ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

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AVA

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 non-salaried persons in all types of public, non-profit and for-profit settings. Organizational membership is available for international, regional, state/provincial, district and local organizations which 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; Pluralism; Marketing; and Public Issues. 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 provides, both for its members and for the field at large, are the Certification Program and the Educational Endorsement Program. 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.

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Editor's Note

Do you ever question why *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* includes so many academic submissions?

At its best, data based on hard evidence shines a light on good practice, or identifies areas of weakness. Good analytical research can reinforce intuitive, gut feelings, or lead to a reappraisal of long-held assumptions. Although you may applaud the serious attention given to the field, at times you may think an argument is too broadly or too narrowly focused, or just plain wrong. The editorial board members and I work hard to make sure what we publish is intelligible to all thoughtful readers; no one should lose interest in finishing an article because of terminology, style, or format that is unfamiliar.

I hope you do have strong opinions about what you read here. Your response to what we publish is a reality check from the front lines.

Let us know if articles in this issue have practical application, confirm your own position, or are not grounded in the facts as you know them. We want to showcase the vibrancy of the field of volunteer administration by stimulating a dialogue.

Write us a letter!

Marjorie M. (Mitzi) Bhavnani, C.V.A.
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ABSTRACT

Social work began as the work of volunteers and over time evolved into the professional function that we know today. This article describes the initial role of volunteers in providing needed social services and the reasons for their eventual estrangement from professional social workers. It is suggested that prevailing historical and organizational forces in the twentieth century made this separation virtually inevitable. It is recommended that social workers and volunteers develop a new way to reconnect and renew a vigorous partnership in the twenty-first century.

Social Work and Volunteers: A Case of Shifting Paradigms

Jean Lafrance, Ph.D.

Mary Richmond was a volunteer who became one of the founders of modern social work. She played a key role in its growth as a profession and in the development of social work education. She was one of the first to observe and comment upon the tendency of the social work profession to deny visibility to the volunteer. She warned her colleagues that the issue could be expected to resurface (Colcord and Mann, 1930).

Recent literature has documented social work's lack of interest, and even resistance, to working closely with volunteers (Haeuser and Schwartz, 1980; Lafrance, 1993; Schwartz, 1979; Strickler, 1987). The 1983-84 supplement to the *Encyclopedia of Social Work* reported on a National Forum on Volunteering which proposed that:

> *The resistance of helping professionals to volunteer involvement is ... pervasive.... In field after field—education, social services, museums, libraries and health care—the major barrier in effective volunteer involvement lies in the inability or unwillingness of paid, helping professionals to accept volunteers as legitimate partners in the helping process ...* (Manser, 1983).

Where volunteers are accepted in social service organizations subtle forms of professional resistance to them can occur. Senior level professionals have learned to deal with high-level leadership volunteers whom they attempt to "handle" by engaging them in the processes of developing policy and improving public relations. Professionals at lower levels have volunteers effectively carry out routine tasks, but rarely involve them in roles that require more complex service skills and talents (Schwartz, 1979).

No matter how tempting it may be to decry social work's lack of appreciation of volunteers—their predecessors in the helping professions—an exploration of the factors responsible for this development may be more productive.

One of the greatest changes in human services delivery in this century has been an increase in formal organizational structures including professionalization, regulation and bureaucracy (Cohen, 1960). William James warned society of the dangers that accompany the creation of structured organizations when he wrote: "Most human institutions, by the purely technical and professional manner in which they

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Jean Lafrance, Ph.D., has performed a wide range of senior public service functions in the province of Alberta, Canada, where he maintains a long-standing interest in volunteerism. In 1989 he explored the barriers to the greater involvement of community volunteers in the area of child welfare within 400 community groups. The recommendations that resulted from this study formed part of the groundwork for the redesign of the children's services system now underway in that province. He recently completed doctoral studies at the University of Southern California in Los Angeles. His dissertation explored the reasons for acceptance or nonacceptance by government administrators of volunteers' contributions of time and advice to social service programs.

come to be administered, end by becoming obstacles to the very purposes which their founders had in view," (Cohen, 1960). Even the most casual of observers would agree that many modern social service programs have fulfilled James's prediction.

When social services were first conceived, volunteers led in the provision of needed services and initiated important social reforms. By the early twentieth century, citizen influence on social services began to wane as increased professionalization, and a growing bureaucracy, altered the roles citizens could play in planning and delivering services.

This article describes the devolution of the volunteer role from that of leading social service programs and reforms to assimilation into a defined and managed structure designed to meet human needs. It suggests that new forces at work today will reestablish a balance between those who administer social services and the citizens who wish to contribute to helping them develop.

PHASE I— VOLUNTEER DOMINATION

In the early 1800s the population of the United States increased significantly because of a high birth rate and the influx of 4 million immigrants, many of whom settled in cities. Migration increased from rural areas to the cities to meet industrial demands for the labor of men, women, and children. Living patterns changed and communities faced new social problems. These problems stimulated the moral conscience of the country, creating a desire to reform individuals and society as a whole (Sieder, 1960). As citizens sought new ways to assist the less fortunate, their efforts to organize became known as the Association for the Improvement of Conditions for the Poor (AICP) . The first of these was formed in New York City in 1843 by a group of wealthy men whose objective was the organization and coordination of existing organizations that served the poor.

The AICP became a model for the subsequent development of the Charity Organization Societies (COS) in North America, the first of which was formed in Buffalo, New York in 1877. Jeffrey R. Brackett (1895) described the objectives of the COS as "... the diminution of poverty and pauperism by cooperation of benevolent forces and diffusion of knowledge touching charity and benevolence."

By 1895, there were 100 COS in the United States (Green, 1954). Although they hired paid staff to investigate the need for aid, it was local committees of volunteers who decided what should be done and provided the actual assistance. At first, the underlying assumption was that friendly visitors could influence the family in need by virtue of their superior social status. However, since too few wealthy and upper-class individuals were available to help the growing numbers of urban poor, paid workers gradually assumed these responsibilities (Green, 1954). As paid workers gained greater experience, they found the causes of poverty to be multi-faceted and not easily resolved by the efforts of well-meaning volunteers. This led them to search for more "scientific" approaches to solving problems (Lubove, 1965).

As the twentieth century approached, a dramatic change was taking place. The view held at the time was that poverty resulted from moral inferiority; volunteers were expected to help the poor rise above their circumstances by force of example and the judicious use of moral suasion. Now those charged by society with developing new approaches to helping the less fortunate were influenced by the possibilities offered by scientific theory and practice. As trained observers, they began to gather data which revealed poverty to be an abnormal condition that required fundamental changes in housing, employment practices, health conditions, education and recreation. As a result of these discoveries, they concluded that good deeds and increased giving by the rich would never fully address the problems of poverty, and they began to pursue other approaches to their solution.

PHASE II—
A PARTNERSHIP UNRAVELS

The Charity Organization Societies were strongly attracted to scientific theory and practice from their beginnings in 1877 when the first COS was formed in Buffalo, New York. In 1890 a conference of Charities and Corrections in New York declared that "... patient research will be applied to the solution of the ages ... and the world will bless the unknown benefactor who has brought the scientific method to bear," (Kellogg, 1890).

While there was support for the search for solutions based upon the scientific method, some warned that "philanthropy is becoming a business and a profession, and social agencies have begun to shut away the layman from any active connection with their function, crushing him beneath a magnificent and thoroughly perfected machine" (Winslow, 1915). Thus began an historic struggle to balance the scientific with the benevolent dimensions of helping the poor.

The twentieth century ushered in a new era in philanthropy where benevolence was redefined as an intelligent and efficient service designed to restore the poor to self-sufficiency, rather than as an opportunity for the rich to gain salvation or express their feelings of altruism (Lubove, 1965). Initially, this approach to philanthropy did not conflict with the notion of volunteerism. For example, the National Council of Jewish Women, founded in 1893, recognized and emphasized from the beginning the importance of "scientific training" for both volunteers and paid personnel (Sieder, 1960). However, as time went on, increased specialization and the presumption that expertise was needed to deal with the problems of poverty made the status of the volunteer ambiguous and insecure.

As interest was expressed to define social work as a profession and promote professional education, Nathaniel Rosenau of the Buffalo COS initiated a call for trained persons to provide social services (Rosenau, 1893). Five years later the Charity Organization Society of New York City established its Summer School of Philanthropy and formal social work education began.

As the knowledge gap between volunteers and paid staff widened, the latter assumed greater responsibility for providing social services, gradually gaining the respect of volunteers by virtue of their superior knowledge. At first, the working relationship between volunteers and professionals was marked by a high degree of mutuality and equality which eroded as social work became a professional discipline and assumed greater authority and respect.

Early social work leaders such as Richmond attempted to strike a balance between paid and volunteer service, but younger social workers were less committed to the principle of broad citizen participation. Richmond became openly critical of what she considered the unyielding and self-righteous attitudes of some trained social workers who saw themselves as substitutes for the volunteer. She insisted that volunteers were "the real sons and daughters of the community, while the paid worker, though she may be a loving daughter, is often an adopted one" (Henderson, 1917).

By the time Richmond published *Social Diagnosis* in 1917, social workers considered themselves members of a profession. At first, cooperative linkages between professional social workers and volunteers were maintained. The National Social Workers Exchange was established to promote and facilitate opportunities in the field of social work for both paid and volunteer workers, the precursor to professional social work associations and volunteer bureaus (Sieder, 1960). Increased professional self-awareness grew in the years of prosperity between the First World War and the Great Depression. Agency standards of service were developed and opportunities for volunteers were specifically defined in the health and social service fields. Principles and techniques for the recruitment, training, and supervision of volunteers were developed. The National Committee on Volunteers in Social Work, organized in 1933, maintained a relation-

ship with the National Conference of Social Work, and brought together volunteers and social workers to forge productive partnerships (Sieder, 1960).

The Social Work Yearbook (precursor to the *Encyclopedia of Social Work*), starting with its second volume in 1933, devoted space annually to glowing reports of volunteers' contributions to social work. Had this attitude and quality of relationship between social workers and volunteers prevailed, it might have led to increased cooperation and mutual respect. Many social workers, however, pressed for an even greater emphasis on technical knowledge, thereby distancing themselves even further from volunteers (Kellner and Tadros, 1967).

