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The Association for Volunteer Administration(AVA) is the professional association for those working in the field of volunteer management who want to shape the future of volunteerism, develop their professional skills, and further their careers. Members include volunteer program administrators in a wide variety of settings, agency executives, association officers, educators, researchers, consultants, students—anyone who shares a commitment to the effective utilization of volunteers. AVA is open to both salaried and nonsalaried professionals.

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On Passing the Blue Pencil

Anne S. Honer

When Susan Ellis left the position of Editor-in-Chief of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*, she had set the tone for our profession's publication in many ways. I am following in her footsteps by using this issue as an opportunity to editorialize, for I now am passing the blue pencil to Barbara Gilfillen. Barbara has served on the editorial staff of *The Journal* since 1987, prepared for this position for a year, and is eager to bring her own style of leadership and exercise her creativity in taking us into a new era of top quality journalism.

My ten years with *The Journal* as Reviewing Editor, Senior Editor and Editor-in-Chief have been a volunteer's dream. I've had responsibility for a quality, successful, tangible product; been part of a dedicated staff-volunteer team; had excellent orientation and training; and opportunities to laugh and to cry. I will never forget the winter night we were working on a deadline and the phones went out all over our section of town. The telephone company had no idea when service would be restored, and I had a telephone date with Tom Funston, our editorial assistant and liaison with the printer in Boulder (Colorado).

I decided that the warmest, safest place to keep the appointment was at the other end of town, so I gathered the manuscripts and my newly-acquired telephone credit card and headed out . . . to the police station, where I spent three hours sitting on a table in the lobby (the

phone cord was too short for me to sit in a chair) with manuscripts spread all around me, working with Tom until 2:00 a.m.

Some very nice things happen to the Editor-in-Chief, such as sharing the head table with interesting people at conferences; working with leaders in our field such as Susan Ellis, Ivan Scheier, and Eva Schindler-Rainman to develop articles for publication; and hearing from readers that *The Journal* has helped them solve a problem or answer a question or provoke their thinking.

I am proud of the innovations we have brought to *The Journal* in the nearly three years as Editor-in-Chief. Three that come to mind immediately include the new feature, "Volunteerism's Vital Speeches"; a special topic-oriented issue on evaluation with a guest editor; and standardization of the format for footnotes and bibliographies. *The Journal* also generated a few letters in these past months, something that indicates that subscribers are reading.

EDITORIAL FANTASIES

Editors fantasize about having mountains of manuscripts from which to choose. We push, we prod, we try as many ways as we can think of to entice readers to share their thoughts and experiences with others. The reality is this, in the words of one of our popular songs: "It all depends on you." Without writers, there would be no publication.

Anne S. Honer is Executive Director of the Neighborhood Furniture Bank in Providence, Rhode Island, a nonprofit organization that distributes furniture and new clothing to the needy. For the past ten years, she has served on the volunteer staff of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* in various capacities, most recently as Editor-in-Chief. She has also served the Association for Volunteer Administration as Regional Conference Chair, Region I Chair, and National Membership Chair. Current volunteer involvement includes the Board of Directors of Volunteers in Action, Rhode Island's voluntary action center; Advisory Council for the College of Resource Development at the University of Rhode Island; Governor's Council for Aviation Education; and the Rhode Island Pilots Association.

It isn't difficult to come up with a list of ten reasons why we should write. Try it some time in your meetings of Directors of Volunteers or volunteer leaders. So, why don't we write? What are the obstacles? This list of ten items you could generate as well. But in order to overcome these obstacles, writing for *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* must have real value. Writers must make time in already busy schedules, must clarify their thinking, must be willing to "expose themselves" by presenting to the world in a permanent record what they may never have shared with anyone else. Their "babies" are now up for public scrutiny, but the travail brings great rewards: the satisfaction of seeing an article in print, recognition for having published, the opportunity to develop an idea, perhaps even a promotion.

