per year. (c) Health insurance is offered for single member coverage only. Extra family coverage must be assumed totally at the employee's cost. No life insurance is offered as part of the benefits package. (d) Both annual leave and personal leave are considered a liability as unused leave balances in these two categories are paid off upon termination. (e) An average usage of four days has been estimated based on prior experience. Unused sick leave balances are not paid off upon termination, and therefore are not a factor in the computations.

EXAMPLE

TRUE VALUE ASSESSMENT PROCESS
Little League Coach

1. Equivalent Job Title: Playground Supervisor
    Annual Salary – $9288.00
    Hourly Wage – $4.46

2. FICA: $9288 × .0670 $ 622.30
    Retirement: $9288 × .1037   963.16
    Health Insurance: $67.02/mo. × 12   804.24
    Life Insurance: $9288 × .01   92.88
    Workmen's Compensation Insurance: 150.00

    TOTAL BENEFITS $ 2,632.58

    Annual Salary $ 9,288.00
    Benefits Package   + 2,632.58

    ANNUAL COMPENSATION PACKAGE $11,920.58

3. Annual Work Hours for Agency = 2080 hours
    (40 hours × 52 weeks)

4. Annual Leave @ 12 days per year   96 hours
    11 Paid Holidays   88 hours
    6 Paid Sick Leave Days (average)   48 hours

                                                           232 hours

    Annual Work Hours for Agency   2080 hours
    Paid Hours Not Worked   −232 hours
    ACTUAL HOURS WORKED
    ANNUALLY   1848 hours

5. $11,920.58 ÷ 1848 hours = $6.45 hour

APPENDIX B
HOMETOWN AGENCY
STATEMENT OF SUPPORT, REVENUE, AND EXPENSES
and CHANGES IN FUND BALANCES
Year Ended December 31, 19X2
with Comparative Totals for 19X1

| | 19X2 Current Funds | | Total All Funds | |
	Unrestricted	Restricted	19X2	19X1
Public support and revenue:				
Public support:				
Contributions	$352,000	$47,000	$399,000	$360,000
Special events				
(net of direct costs of				
$42,000 in 19X2				
and $30,000 in 19X1)	40,000	—	40,000	39,000
	392,000	47,000	439,000	399,000
Donated time (note X)	**43,000**	**—**	**43,000**	**39,000**
Total public support	435,000	47,000	482,000	438,000
Revenue:				
Membership dues	8,000	—	8,000	5,000
Investment income	8,000	2,000	10,000	7,000
Miscellaneous	2,000	—	2,000	2,000
Total revenue	18,000	2,000	20,000	14,000
Total support and revenue	453,000	49,000	502,000	452,000
Expenses:				
Program services:				
Program X	76,000	—	76,000	64,000
Program Y	80,000	49,000	129,000	120,000
Professional education and training	49,000	—	49,000	45,000
Community services	50,000	—	50,000	45,000
Total program services	255,000	49,000	304,000	274,000
Supporting services:				
Management & general	87,000	—	87,000	83,000
Fundraising	67,000	—	67,000	60,000
Total supporting services	154,000	—	154,000	143,000
Total expenses	409,000	49,000	$458,000	$417,000
Excess (deficiency) of				
public support and				
revenue over expenses	44,000	(2,000)		
Fund balances, beginning of year	162,000	22,000		
Fund balances, end of year	$206,000	$20,000		

In these two illustrations, "note X" would probably be included in the *Summary of Significant Accounting Policies*, explaining that donated time and materials are recorded on the financial records and the method of valuation used.

APPENDIX B

HOMETOWN AGENCY
STATEMENT OF FUNCTIONAL EXPENSES
Year Ended December 31, 19X2
with Comparative Totals for 19X1

	19X2									
	Program Services					Supporting Services			Total Expenses	
	Program X	Program Y	Prof. Educ. & Trng.	Com- munity Services	Total	Manage- ment & General	Fund- raising	Total	19X2	19X1
Salaries	$35,000	$62,000	$25,000	$26,000	$148,000	$31,000	$36,000	$67,000	$215,000	$195,000
Donated time (note X)	15,000	20,000	—	—	35,000	8,000	—	8,000	43,000	39,000
Employee benefits	2,000	3,000	2,000	2,000	9,000	2,000	3,000	5,000	14,000	10,000
Payroll taxes, etc.	1,000	2,000	1,000	1,000	5,000	1,000	2,000	3,000	8,000	9,000
Total staff expenses	53,000	87,000	28,000	29,000	197,000	42,000	41,000	83,000	280,000	253,000
Professional fees	1,000	5,000	3,000	2,000	11,000	5,000	3,000	8,000	19,000	17,000
Supplies	2,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	11,000	7,000	5,000	12,000	23,000	25,000
Telephone	2,000	6,000	1,000	2,000	11,000	6,000	4,000	10,000	21,000	18,000
Postage	2,000	2,000	1,000	1,000	6,000	7,000	1,000	8,000	14,000	12,000
Occupancy	5,000	8,000	3,000	3,000	19,000	4,000	4,000	8,000	27,000	22,000
Rental of equipment	1,000	2,000	—	—	3,000	3,000	2,000	5,000	8,000	6,000
Local transportation	3,000	2,000	1,000	3,000	9,000	2,000	2,000	4,000	13,000	9,000
Printing & publications	4,000	5,000	4,000	4,000	17,000	2,000	1,000	3,000	20,000	24,000
Miscellaneous	1,000	4,000	2,000	2,000	9,000	2,000	2,000	4,000	13,000	12,000
Total expenses before depreciation	74,000	124,000	46,000	49,000	293,000	80,000	65,000	145,000	438,000	398,000
Depreciation of equipment	2,000	5,000	3,000	1,000	11,000	7,000	2,000	9,000	20,000	19,000
Total expenses	$76,000	$129,000	$49,000	$50,000	$304,000	$87,000	$67,000	$154,000	$458,000	$417,000

Letters

A quick note to let you all know how *helpful* and *practical* the Winter '91-'92 book has been to me in the past few weeks. In fact, I've passed on all but one of the articles to appropriate parties!

Diversity is a big issue in our Human Resources Department—and I was *most* pleased to share . . . articles with our Personnel Director, Training Officer and Affirmative Action Officer to help broaden their scope and understanding of volunteerism.

Thanks for the great job and all the time you take to give us a *professional* publication.

> Cordially,
> Joan Brown, Coordinator
> Civic Center Volunteers
> San Rafael, CA

I believe your activities and efforts are important. . . . Your role in the professional journal and its importance in shaping Volunteer Adminstrators' thoughts and actions should not be underestimated. Personally and on behalf of the thousands of lives you directly and indirectly influence — thank you.

> Respectfully,
> Donna D. Lenaghan, PhD
> Independence, MO

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