This development was predictable in a society that had been dominated from the second half of the seventeenth century to the end of the nineteenth century by the Newtonian mechanistic model of the universe. This model led to a view of the modern world as composed of a multitude of distinct units (Capra, 1983). This dominant paradigm influenced such organizational theories as the School of Scientific Management which Taylor developed in 1911, and Bureaucratic Theory, which was described by Weber in 1947. Both theories view organizations and their members in mechanistic terms. The social service agencies formed in the twentieth century continue to reflect a way of thinking in which people and systems are viewed as interchangeable parts of a larger whole. The scientific method was accepted as the most efficient way to organize work, launching an inevitable societal movement toward increased mechanization, specialization, and bureaucratization (Morgan, 1986). This influence persists to this day, often making social services difficult to access because of their segmented and specialized nature.

According to Kuhn (1970), the only means to problem-solving that a community will encourage its members to undertake is that which fits with the current paradigm. With the arrival of the Great Depression, society urgently sought effective and efficient solutions to problems of a magnitude never before encountered. This led to the creation of large government-funded organizations that could cope with massive demands for service. As these agencies focused on the challenges of delivering services to people with complex needs, citizens were increasingly distanced from the "business" of serving clients. One social work pioneer said, "... technologists and specialists [are] insulating themselves progressively from the folk process, and becoming, each in his limited sphere, wise in particulars and ignorant in general," (Lindeman, 1932).

The societal problems created by the Great Depression were complex, large-scale, and difficult to solve even with the best knowledge available. Lay people were ill-equipped to contribute to solving them, and answers had to be found within the current paradigm. The bureaucratic model was dominant and had the required attributes: it was rational, efficient and able to deal with large-scale problems. It was considered indispensable for the mass production of goods and services that helped to achieve great technological progress (Blau, 1960). All large organizations in North America reflected this trend and social service agencies, both public and voluntary, were not exempt from its influence (Wilensky and Lebeaux, 1958). However, the very attributes that enabled large social service systems to successfully meet the extraordinarily challenging conditions of the time ultimately blocked the involvement of ordinary citizens. The stage was set for the domination by social workers through the professional and bureaucratic paradigms.

PHASE III— PROFESSIONAL DOMINATION

Although volunteerism had always been viewed as the duty of a citizen in a democratic society, by the 1920s it had become a privilege that philanthropic societies granted to those who accepted their discipline. The attitude toward volunteers had changed dramatically from the days when they were clearly in charge.

By 1919, the Charity Organization Society of New York City had established a committee to look into the volunteer problem. The committee concluded that although friendly visiting had value, it should not take precedence over modern social work advances. Volunteers were urged to accept training. Mary Richmond, who had called for a "thousand untrained volunteers" in 1890, was now to insist that social services volunteers be trained and held to a high standard of personal responsibility (Colcord and Mann, 1930).

An ongoing relationship between professional social workers and volunteers endured in spite of these tensions. In 1946 some intriguing insights were provided on the role of volunteers at the National Conference of Social Work where it was said that "millions of men and women ... are waiting to receive the inspiration, direction, and guidance *which only the Social Work profession can give.*" [Emphasis added.]

In this same address, the social work profession was exonerated for not having concentrated on citizen education since it had been occupied with building up its own professional philosophy, techniques, and prestige.

By the 1960s and 1970s new opportunities presented themselves for volunteers in fields of significant societal and political importance. Strickler (1987) suggests that social workers may have felt threatened by this newly assertive group of volunteers, some of whom were beginning to assume functions that had once belonged to social workers. She speculates that this may explain why social workers hesitated at this time to consider the potential of volunteer assistance even when faced with dramatically escalating demands for services and diminishing resources.

PHASE IV— FORGING NEW PARTNERSHIPS

Few would disagree that in large social service agencies efforts to provide stability and efficiency can lead to excessive bureaucracy. The deficiencies of large bureaucracies and their failure to meet the objectives for which they were created are of increasing public concern. Many will agree with William James's caution about the ease with which institutions created to serve society can lose touch with the people they were meant to serve. As established structures for service delivery begin to crack in the face of overwhelming societal demands, some organizational theorists suggest that organizations can re-invent themselves and deal with the challenges that face them.

Land and Jarman (1992) explain that organizations follow a pattern when it comes to change. In the first phase—organizational forming—organizations use an entrepreneurial style that promotes and invites creativity and experimentation. The forming organization seeks creative and inventive ways of operating that connects it with the larger environment. This describes what occurred as social work pioneers and volunteers from all segments of the community labored together to meet the challenges of poverty and industrialization.

In the second phase—organizational norming—organizations pattern themselves on the bureaucratic paradigm. To generate stability and efficiency, organizations in this phase of development seek management processes that ensure order and predictability. Specialized roles and internal organizational priorities take precedence over the requirements of communities and consumers. It seems fair to say that this model typifies many social service organizations today. Land and Jarman postulate that the legitimate accomplishments of this phase invariably bring organizations to a stage where they become so large and complex they exhaust their ability to be responsive and innovative.

In the third phase the organization must reinvent itself to survive. This phase requires the creation of opportunities for shared leadership and the integration of diversity. In order to survive, the organization must recognize its interdependence with employees, the community, constituents, and clients.

Many large social service organizations are between phases two and three. If they are to thrive, let alone survive, they will need the innovation, creativity and support that volunteers can provide. As agencies seek to connect with those on whom they depend, volunteers will become essential because of their connections to the community, their good advice, and their ability to relate on a more human scale with clients.

In summary, in the early twentieth century social work moved away from its dependence upon volunteers in order to pursue a professional identity. This resulted in increased distance between social workers and volunteers. Today, as the societal structures established within the bureaucratic paradigm begin to break down, a new alliance must be forged between social workers and volunteers to help people in need. The alliance will not come from a paradigm of domination by one of the other, but from a spirit of equality that respects and values the unique contribution each has to offer. The opportunities for service are many. Society must reinvent the organizational structures that have been established over the past century to help people. This monumental task cannot be the sole province of professionals. It must call forth the best that both professionals and volunteers have to offer.

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ABSTRACT

This study surveyed public school personnel in the western United States concerning the perceived importance of selected components of volunteer management, and the characteristics of school districts responding to the survey. Statistically significant differences were found on six components of volunteer management between districts with coordinators and those without. Since sound management is important in volunteer programming, this study bore out the need for comprehensive volunteer management policies at all district school levels.

How Public Schools View Selected Components of Volunteer Management

James B. Harshfield, Ed.D., Gary L. Peltier, Ph.D., George C. Hill, Ph.D., Richard F. Daugherty, Ed.D.

INTRODUCTION

Volunteers in public education are valuable resources in improving the quality of children's education and helping children learn (State Resource Guide for School Volunteer Coordinators, 1987). In these times when most public schools (K–12) need and wish to offer additional educational services to special needs students (DeRidder, 1988; Ekstrom, Goertz, Pollock, and Rock, 1986; Morris, Perney, and Shaw, 1990), but are frustrated by limited revenues, volunteers' talents and enthusiasm can be used in diverse ways. Morris, Perney, and Shaw (1990) stated that there are hundreds of thousands of people who have the time and knowledge to help students be successful in school.

Volunteers are involved at all levels in school districts. Most volunteers provide instructional support to students. They also provide support at the school district administrative office level through committee work, professional advisement, special projects, and program development (Michael, 1990).

The recruitment and involvement of volunteers requires proper management to gain the greatest benefit for students. Management is the process of organizing and directing the efforts of others under a coordinated plan for achievement of program objectives (Hamburger, 1967). Freireich (1984) contended that the management of volunteers is the single most important aspect of a volunteer program.

The purpose of this study was to determine the degree of perceived importance placed on the selected components of volunteer management by public school educators.

POPULATION OF THE STUDY

This study was limited to the following states: Arizona, California, Idaho, Kansas, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Mexico, North Dakota, Texas, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. The data search was limited to school districts with a Partners in Education Program and/or an active volunteer program. The Partners in Education Program is a nationwide project of the National Association of Partners in Education (NAPE) which connects children and classroom teachers with corporate, education, volunteer, government, and civic leaders. It represents more than 2.6 million volunteers involved in 200,000 partnerships nationwide. This study focused on volunteers who work in various

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capacities in public schools, but whose main contribution is tutoring students.

METHODOLOGY

The subjects for this study were identified from a database compiled in 1991 from a survey conducted by NAPE. Two criteria were used to select the sample from the NAPE database: (a) the location of the school district; and, (b) the school district's exposure to volunteer management.

The database search identified 255 school districts from a field of 506. Fifteen school districts were eliminated due to inadequate student information. The remaining 240 school districts were divided into three groups according to the number of students in each. The number of schools in each population group was as follows: (a) 0–500 = 79 students; (b) 501–3,500 = 81 students; and, (c) 3,501+ = 80 students. Forty school districts were randomly selected by a computer-generated random number program for each category to be studied, for a total of 120 school districts. Out of the 120 school districts surveyed, 74 returned valid questionnaires, a response rate of 61%. The survey instrument asked the respondents to provide demographic information, and rate the importance of 34 components of volunteer management. The components were derived from a survey of the literature on volunteer management.

RESULTS

Results of the study:

• About half of the school districts (49.3%) had policies to manage volunteers. Of the "yes" respondents, 36% clarified their answers by stating that volunteer management policies were developed at the site.

• It was also reported that 30% of the school districts had coordinators to manage volunteers' activities in their school districts. Of the "yes" respondents, 58% clarified their answers by stating that their school district coordinated volunteers at the site with the assistance of Parent Teacher Association members, teachers, or principals.

• The central question of the study was: What level of importance did the 74 school districts place on each of the selected components of volunteer management? The top three components, rated in order of importance were (see Table I):

1. Maintain communication with volunteers;
2. Strive to motivate and retain volunteers; and
3. Match volunteers with appropriate job task.

• Another question asked in the study was: Were there differences between the perceived importance of the selected components of volunteer management and the size of school districts? Significant differences were identified for five components. An examination of mean rank scores in Table II indicates that respondents from large school districts place highest importance on:

1. Recruitment of volunteers;
2. Enacting recognition programs for volunteers;
3. Considering the legal aspects of volunteer involvement;
4. Maintaining confidentiality of personal volunteer information; and,
5. Designating a district-wide coordinator for volunteer programs.

• Another issue in this study was the relationship between the perceived importance of the selected components of volunteer management and whether school districts had a comprehensive volunteer management policy or not (See Table III). Statistically significant differences were found in six components. Respondents from school districts with volunteer management policies chose the following components in order of importance:

1. Enacting recognition program for volunteers;
2. Designating on-site volunteer coordinator;
3. Establishing rationale, mission, goals, and objectives;

TABLE I

Number of Responses, Means, Standard Deviations, and Ranking for the 34 Components of Volunteer Management by the 74 Respondents

Components of Volunteer Management	N	Mean	SD	Rank
1. Maintain Communication with Volunteers	74	4.50	.65	1
2. Motivate and Retain Volunteers	72	4.46	.67	2
3. Match Volunteer and Job	74	4.45	.72	3
4. Maintain Confidentiality	71	4.35	1.04	4
5. Enact Volunteer Recognition Program	74	4.34	.88	5
6. Develop Staff Commitment	73	4.33	.67	6
7. Evaluate Volunteer Program	73	4.26	.85	7
8. Develop Appropriate Volunteer Assignment	74	4.26	.88	7
9. Educate Staff—Benefits and Operation	71	4.18	.99	9
10. Educate Staff on Volunteer Supervision	73	4.16	.96	10
11. Consider Legal Aspects	74	4.15	1.12	11
12. Provide Job Training for Volunteers	74	4.14	.98	12
13. Develop Policies and Procedures	73	4.07	1.05	13
14. Recruit Volunteers	74	4.07	1.09	13
15. Promote Volunteer Reliability	73	4.07	.98	13
16. Provide Management and Leadership	74	4.01	.94	16
17. Keep Accurate Records	73	3.89	1.07	17
18. Plan Volunteer Program	73	3.89	1.07	17
19. Check References of Volunteers	74	3.88	1.45	19
20. Establish Goals and Objectives	73	3.86	1.12	20
21. Assess the Need for Using Volunteers	71	3.86	1.11	20
22. Evaluate Volunteer Performance	74	3.84	1.06	22
23. Designate Local (On-Site) School Coordinator	74	3.82	1.26	23
24. Develop Job Description	74	3.80	1.22	24
25. Provide Liability Insurance	73	3.78	1.43	25
26. Require Health Screen	73	3.62	1.50	26
27. Interview Volunteer	74	3.60	1.37	27
28. Provide Adequate Budget	72	3.57	1.48	28
29. Require Completed Application Form	74	3.53	1.31	29
30. Provide Tuberculosis Test	74	3.43	1.75	30
31. Designate District-Wide Volunteer Coordinator	74	3.31	1.54	31
32. Provide Workers Compensation Coverage	71	3.31	1.78	31
33. Provide Fingerprint Screen	73	3.16	1.79	33
34. Offer Contract to Volunteer	74	2.18	1.42	34

TABLE II

Differences Between the Size of the School District and Perceived Importance of the Top Five Components of Volunteer Management

Variables	χ^2	Mean Rank Score		
		Sm. N=15	Med. N=25	Lg. N=34
Recruit Volunteers	13.07**	38.6	26.2	45.3
Enact Volunteer Recognition Program	12.33**	33.1	27.9	45.3
Consider Legal Aspects	9.28*	31.1	29.2	43.9
Maintain Confidentiality	8.47*	32.3	27.7	41.5
Designate District-Wide Volunteer Coordinator	7.63*	24.3	32.8	40.7

*$\underline{p} < .05$ **$\underline{p} < .01$

Note: Caution must be taken when interpreting data in Table II because of the small number of responses from small school districts.

$\underline{p}$ value is an indication of the probability that this result could have occurred by chance is less than the value shown. For example, a $\underline{p} < .05$ indicates that if this survey was conducted 100 times, we would find statistical significance 95 times. A $p < .01$ indicates that we would find statistical significance 99 times out of 100.

The Kruskal-Wallis test of significance is the nonparametric equivalent of the one way analysis of variance. It is used because the data and methodology in this study could not meet criteria for the analysis of variance. The Kruskal-Wallis statistic is typically reported as a chi-square distribution (χ^2).

TABLE III

Differences Between the Perceived Importance of the 34 Components of Volunteer Management and School Districts With and Those Without Policies

Components of Volunteer Management	χ^2	Mean Rank Score	
		With Policies N=36	Without Policies N=37
1. Maintain Communication with Volunteers	.86		
2. Motivate and Retain Volunteers	1.11		
3. Match Volunteer and Job	.88		
4. Maintain Confidentiality	.78		
5. Enact Volunteer Recognition Program	7.72*	42.9	30.5
6. Develop Staff Commitment	.00		
7. Evaluate Volunteer Program	.04		
8. Develop Appropriate Volunteer Assignment	3.06		
9. Educate Staff — Benefits and Operation	.09		
10. Educate Staff on Volunteer Supervision	.45		
11. Consider Legal Aspects	3.65		
12. Provide Job Training for Volunteers	.51		
13. Develop Policies and Procedures	3.32		
14. Recruit Volunteers	1.99		
15. Promote Volunteer Reliability	.05		
16. Provide Management and Leadership	3.66		
17. Keep Accurate Records	5.60*	41.8	30.7
18. Plan Volunteer Program	.27		
19. Check References of Volunteers	4.42*	39.3	29.7
20. Establish Goals and Objectives	5.32*	41.9	31.1
21. Assess the Need for Using Volunteers	1.45		
22. Evaluate Volunteer Performance	.19		
23. Designate Local (On-Site) School Coordinator	5.96*	42.3	30.8
24. Develop Job Description	1.07		
25. Provide Liability Insurance	2.20		
26. Require Health Screen	2.40		
27. Interview Volunteer	.19		
28. Provide Adequate Budget	.36		
29. Require Completed Application Form	2.15		
30. Provide Tuberculosis Test	1.04		
31. Designate District-Wide Volunteer Coordinator	4.55*	38.7	28.9
32. Provide Workers Compensation Coverage	1.57		
33. Provide Fingerprint Screen	2.26		
34. Offer Contract to Volunteer	.76		

*$\underline{p} < .05$ **$\underline{p} < .01$

$\underline{p}$ value is an indication of the probability that this result could have occurred by chance is less than the value shown. For example, a $\underline{p} < .05$ indicates that if this survey was conducted 100 times, we would find statistical significance 95 times. A $p < .01$ indicates that we would find statistical significance 99 times out of 100.

The Kruskal-Wallis test of significance is the nonparametric equivalent of the one way analysis of variance. It is used because the data and methodology in this study could not meet criteria for the analysis of variance. The Kruskal-Wallis statistic is typically reported as a chi-square distribution (χ^2).

4. Keeping accurate records of volunteer activities;
5. Checking references of volunteers; and,
6. Designating district-wide coordinator for volunteer program.

SUMMARY

What level of importance did school district personnel place on each selected component of volunteer management? The mean scores were ranked from #1 (high) to #34 (low) according to the respondents' perceived level of importance for each component. The 74 respondents placed the *highest* mean scores on the personnel functions of volunteer management as indicated by the following survey rankings: (#1) maintaining communications with volunteers; (#2) striving to motivate and retain volunteers; (#3) matching the volunteer with the job task; (#4) maintaining confidentiality of personal volunteer information; and, (#5) enacting recognition programs for volunteers.

The respondents placed *moderate* importance on the administrative functions of volunteer management. The following administrative components were ranked as indicated: (#7) evaluate the success of volunteer program; (#13) establish policies and procedures to regulate the use of volunteers; (#16) provide management and leadership for the volunteer program; (#18) plan for the implementation and modification of the volunteer program; and, (#20) establish rationale, mission, goals, and objectives for the volunteer management program.

Overall, the respondents placed the *lowest* importance on risk management functions of volunteer management. The following risk management functions were ranked as indicated: (#11) consider legal aspects; (#19) check references of volunteers; (#25) provide liability insurance for volunteer activities; (#26) require health screen for volunteers working directly with students; (#30) provide TB test; (#32) provide state workers compensation coverage for volunteers; and, (#33) provide fingerprint screen.

The following components of volunteer management were found to have *low importance and high standard deviations:*

1. Provide TB testing;
2. Provide state workers compensation coverage for volunteers; and,
3. Provide fingerprint screens. As is shown in Table I, the respondents showed a wide range of responses.

IMPLICATIONS

This study found that:

1. Large school districts, guided by volunteer management policies and directed by on-site volunteer coordinators, placed high importance on volunteer recognition and designating on-site coordinators.
2. Large school districts with district volunteer coordinators placed high importance on considering the legal aspects of volunteer management.
3. School districts with volunteer management policies and district-wide volunteer coordinators placed high importance on establishing goals and objectives and designating district-wide volunteer coordinators.

The results of this research indicated that different aspects of risk management were rated with varying levels of importance. The observation can be made that the potential risk of tort claims and lawsuits should encourage school districts to carefully consider liability issues when involving volunteers. School districts must develop policies and training to keep risk to an acceptable minimum for the protection of all involved.

All school districts without volunteer management policies should consider appointment of a district-wide volunteer coordinator to oversee all aspects of volunteer administration since statistically significant differences were revealed on 6 components of volunteer management be-

tween districts with coordinators and those without (see Table III).

In closing, the authors recognize that an era of tight school budgets justifies the appropriate involvement of volunteers and the hiring of a volunteer coordinator. This article points out overlooked areas of volunteer management that warrant further study by school districts of all sizes if they wish to be successful in tapping this plentiful and willing resource. Implementing the effective management of volunteer programs should be every school district's goal.

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ABSTRACT

This article explores the unpleasant task of terminating the services of a volunteer. Included are six alternative strategies drawn from Steve McCurley's article, How to Fire a Volunteer—and Live to Tell About It *(1993), offering a variety of options to try before initiating a termination proceeding. Also discussed are organizational policies that should be in place. The volunteer program administrator is charged to plan ahead, take precautionary measures such as performance appraisals and feedback sessions, and document performance problems. A specific method for conducting a termination proceeding, based on a well-tested method used by practitioners in human resource development, is the focus of this article.*

When All Else Fails: Releasing a Volunteer

Shirley M. Lundin, C.V.A., M.Ed.

Correcting troublesome volunteer performance problems is an integral component of volunteer program administration. Whether the performance issue emerges under the volunteer administrator's direct supervision or from a decentralized supervisory location, the volunteer program administrator is—or certainly should be—consulted and/or involved. The volunteer program administrator becomes a key player whenever the relationship between a volunteer and the organization shows signs of stress or discord. Arbitrating the needs of both the organization and the volunteer is a skill requiring tact, diplomacy and firmness.

Developing policies and procedures to manage volunteer performance is a process that involves top level input and approval. The process may *begin* at the volunteer program administrator's desk, but the organization's board of directors and top operational staff are participants in the exercise. Policies that respect individual differences and rights are needed. The organization's responsibility for providing adequate training and supervision, not only for the volunteers but also for staff who supervise volunteers, must also be acknowledged.

With careful planning and consideration of a few basic principles, the unpleasant task of releasing a volunteer can be a rare last resort.

ORGANIZATIONAL POLICIES

The following measures should be in place as standard organizational policy long before problems present themselves.

Develop a Policy on the Termination of Volunteers

Determine what volunteer actions or behaviors are inexcusable and would result in termination. This is done in consultation with other key players in the organization. When identified, put them in writing as part of a policy manual. Most organizations would include arriving on the job "under the influence," abusive behavior toward other volunteers, clients or staff, and theft of any kind. Each organization will develop a list pertinent to its own situation.

Disseminate the Policy

Include in every orientation and training session a brief review of inexcusable actions or behaviors and the resulting action the organization will take should a violation occur. For volunteers already in place,

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trained and involved, hold an update session or circulate the policy through internal communication channels or a special mailing. Everyone must be informed about offenses that can lead to termination.

Screen Carefully
(Not "Any Warm Body")

Choose carefully! The first opportunity to prevent problems from occurring later is during the interview and screening process. Select individuals who are likely to be assets to the services the organization provides. Develop criteria for selection and placement that can help identify the qualities sought. Find ways to redirect individuals who are not appropriate for the organization.

Consider All Alternatives to Termination

The preceding measures apply primarily to new placements. Sometimes when volunteer performance problems erupt in which dismissal is contemplated, the volunteer has been "inherited." The volunteer program administrator is called on to "fix" a bad situation. In his article *How to Fire a Volunteer—And Live to Tell About It* (1993), Steve McCurley recommends a range of options to try before an impending termination:

- **Resupervise:** Sometimes a new supervisor is the answer to a poor working arrangement.
- **Reassign:** Finding another assignment with a different job description may be the needed "fix." A "promotion" to new levels of responsibility may help, or perhaps the opposite—a job with fewer demands—is the answer.
- **Retrain:** If skills are inadequate or outdated, additional training may be the best route to correcting poor performance.
- **Revitalize:** A leave of absence, recognition for work completed, a new working environment with a change of companions or other "perks" may be the prescription that works.
- **Refer:** When the volunteer and the organization are not compatible, a referral to a volunteer position in another organization may be the solution. However, referring a volunteer with questionable behavior or integrity to a colleague's organization helps neither program.
- **Retire:** With honors! Groups of retired volunteers can work nicely to provide the social stimulation and identification needed by long-term volunteers. Such a group may find a new lease on life and become a genuine asset.

Talk Straight

Say what you mean to a volunteer in performance appraisals or when giving feedback. Don't misrepresent the volunteer's true status. Avoid insincere evaluations and, above all, use praise appropriately. Positive reinforcement is a powerful tool, so apply it carefully, thoughtfully, and for behaviors that are desired.

Document and Proceed Cautiously

Keep a file for every volunteer. Document all conferences, performance reviews, notes, letters, phone calls, disciplinary feedback. This back-up file will be an invaluable tool if/when a termination is necessary.

Proceed carefully in pre-termination decisions, being sure to collect all facts before taking action. It is best to terminate only for "just cause" based on measurable standards of misconduct or poor performance. Examine all motives to be sure dismissal is not retaliatory or discriminatory. Be sure to follow all organization guidelines and grievance procedures. (Does the organization have them?)

WHEN ALL ELSE FAILS

When all else fails and a volunteer must be terminated, the volunteer program administrator is the resource for correct procedures as well as sensitive treatment of the vulnerable volunteer. If the volunteer in question has been appropriately supervised, given feedback and suggestions for performance improvement and nothing has worked, then it is time to face reality. The task of releasing a volunteer requires skill, genuine respect for the other person,

and a very clear determination, based on documentation, that the decision is correct. The final decision to remove a person from the organization should occur only after a serious violation of established rules or failure to correct behavior after prior warnings. The termination proceeding is never impromptu, but always requires careful consideration of the rights and best interests of all parties.

This article assumes that the volunteer program administrator has full authority for all matters relating to volunteers; therefore, he or she determines the manner in which a termination proceeding is handled. Should the volunteer program administrator lack authority to remove a troublesome volunteer, the suggestions given in this article may need adjusting.

In every case, a volunteer deserves due process and should never be terminated on impulse. The decision to release a volunteer is highly confidential and the volunteer's privacy and dignity must be protected. Limit discussion to the parties directly involved in making the termination decision. However, be sure to inform the executive director (or unit director) who must concur with the action. Should there be an appeal, these individuals will be familiar with the documentation and rationale for dismissal and will not be caught by surprise.

Never, ever will the action be discussed with others, either before or after it occurs even when pressured by curious colleagues. While it is the released volunteer's prerogative to share information about the action, those involved in the termination must resist responding to probing or curious questions. Once the action has been taken, the subject is closed.

CONDUCTING THE TERMINATION: PROCEEDING IN FIVE STEPS

Wessels and Pautsch (1991) have said,

> *There are two major pitfalls for supervisors who are uncomfortable with an unpleasant confrontation: being too abrupt or too sympathetic. Either behavior can create further problems. A volunteer who is 'fired' on the spot in front of others can later sue for invasion of privacy, emotional distress or, in some cases, lack of due process.*

Bearing these concerns in mind, the following steps for conducting a termination proceeding were developed by Roy C. Lundin, human resources development consultant, and presented to AVA-Metro Chicago in April 1994.

Step 1

The separation session should include three to four people: The individual being dismissed; the volunteer program administrator and/or the volunteer's supervisor; and an "ombudsperson."

The task of communicating the separation decision belongs to either the volunteer program administrator or the volunteer's supervisor. (Most likely, the supervisor initiated the termination process.) This is done quickly rather than gradually, or by "beating around the bush." The termination message is conveyed as briefly as possible, ideally by the third sentence. Then the volunteer program administrator or volunteer's supervisor stops talking!

Step 2

The dismissed individual is given an opportunity to ask any questions. Answers are direct, factual and brief.

The ombudsperson has two functions (this role can be assumed by the volunteer program administrator if the dismissal message is given by the volunteer's supervisor): To ensure that the volunteer program administrator or supervisor has been heard and to support the dismissed individual.

Step 3

After the dismissal message has been delivered and any questions from the volunteer have been answered the ombudsperson addresses the "messenger," paraphrasing the dismissal statement: "What I heard you say is that (name) has

been separated from (organization) for (reason)?" After this restatement is acknowledged, the ombudsperson directs the following questions to the volunteer program administrator or the volunteer's supervisor:

a. "Is there anything (name) can say or do that would change your mind?"
b. "Then this is a final decision?"
c. "Does (the executive or unit director) concur with the decision?"
d. "When will this be effective?"
e. "What will be said to others in the organization?"

If the separation session is managed carefully, directly, and professionally, the dismissed individual will have been forewarned, will be clear about the decision, and will be able to accept the action with minimal rancor toward the agency.

Step 4

The volunteer program administrator and/or volunteer's supervisor leave permitting the ombudsperson to counsel the dismissed volunteer about other options, perhaps even in the same organization. The ombudsperson must guard against a desire to rectify the situation by retracting the decision, and should focus on helping the volunteer cope with the reality of the dismissal.

Step 5

The dismissed volunteer must be assured that his or her confidentiality is fully honored and that no one but the individuals involved (volunteer, volunteer program administrator, the volunteer's supervisor, ombudsperson, and the appropriate unit head or CEO) will know the circumstances of the dismissal. Under no circumstances should anyone but the dismissed volunteer discuss the termination session with anyone else.

CONCLUSION

There is no easy method for handling a termination session nor any way to ensure that the process will be pleasant. Avoiding confrontation by using an alternative strategy is certainly a better option. However, when all else fails, the method described here provides a step-by-step process for making the task as fair and straightforward as possible.

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ABSTRACT

Studies have shown that volunteers are more willing to financially support the non-profit for which they volunteer than are members of the public at large. This article examines the relationship of volunteer motivations to volunteer behaviors such as the donation of time, degree of involvement, and donation of money to non-profits using the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). Additional implications for strategies to enhance fund raising from volunteers are also presented.

The Relationship Between Volunteer Motivations and Behavior in Non-Profit Organizations

Dwight W. Mihalicz, M.B.A., and Swee C. Goh, Ph.D.

A recent study by the Canadian Centre for Philanthropy (1993) indicates that 71 percent of Canadians over age 18 said they had performed volunteer work for a charitable or non-profit organization in their lifetime. The donated time and financial support provided to charitable organizations are enormous. Based on recent statistical data, the value of volunteer time in Canadian dollars is estimated to be worth $12 billion; financial donations total about $5.2 billion from both individual and corporate sources.

Because of the size of the non-profit sector, there has been a great deal of interest in understanding why people volunteer, how much time they give, how much money they donate, and why they are drawn to this particular form of altruism (Ancans, 1992; Haggberg, 1992). However, very little is understood about the relationships between and among various types of volunteer activities.

For example, are volunteers who give their time different from volunteers who donate money? Should they be treated as different constituencies in non-profit organizations? Are volunteers the best source of donations or would an appeal for a donation from them result in a negative reponse? Are differences in attitude and motivation between service delivery volunteers and those more involved with the governance of the non-profit organization significant? Are their attitudes or underlying motivations different?

Previous studies have shown that volunteers who are committed to an organization are more likely to support it financially (O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986). In addition, non-profits that have a dynamic and committed volunteer base are more likely to be financially stable than those that do not (Knoke, 1981).

The purpose of this article is to explore volunteer motivations (Clary, Snyder and Ridge, 1992) and their relationship to the donation of time, money and degree of involvement in non-profit organizations. Implications for fund-raising and the management of volunteers based on the results of the study also will be discussed.

VOLUNTEER MOTIVATIONS

Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992) have provided a summary of previous research undertaken by them (Clary and Snyder, 1991) and others related to understanding

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and measuring volunteer motivations. From a staffing perspective they argue that there is a need to evaluate the underlying motivational factors that lead one to volunteer because understanding motivations improves recruitment, placement, and retention of volunteers. Clary, Snyder and Ridge developed a measure called the Volunteer Functions Inventory (VFI). The VFI measures six dimensions of volunteer motivation defined as follows:

- Social (SOCMOT) — Volunteering in order to satisfy a social function such as to fulfill a need to behave in socially desired ways;
- Value (VALMOT) — Volunteering to allow for acting on deeply held beliefs, such as the importance of helping others;
- Career (CARMOT) — Volunteering to develop skills, to open up job opportunities, or for contacts to assist in career development;
- Understanding (UNDMOT) — Volunteering to satisfy a desire to understand those one serves, the organization for which one volunteers, or oneself;
- Protective (PROMOT) — Volunteering to escape from feeling lonely, or for the relief of unpleasant feelings such as guilt; and
- Esteem (ESTMOT) — Volunteering to enhance self-esteem by feeling needed and important.

The VFI developed by Clary, Snyder and Ridge to measure the six volunteer motivations has been shown to have strong content validity, is stable over time through test-retest research, and also is reliable as indicated by the reported high internal consistency coefficients. In addition, the solid research behind the VFI has a strong conceptual base in the understanding of volunteerism. To develop the VFI, 1,000 volunteers from a broad spectrum of volunteer organizations were asked to complete it. They ranged from hospice, crisis, disaster and prison workers to those who teach, fund raise, organize and perform governance and other activities.

The ability to measure the multi-motivational nature of volunteering through the use of the VFI gives rise to a number of interesting possibilities not postulated by Clary, Snyder and Ridge. For example, motivation may be a key factor in helping professionals in non-profit organizations to better understand how to approach their constituents. If it is possible to classify members of a volunteer work force according to their dominant motivations, it may be possible to administer programs in such a way that volunteers can maximize their satisfaction while at the same time contributing more time and money to the non-profit. This approach may be useful in a number of ways, but two in particular are explored in this article.

First, it would be interesting to know if particular motivations predispose one to financially support a non-profit. If this is the case, a non-profit could determine the primary motivations of its volunteers: those whose motivations are more closely aligned with those of financial contributors will be more likely to respond positively to a request for financial support. If the non-profit understands the motivations of its volunteers, it becomes possible to design appropriate financial appeals for them. An added benefit is that volunteers whose motivations make them unlikely to contribute financially are not needlessly demotivated or "turned off."

Some volunteers may not want to support the organization financially; their needs are met through the time they give to the organization. As a result, a request for a financial contribution from them may result in a negative reaction. In other cases, the volunteers' esteem for the organization, and their motivational profiles, find fulfillment when given an opportunity to support the non-profit financially, or particular aspects of it (Gronbjerg, 1991). In either case, an understanding of volunteer motivation can help in developing appeals either to encourage giving from those more predisposed, or at least not to stimulate a negative reaction from those unwilling to give at that time.

The second major area of interest concerns maximizing volunteer involvement through the amount of time given, and number of different activities undertaken by them (Nachman, 1990). For instance, if Red Cross water safety volunteers exhibit many of the same motivational characteristics as Red Cross first aid volunteers, it may be possible to encourage water safety volunteers also to become first aid instructors, or vice versa. This can be good for the organization by increasing the available work force, and giving more opportunities to volunteers to meet their needs (Isley, 1990; Keyton, Wilson and Geiger, 1990).

The purpose of this study was to explore how motivation, as measured by the VFI, can help those who work in non-profit organizations predict volunteer behaviors, specifically the donation of time, degree of involvement, and donation of money. The following were the research questions asked:

Research Question #1:

Can volunteer motivation, as measured by the VFI, be used to predict a predisposition to donate funds to the charity for which s/he volunteers or to non-profits in general?

Research Question #2 :

Can volunteer motivation, as measured by the VFI, be used to predict the degree (measured by the amount of time donated, and involvement in a number of different activities) to which volunteers give time and the degree of their involvement in the organization?

METHOD

Subjects and Procedures

The subjects in this study were governance and service delivery volunteers selected from four non-profit organizations in Canada. A total of 487 surveys were distributed. A total of 245 completed surveys were returned for a slightly higher than 50 percent return rate. Each non-profit was asked to distribute the survey to a sampling of its members from across the country. Three weeks after distribution, a reminder letter was mailed to the volunteers.

The 245 surveys returned were combined for analytical purposes. Overall returns from each non-profit did not vary significantly; however, a larger proportion were from the first two because of the larger sampling size. The four participating non-profits were:

- Canadian Red Cross Society (159 surveys distributed);
- Canadian Diabetes Society (150 surveys distributed);
- Canadian Girl Guides (105 surveys distributed); and,
- Canadian AIDS Society (73 surveys distributed).

The survey developed to measure the key variables in the study was pre-tested with a small group of volunteers and persons employed in the non-profit sector before it was finalized.

Measures

A survey was designed to measure the variables in the research questions developed for this study. Respondents were asked to rate their agreement or disagreement with statements using a 7-point Likert-type scale. They were also questioned on a number of other statements for which "yes" or "no" choices had to be made. (See Appendix.)

Through the survey, information was gathered on their volunteer activities or involvement as defined in the study, personal data, and history of donations to charitable organizations. Each of these measures is described below. In addition, subjects also were asked to complete the VFI.

Volunteer Motivations

The VFI, developed by Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992), was used to measure the six dimensions of volunteer motivation: Social (SOCMOT), Value (VALMOT), Career (CARMOT), Understanding (UNDMOT), Protective (PROMOT), and Esteem (ESTMOT). Each of these six dimensions was treated as a separate independent

variable in the study. These, then, were the independent variables for research questions #1 and #2.

Volunteer Work Activity and Involvement

A number of volunteer work activities were measured. Questions to measure these outcome variables were uniquely developed for this study. They measure the degree and extent of volunteer activity and involvement that benefit the mission of the organization such as the number of volunteer hours worked, money donated, number of different types of volunteer jobs undertaken, and the type of volunteer job such as teaching, delivering services, organizing and governance activities. These measures were considered as dependent variables for research question #1.

Donations to Charity

Two types of donations from volunteers were measured: giving to non-profits in general and giving to the charity where they volunteer. The questions measure the volunteer's reported range of donation in Canadian dollars. It was not within the parameter of this study to measure actual contributions. In fact, contribution levels are not always attributable by organizations to particular volunteers. Where they are attributable, confidentiality would make access very difficult. These measures were considered dependent variables for research question #2.

RESULTS

Reported data analysis in this study was carried out with a statistical program called Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). A personal computer based system of this package, Version 5.0, was used. The results of the statistical analyses are shown in tables in the relevant sections that follow. Where required, detailed analysis and documentation of specific findings will be found in a note in the tables.

Analysis of the data began with an examination of the reliability of the motivational scales (see Note in Table I). The results show that the scale is reliable in measuring the volunteer motivation dimensions.

TABLE I

Reliability of VFI Scale (n = 245)

Volunteer Motivations (VFI)	Cronbach's α
1. Social (SOCMOT—5 questions)	0.77
2. Values (VALMOT—5 questions)	0.75
3. Career (CARMOT—5 questions)	0.93
4. Understanding (UNDMOT—5 questions)	0.75
5. Protective (PROMOT—5 questions)	0.78
6. Esteem (ESTMOT—5 questions)	0.85

Cronbach's α — a measure of the internal consistency of the VFI scale.

n — number of surveys on which the analysis is based.

Note: This analysis was based on data obtained from 245 returned surveys. These results show that the questions or statements making up each of the VFI scales are well suited to represent each of the volunteer motivations. These internal consistency coefficients are comparable to those reported by Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992) of about .80 or higher.

Table II shows the correlation among the six volunteer motivation measures (see Note in Table II). The purpose of this analysis is to evaluate the validity of the VFI in measuring the volunteer motivations as separate dimensions. For example, Understanding and Value motivations for volunteering may be perceived to be similar in nature as may be equally true for Protective and Esteem motivations. However, all the remaining correlations are low, indicating that we can assume they are measuring, to some extent, very different volunteer motivations. Based on these results, there is some evidence of the validity of the VFI as measuring separate volunteer motivation dimensions.

Volunteer Motivations and Donations to Charity

Research question #1 examines whether volunteer motivations can predict a predisposition to donate funds to charitable organizations. A correlation analysis was carried out to determine the relationship between volunteer motivations and dona-

TABLE II

Correlation Coefficients (r) of Motivation Variables (n = 245)

Volunteer Motivations (VFI)	1. SOCMOT	2. VALMOT	3. CARMOT	4. UNDMOT	5. ESTMOT
1. Social (SOCMOT)	(–)				
2. Value (VALMOT)	.11*				
3. Career (CARMOT)	.24***	.11*			
4. Understanding (UNDMOT)	.24***	.58***	.43***		
5. Protective (PROMOT)	.36***	.31***	.44***	.52***	.66***
6. Esteem(ESTMOT)	.36***	.27***	.42***	.58***	

significance level of correlation coefficient:
*** p < .001
*p < .05

r — correlation coefficient
n — number of surveys on which analysis is based.

Notes: 1. The correlation coefficients show the degree of relationship between each of these measures. This analysis is to determine to what extent the VFI is measuring separate dimensions as indicated by Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992). If they are separate dimensions, then the overall correlation between the dimensions should be low, less than .50. Blank space (–) in Table II indicates that no interpretation of the correlation is necessary as it is 1.00.

2. The Understanding and Value dimensions are correlated at .58 with a significance level of p<.001. The Protective and Esteem dimensions also correlate highly with each other at .66, significant at p<.001. The Protective and Esteem dimensions also correlate highly with the Understanding measure. All other correlations, for example between Social and Career dimensions, while significant, are below .50, which is considered low. This shows that some of the volunteer motivation dimensions may be measuring similar underlying constructs.

tions of money to non-profits generally. This was a composite measure in which the responses of subjects to the range of money donated to each listed non-profit organization (for example, their churches) and to the non-profit in which they volunteer were added and a mean value calculated. These results are shown in Table III.

The results show a significant negative correlation between Career, Esteem and Protective motivation in donations to charitable organizations. Volunteers who are higher in Career and Esteem motivations seem less likely to donate money. This is a very interesting finding, as it indicates that volunteers who are motivated to volunteer for reasons such as enhancing their careers or enhancing their own self images, are less likely to donate money to the non-profit. This makes sense from an intuitive perspective.

The new dimension is that the VFI can be used to determine which volunteers, or types of volunteers, are motivated by Career or Esteem reasons. If a non-profit's volunteer work force is high in these motivations, fund raising from them will be more difficult. However, the non-profit has the option of structuring its fund raising campaigns and reward systems to appeal to these motivations. For example, an appeal based on the altruistic purposes of the non-profit is less likely to be successful than one based on the recognition that the

TABLE III

Correlation Analysis Related to Research Question #1 (n = 245)

Volunteer Motivations (VFI)	Donation to Charity
1. Social (SOCMOT)	.06
2. Value (VALMOT)	.07
3. Career (CARMOT)	-.25***
4. Understanding (UNDMOT)	-.08
5. Protective (PROMOT)	-.11*
6. Esteem (ESTMOT)	-.27***

significance level of correlation coefficient:
*** p < .001
* p < .05

n — number of surveys on which analysis is based.

contributor will receive something in return for the donation. The results and additional information can be found in a Note in Table IV.

As shown in Table IV, Esteem is the strongest predictor of donations with Social, Career, and Value motivations each adding significant additional prediction power. Both Esteem and Career motivations are negatively weighted, while Social and Value motivations have a positive weight. This confirms the earlier correlation results of the negative impact of Esteem and Career motivations on donations to non-profits.

However, it shows also that volunteers who are high on Social and Value motivations are more likely to donate to non-profits. This again makes sense intuitively, but the results are not very strong. However, the regression analysis controls for the degree of correlation between the motivation dimensions. Protective and Understanding motivations are not shown in the table as they did not add any additional significant prediction power in the analysis.

Motivation and Volunteer Work Activity and Involvement

Research question #2 focuses on whether motivations can predict the degree to which volunteers will give their time and the degree of their involvement in the organization. The analysis on degree of involvement and contribution of time helps us to understand not only how much a person volunteers, but the number of activities for which s/he volunteers. Motivation is a much stronger factor here and is also of interest from the perspective of encouraging volunteers to be involved in more than one kind of volunteer job activity in the non-profit. The results of the analysis are shown in Table V.

Results of the correlation analysis show that volunteers with stronger Understanding and Value motivations tend to donate more time and participate in a greater variety of job activities within the non-profit. The degree-of-involvement variable measures the number of different ways in which a volunteer is involved in the organization, including participation

TABLE IV

Step-Wise Regression Analysis Related to Research Question #1

	Independent Variables: Volunteer Motivations (VFI)	Dependent Variable: Donation to Charity (n = 245)	
Sequence entered		ΔR^2	R^2
Step 1 (ESTMOT)	Esteem Motivation (neg.)		0.28
Step 2 (SOCMOT)	Social Motivation (pos.)	0.04**	0.32
Step 3 (CARMOT)	Career Motivation (neg.)	0.04**	0.36
Step 4 (VALMOT)	Value Motivation (pos.)	0.02*	0.38

significance level of change in regression coefficient values:
** $p < .01$
* $p < .05$

n — number of surveys on which analysis is based.
R^2 — multiple correlation coefficient; correlation between more than one independent variable and the dependent variable.
ΔR^2 — incremental change in value of multiple correlation coefficient at each step of the regression analysis.

Note: This regression analysis controls for the relative impact of each of the independent variables on the dependent variable being analysed. It also determines the relative importance of the volunteer motivations (independent variables) to the amount of money donated to non-profit organizations (dependent variable). The first variable entered into the regression analysis (step 1) was Esteem motivation, followed by Social motivation (step 2), Career motivation (step 3) and, lastly, Value motivation (step 4). The order indicates the relative influence of each volunteer motivation dimension in predicting the extent of donations to non-profits.

TABLE V

Correlation Analysis Related to Research Question #2 (n = 245)

Volunteer Motivations (VFI)	Degree of involvement	Contribution of time
1. Social (SOCMOT)	.03	-.07
2. Value (VALMOT)	.11*	.12*
3. Career (CARMOT)	.04	.00
4. Understanding (UNDMOT)	.19***	.10
5. Protective (PROMOT)	.02	.02
6. Esteem (ESTMOT)	.06	-.07

significance level of correlation coefficient:
*** p < .001
*p < .05

n — number of surveys on which analysis is based.

Note: We developed an Altruistic motivation variable by combining the Value and Understanding motivation variables. The results show a positive relationship between the Altruistic variable and the degree of involvement and contribution of time. This combined variable is the best predictor for both time donated (.18***) and degree of involvement (.13*), and is therefore useful when considering these issues. Essentially, this variable captures those volunteers who are high in both Value and Understanding motivations.

in policy-making bodies. Understanding motivation is the best predictor for degree of involvement, while Value motivation is the best predictor for contribution of time. See note in Table V for additional information on an Altrustic motivation, a combination of the Understanding and Value motivation variables.

DISCUSSION

The VFI, as developed by Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992) has been argued to be useful for understanding and managing the recruitment and retention of volunteers. The analysis in this paper demonstrates that there may be other uses for the VFI that can assist non-profit organizations to better understand their volunteers. That is, do varying volunteer motivations have an impact on behaviors such as the propensity to donate money, willingness to donate time, and wish to participate in more than one type of activity with the non-profit?

Despite the supportive results for both research questions, it should be noted that there is a limitation to these findings. The data are based on self-report measures, and the sample is limited to only four organizations. However, these findings are interesting enough that further work should be undertaken within one non-profit to test the potential value of using the VFI to predict behavior. As indicated earlier, the analysis was developed from a sample of volunteers in four non-profits. The real utility of the VFI rests in the analysis of various volunteer activities within one non-profit to understand the motivational similarities within each of these activities. For instance, if two groups of volunteers from two different types of activity are high in Career motivation then there is every possibility that cross-recruitment is possible. In any event, the appeal for their time must be based in their motivation, as shown by Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992).

An equally interesting possible application of the VFI is for a non-profit to understand the underlying motivations of their volunteers for fund raising purposes. If it can determine the primary motivations of its various types of volunteers, fund raising campaigns can be targeted to increase donations while at the same time minimizing donor dissatisfaction with the appeal.

Campaigns to those volunteers who are high in Esteem motivation, for instance,

should stress the recognition they will receive for their contribution. Those groups high in Career motivation are more likely to respond to recognition they can display in their place of work or to incentives that stress networking. Persons high in Understanding or Value motivations are more likely to respond positively to appeals that stress the benefits to the recipients of service.

This approach has two very direct and positive benefits to the non-profit. The first is that campaigns that are targeted in this way may well result in a greater response rate. By showing potential donors how their contributions can make a difference in terms of what is important to them, they are more likely to respond positively.

Secondly, the non-profit can reduce the potential negative results of its fund raising campaigns to volunteers. By appealing to the appropriate volunteer motivation, there is much less likelihood of "turning off" the donor. If the volunteer is motivated primarily by Esteem motivations, and an appeal is made based on Altruism, some volunteers may feel that they are being unfairly asked for money when they already give their time. Similarly, these volunteers if asked for money in an appeal that stresses an incentive of some kind, will likely be upset since they will perceive it as decreasing the funds that could be used to benefit service recipients.

It would be interesting to further explore the potential use of the VFI for cross-recruitment within a non-profit. Cross-recruitment does not necessarily apply only to different types of service volunteer activity. Finding motivated volunteers to participate on charitable boards and advisory committees is an ongoing challenge. By understanding the relationship between motivations and degree of involvement in a charity, it is possible to identify groups of volunteers who will have a higher inclination to volunteer and succeed at this type of activity.

According to this research, persons with Understanding motivations are most likely to be involved in a variety of different ways within the non-profit. To a lesser degree, volunteers with Value motivations are similarly disposed. The newly created Altruistic motivation is also a good predictor, with the added value that it also helps to identify volunteers who donate larger amounts of time (see Note on Table V).

The implementation of this approach in a non-profit is straightforward if the VFI is used for recruitment and retention purposes: Each volunteer completes the VFI when s/he joins the non-profit, and regularly thereafter. The case made by Clary, Snyder and Ridge (1992) is sufficiently strong that it would be a good strategy for any non-profit to consider on its own merits: Each volunteer can be individually categorized for the most effective type of appeal, whether for funds or recruitment for work in other areas within the non-profit. Based on this research, the VFI can be used by an organization to identify the various types of volunteers it has to better understand the motivations of each, and design its fund raising or recruitment campaigns accordingly.

For research purposes, the next logical step would be a field experiment test of this approach in a single non-profit. For fund raising purposes, based on the results of the VFI and using control groups, two or more types of campaigns could be sent to volunteers to determine the validity of the approach. In addition, as described, the VFI has possible potential applications in other areas of understanding and predicting volunteer behaviors. However, more field research is required to further test the utility of the VFI for such use.

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APPENDIX
A Summary of Questions Asked in the Volunteering In Canada Survey Using a 7-Point Likert Scale or "Yes" and "No" Choices

INSTRUCTIONS TO RESPONDENTS WERE AS FOLLOWS: The purpose of this survey is to gather information that will help us understand how volunteering works in Canadian charities. For this survey we are exploring formal volunteering that is done in organizations, and NOT volunteering more informally for neighbors or others. If you volunteer for more than one organization, think of only ONE organization, and answer these questions about that organization.

SURVEY QUESTIONS USING THE VOLUNTEER FUNCTIONS INVENTORY (VFI)

Social

My friends volunteer.
People I am close to volunteer.
People I know share an interest in community service.
Others with whom I am close place a high value on community service.
Volunteering is an important activity to people I know best.

Value

I am concerned about those less fortunate than myself.
I am genuinely concerned about the particular group I am serving.
I feel compassion toward people in need.
I feel it is important to help others.
I can do something for a cause that is important to me.

Career

Volunteering can help me get my foot in the door at a place where I would like to work.
I can make new contacts that might help my business or career.
Volunteering allows me to explore different career options.
Volunteering will help me succeed in my chosen profession.
Volunteering will look good on my resume.

Understanding

I can learn more about the cause for which I am working.
Volunteering allows me to gain a new perspective on things.
Volunteering lets me learn through direct hands-on experience.
I can learn how to deal with a variety of people.
I can explore my own strengths.

Protective

Doing volunteer work relieves me of some of the guilt over being more fortunate than others.
Volunteering helps me work through my own personal problems.
Volunteering is a good escape from my own troubles.
No matter how bad I've been feeling, volunteering helps me to forget about it.
By volunteering I feel less lonely.

Esteem

Volunteering makes me feel important.
Volunteering increases my self-esteem.
Volunteering makes me feel better about myself.
Volunteering is a way to make new friends.
Volunteering makes me feel needed.

VOLUNTEER WORK ACTIVITY AND INVOLVEMENT

What is the name of the organization for which you volunteer and are thinking of for this questionnaire?
How did you first become a volunteer for this organization?
How long have you been a volunteer for this organization?
How many hours do you volunteer in an average month for this organization?
In this organization have you always done the same volunteer job? (yes, no)
If you have done more than one volunteer job with this organization, how many have you done?
Check the categories below that describe the volunteer job you are now doing in this organization you are thinking of for this questionnaire.

DONATIONS TO CHARITY

Have you donated any of your belongings (not including money) to churches or charities in the past year?
Have you donated blood in the past year ? (yes, no)
Do you make financial contributions to a church or charitable organization? (yes,no)
Please check the category that best describes the total contributions you make to churches and charities in a full year.
Do you make financial contributions to the organization you are thinking about for this survey? (yes, no)
If you make financial contributions to this organization, please check the category that best describes the total contributions you make in a full year.

ABSTRACT

Can the 12 steps of recovery programs and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) complement one another in a team-building effort for a diverse, in-recovery, volunteer team? This article examines an urban, non-profit residential treatment center's creation of a structured volunteer program, and the integration of volunteers into the treatment program for teenagers in recovery from chemical dependency. The MBTI had previously been used in the agency to enhance relationships among paid staff teams and management. The author was the human resources director and facilitator for the volunteer program initiative described in this article.

Steps and Types: How the MBTI Helped a Treatment Non-Profit Develop an Effective Volunteer Program

Jane Henderson-Loney, Ed.D.

THE 12 STEPS

The efforts of the community of recovering alcoholics and addicts in the treatment of adolescent chemical dependency can be quite remarkable. Of the employees at the Northern California urban, non-profit treatment center, the Adolescent Recovery Hospital (ARH), 70 percent are in recovery either from chemical dependency or codependency. They are actively engaged in a 12-step program such as Alcoholics Anonymous, Narcotics Anonymous or Codependents Anonymous.

Each 12-step program is a fellowship of people who share their experiences with addictive behavior in the hope of supporting one another's recovery. There is no formal structure and no membership procedure other than a desire to stop the addictive behavior. Twelve-step meetings, free of charge, are open to anyone with a desire to stop drinking and/or using illicit drugs and to family members who wish to gain insight into the disease of addiction. The 12 steps provide easy-to-understand guidelines for behavior and attitude change. By following the steps, the alcoholic or addict learns to accept responsibility for actions and to commit to a drug- or alcohol-free lifestyle.

A deep commitment to its adolescent population and to the tradition of service found in the twelfth step drives the delivery of treatment at ARH. Those who choose to work in this field are not motivated by high salaries or symbols of power, but often by a need to "give back" and to "make amends" for behavior in pre-recovery lives. Deferment of personal gratification in favor of service to others is highly valued at ARH. This is seen in the acceptance of low salaries for work which is both physically demanding and emotionally intense and which requires working unusual schedules. Although the same can be said of staff in a great many social service settings, coeducational, residential, adolescent drug treatment is a unique, 24-hour environment of raging hormones, drug-seeking behavior, and verbal, physical, and sexual acting out.

Maintaining a compassionate treatment atmosphere for this population is a challenge. The tools learned working through the philosophy of the 12 steps helps to support a step-by-step, in-the-moment style of

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response when the teens' behaviors require correction. For example, Alcoholics Anonymous encourages the person in recovery to promptly admit when he or she is wrong. This behavior is both modeled for the teens by the staff, who practice this principle among themselves, and is taught to the teenagers at the time they are being corrected.

THE MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR (MBTI)

The human resources director at ARH was asked to coordinate the development of a volunteer program for persons in recovery to enhance and support treatment for the adolescents in residence. The volunteers would sponsor recovering adolescents in 12-step programs, be partners in supporting families after teens graduated from treatment, and provide transportation to meetings, among other activities. Sponsoring a newly recovering alcoholic is an especially important tenet of Alcoholics Anonymous for people who have been in recovery for a substantial period of time. The volunteer must be able to meet or call a sponsored teen who is having trouble saying no to drug use or drinking and guide a newly sober teen through the 12-step process of self-examination and commitment to sobriety. Accustomed to activities that promote self-discovery, the 12-step volunteers were an ideal group with whom to implement the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), a tool which also builds self-awareness.

The human resources director recommended to the executive director that the agency use the MBTI as a team-building tool for the proposed group as was done in earlier team-building efforts at ARH. The MBTI, a psychometric questionnaire developed by Katharine Briggs and Isabel Myers, is considered the simplest and most reliable tool to identify personality types. Table I describes sixteen personality types based on a person's preferred style of solving problems and interacting with others. Used in a variety of ways, the MBTI has helped people explore career paths, im-

TABLE I

Explanation of the 16 MBTI Personality Acronyms

ISTJ: INTROVERTED, SENSING, THINKING, JUDGING
These people are serious, responsible, sensible, trustworthy and matter-of-fact. They are the organizers of life's details.

ISFJ: INTROVERTED, SENSING, FEELING, JUDGING
These people are loyal, devoted, compassionate, and perceptive. They are committed to getting the job done.

INFJ: INTROVERTED, INTUITIVE, FEELING, JUDGING
These people are very independent, original thinkers. They are quietly inspiring.

INTJ: INTROVERTED, INTUITIVE, THINKING, JUDGING
These people are logical, perfectionists, and ingenious. They have the vision.

ISTP: INTROVERTED, SENSING, THINKING, PERCEIVING
These people are straightforward, honest, pragmatic, reserved. Don't discuss it—just do it!

ISFP: INTROVERTED, SENSING, FEELING, PERCEIVING
These people are gentle, caring, sensitive and modest. They believe action speaks louder than words.

INFP: INTROVERTED, INTUITIVE, FEELING, PERCEIVING
These people greatly value inner harmony and are idealistic. They make life kinder and gentler.

INTP: INTROVERTED, INTUITIVE, THINKING, PERCEIVING
These people are conceptual problem-solvers and contemplative. They are quietly creative, intellectual.

*ESTP: EXTRAVERTED, SENSING, THINKING, PERCEIVING
These people are active, easy-going, and spontaneous, preferring action to talk. They make the most of the moment

ESFP: EXTRAVERTED, SENSING, FEELING, PERCEIVING
These people enjoy the company of others and have a zest for living. They make work fun.

ENFP: EXTRAVERTED, INTUITIVE, FEELING, PERCEIVING
These people are full of enthusiasm and new ideas. They put people first.

ENTP: EXTRAVERTED, INTUITIVE, THINKING, PERCEIVING
These people love excitement and a challenge. They are clever and talkative.

ESTJ: EXTRAVERTED, SENSING, THINKING, JUDGING
These people are responsible and conscientious. They are natural administrators.

ESFJ: EXTRAVERTED, SENSING, FEELING, JUDGING
These people are friendly and sympathetic. They are everyone's trusted friend.

ENFJ: EXTRAVERTED, INTUITIVE, FEELING, JUDGING
These people place highest importance on the feelings of others and consensus. They are engaging persuaders.

ENTJ: EXTRAVERTED, INTUITIVE, THINKING, JUDGING
These people are natural leaders and decision-makers. They are assured and confident.

Adapted from *Type Talk at Work* by Otto Kroeger and Janet Thuesen (1988). New York: Dalacorte Press.

*Spelling idiosyncratic to the MBTI. Extroverted is spelled "extraverted" in all of Myers' work.

prove communication skills, and build more effective teams in the workplace.

ARH had been committed to team-building over time. Four years previously, the agency's clinical management team and the executive director observed that not only were increased culturally-sensitive, collaborative strategies needed in the treatment of adolescents and families, but also in the management, supervision, and development of paid staff and, ultimately, the organized volunteer group. It was at this time that the first MBTI interventions took place, first with the management team, and then with the entire ARH staff, team by team. ARH had chosen a certified MBTI trainer, experienced in working with clients in the 12-step and non-profit worlds, to facilitate training. The staff clearly had become more cohesive and focused as a result of the intervention.

The use of the MBTI in creating a common understanding and way of communicating was so successful that when ARH began a structured volunteer program, the decision was easily reached that all volunteers be trained in the MBTI to more quickly integrate them into the delivery of treatment to the adolescents housed at the facility. It was believed this shared communication approach would also greatly facilitate the acceptance of the volunteer program by paid staff and more quickly break down potential interpersonal barriers inevitably encountered in such a diverse setting. Continuing to use the resources of the MBTI also demonstrated the consistent commitment of the agency's executive director to enhance participative management and shared leadership.

Like the departmental work teams, it was anticipated that the volunteer teams would have a similar character, mission, and purpose and would be racially and ethnically diverse. They also would vary widely in levels of education and life experience, including sentences served in the criminal justice system. The desire to "carry the message" of recovery (Alcoholics Anonymous's twelfth step) to the teens and their families, shared by paid staff and volunteers, would be an additional bond to support the training. All of these conditions supported the continuing use of the MBTI as a foundation for creating a cohesive volunteer team.

ARH was committed to diversity in recruitment of paid staff and volunteers to serve a diverse, urban community. The MBTI was chosen because of its innate respect of differences and its everyday, easy-to-learn language with which previously unacquainted individuals bond, identify a shared mission, and become a team. Even in culturally diverse settings, they learn to value differences in work styles through an explanation of the 16 personality types. When the members of a team learn the differences in their individual communication and problem-solving styles, they recognize areas of potential misunderstanding and conflict which help them anticipate and avoid some of the common obstacles encountered by newly formed groups. For example, conflicts often arise in the manner in which information is shared. A simple solution is to discover through the MBTI how many in a team are extroverted and how many are introverted, in order to help the group process information more efficiently and move ahead more quickly. Introverts prefer to think things through in advance of discussions; providing them written information before meetings will help them prepare their comments and not feel frustrated that the extroverts are talking things through too quickly.

The MBTI provides a tool by which to redefine conflict into preferred styles of behavior by explaining each communication style's merit and exposing the differing interests expressed by each in a safe and respectful way. This approach allows each person to step back and consider their own and each other's preferred style and find common understanding.

It was anticipated that building the new volunteer team would present the challenges and obstacles inherent in all start-up activities. The MBTI parallels the developmental stages of group growth described by Tuckman as "storming, forming, norm-

ing, performing, and adjourning" (Tuckman and Jensen, 1977). Each stage of group development has its own particular emotional, behavioral, and cognitive demands. The MBTI enhances communication, reduces misunderstanding, and encourages cooperation, keys to the formation of a successful team.

BUILDING THE TEAM

Once a commitment to creating a supervised volunteer program was made and planning for it completed, the director of aftercare and the human resources director began recruiting volunteers by sending an announcement to everyone on the agency's mailing list. Staff involved in 12-step groups spoke of the opportunity at meetings. The aftercare department told graduates from the treatment program and their families. Response from the families of successful graduates of the treatment program was strong. A small core group of treatment graduates, 18-years-of-age or older, with at least one year of recovery from chemical dependency was identified. Interested adults—some of whom were family members who had completed aftercare, as well as other supporters of ARH—were invited to a meeting at which the executive director, the director of aftercare, and the human resources director described the goals and responsibilities of volunteering for the agency.

After this meeting 11 young adults and 26 adult family members and ARH supporters committed themselves to volunteer for one year. They were told that a screening and training process was required to satisfy agency licensing standards, to which all agreed.

To support the process of developing a new volunteer program for ARH, the human resources director, the director of the aftercare program, and the executive director contacted the MBTI certified consultant who had trained the agency's paid staff. She understood the culture of the agency and the goal of the management team to build a collaborative and consensual decision-making environment. The consultant and human resources director met with the director of aftercare services. The director of aftercare services would coordinate the new volunteer program, and plan the training and follow-up meetings for the next twelve months. The volunteer team, like the paid staff teams, was racially and ethnically diverse and of widely ranging ages and levels of education.

A session to introduce the MBTI was held for the volunteers, all of whom had completed the MBTI questionnaire mailed to them with a letter briefly explaining its history and purpose. Instructions to complete the questionnaire and send it to the consultant for scoring before the introductory meeting were included. At the meeting the volunteers were told how the MBTI was used throughout ARH to support work teams and enhance understanding and communication.

The volunteers were separated into "type alike" groups. A series of exercises demonstrated how differences can lead to misunderstanding in a group. An added benefit of the session was that the group members not only learned new information about one another, but also they had fun! They were reminded at the end of the first four-hour training session that they would have to attend two one-hour follow-up sessions using MBTI tools.

The profile of the volunteer team as a whole was dominated by ENFJs (see Table I). This personality type, characterized by an engaging and persuasive style of communication, was predominant among ARH's paid staff as well. This was consistent with expectations and, in fact, bode well for the success of integrating the volunteer team with ARH's management style and paid staff teams. It also reinforced a belief that some care-giving institutions are dominated by people who fit the ENFJ type: people who recognize the impact of their behavior upon others, are nurturing, and able to empathize. Building a team of such caring types can be a rewarding experience, but is sometimes complicated by its members' avoidance of constructive conflict and resolution.

The volunteer group went through growing pains in its "storming phase" as it formed an identity within ARH and sought to become cohesive. Trust among the team members was a most significant issue. Racial tensions arose. Interpersonal, class and economic issues, and concerns about access to treatment and post-treatment services for poor and minority teens were discussed. Voices were raised and tears shed especially around race and gender differences. Driven by a majority of ENFJs, a high value was placed on identifying and respecting feelings. The volunteer team survived because of the commitment of this non-profit service community to allow feelings to be expressed in a safe setting without fear of reprisal, and because of the insights provided by the MBTI workshops. The agency's paid staff, also heavily populated by ENFJs, were already educated in the communication tools provided by the MBTI and were ideal role models for the volunteer team. Further modeling for this style of communication was provided by the executive director, an ENFP (putting people first), who placed a high priority on relationship-building and visioning. He took every appropriate opportunity to include the volunteers in agency planning sessions with paid staff and respectfully entertained their suggestions and contributions, just as he did those from his management team and staff.

Throughout the year the volunteers worked to define their role and build relationships within the group and with the paid staff. They made quarterly presentations to all paid staff describing their activities and growth, cementing their position as an important component of treatment for the teens in residence and for families after graduation from treatment. Volunteers attended worlshops in the larger community that addressed issues faced by volunteers in other non-profit settings. Some took classes to improve their understanding of substance abuse clinical issues. Of the 37 volunteers who started the year 33, or 90 percent, remained active at the end of the year (see Table II). Attrition resulted because two volunteers moved away to attend college, one left to care for an ill parent, and another withdrew from the program.

Both before and during the promised second and third one-hour follow-up meetings with the MBTI trainer, which occurred at three-month intervals, volunteers used the acronyms they learned in the training as a special shorthand to resolve problems and for team-building and cohesiveness. In other words, they were "talking type." They worked hard to integrate the volunteer program into ARH's day-to-day mission. The follow-up meetings reinforced the principles of the MBTI and provided experiential exercises to illustrate how individual differences

TABLE II

Volunteers at ARH by Type

ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ
1	2	4	0
ISTP	ISFP	TNFP	INTP
0	0	1	0
ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP
0	1	9	0
ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ
3	3	13	0

strengthen a team's ability to achieve its purpose. An interface, consisting of periodic meetings and a monthly volunteer newsletter, was created between the volunteer and paid staff teams using communication tools learned throughout the MBTI training to accelerate the process of acceptance.

By the end of the year the volunteer group was a respected and valued part of the agency's treatment team. Not only were the volunteers able to provide more chaperones and transportation to 12-step meetings and events for the adolescents in treatment, but they were role models and offered moral support to the teens and the staff. Further, some of the volunteers were given additional training by the aftercare department in peer-to-peer dispute resolution, peer counseling, and group dynamics. This training permitted some volunteers to help the adolescents in residence to peacefully resolve disputes as they occurred during the treatment day and to participate in selected group counseling sessions for teens and their family members.

SUMMARY

The amount of time and attention paid to team-building and valuing differences in this non-profit treatment community is to be commended. The families for whom services are designed all share the need for competent and sensitive interventions. Stereotypes and misconceptions *within* an agency between paid staff and volunteers and between volunteers themselves must be addressed in order to meet the mission of service to which all have pledged. The MBTI provides the tools to value differences, and allows for more productive interactions with others in order to better deliver critically needed help.

ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alcoholics Anonymous. 3d ed. (1976) New York: Alcoholics Anonymous World Services, Inc.
This is the guidebook to the fundamental steps and traditions of Alcoholics Anonymous used by all participants in the various 12-step programs.

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This book restates the principles introduced by Isabel Briggs Myers and offers an alternative, briefer inventory.

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Myers, Isabel Briggs. (1987) *Introduction to Type.* Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
This is required initial reading for preparing to use the MBTI in any setting.

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This is a seminal work which underscores the importance of respecting individual preferences for problem-solving and communicating.

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This article updates Tuckman's stages of team development introducing the "adjourning" phase.

Cumulative Index to *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* Volumes XIII through XIV

Index by Author

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

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volunteerism: anything related to volunteers, volunteer programs or volunteer management, regardless of funding base (including government-related volunteers).

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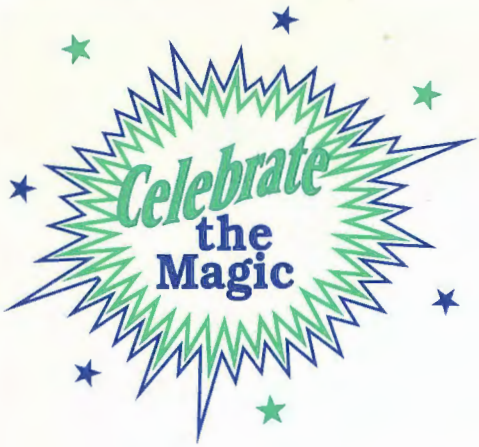

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