In surveys taken of members of the Association for Volunteer Administration, *The Journal* consistently comes out tops as the most important benefit of membership. Non-members, too, express their appreciation for this professional resource. There is so much to learn in our growing field, and no one or group has exclusive rights to the thoughts that shape it. As I grow older, I recognize that there are times when others are praised for "new" thoughts I had years ago; I had assumed they were ideas that "everybody knew," so I had not spoken out, either verbally or on paper. *The Journal* encourages everyone to speak out, to influence the field.

PROFESSIONAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Along with the right to influence the field, we have the responsibility to share our ideas and practices.

We place great value on sharing ideas through the skill of training, going so far as developing "train the trainers" sessions at conferences, seminars and meetings. I have tried to use the platform as Editor-in-Chief to get across my belief that communication through writing is every bit as important to the development of both individuals and the field as

a whole. Less publicized than the trainers' sessions, but also available is the help which our editorial staff offers writers. We want all involved in volunteer administration to see *The Journal* as a vehicle for communicating their ideas, regardless of who they are, whatever their status. We are committed to helping them as long as they are willing to try to improve their work. Even our most respected leaders have worked on numerous revisions before their works were considered acceptable for publication.

Few volunteer administrators enjoy the luxury of having a colleague in the same organization. Writing for *The Journal* lets us inspire our colleagues around the world as they grapple with the day to day problems of planning, organizing, staffing, directing and evaluating at the same time as we strengthen our own foundations.

There is another perspective to consider, as well. We are responsible for helping thousands of people express their commitments to their beliefs by choosing to give time to the causes important to them. Just as they have the right to volunteer, we have the right to write. Writing for a professional publication such as this one is a right unique to a democracy. No one tells the professionals in the field who must write, when they must write or about what they must write.

We must perpetuate these values and support the development of the field which leads these volunteers and those who lead them. Writing effectively helps do just that.

GRATITUDE

Thank you . . .

. . . Susan Ellis and AVA for giving me the opportunity to serve as Editor-in-Chief

. . . editorial staff of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* for your insight, wisdom and patience

. . . AVA office staff, who are responsive, challenging and most patiently helpful

. . . Tom Funston, a wonderful
teacher and good friend
. . . editorial advisors, who have
been available as needed and wor-
thy advisors, indeed
. . . all our writers, who have cared
deeply enough about something to
want to communicate it

. . . readers, for giving *The Journal* a
chance to influence their work with
volunteers
. . . and Barbara Gilfillen, for whom
I sharpen the blue pencil with the
wish she will enjoy using it as much
as I did.

ABSTRACT

Recent trends seem to emphasize closer relationships between volunteers and existing organizations and groups. There is concern among community workers that the increasing "bureaucratization" of volunteers comes at the expense of their participation in less affiliated community tasks.

This article presents a more integrated approach to the recruitment and utilization of volunteers, one which views the needs of communities as elastic and evolving. The need to involve volunteers is seen as independent of current needs of existing groups.

A project that is based on this concept has been implemented in Israel. Its main objective was the simultaneous recruitment of a mass of volunteers and the creation of areas of involvement for all of them.

The project has succeeded in the net recruitment of approximately 15% of all able residents in the target area. However, the areas of involvement selected by the volunteers indicate a preference for traditional, affiliated tasks. The selection of tasks related to community functioning lags far behind. The findings lend some support to the claims made by community workers and underscore the need to focus on these critical areas during special and ongoing recruitment efforts.

Fitting Volunteers with Tasks and Creating Tasks for Volunteers: A Look at the Role of Volunteers in a Community Context

Nachman Sharon, Ph.D.

Volunteerism and citizen participation have long been integral parts of the human services, and in the last two decades there has been a systematic effort to conceptualize and develop these roles in literature and practice. The four primary objectives for volunteerism and participation that emerge from a review of the literature are: (a) to make up for the dwindling funds for public and private programs by using volunteers as an unpaid pool of human resources (Conley, 1972; Routh, 1972), (b) to humanize services that have become increasingly bureaucratic and impersonal (Orr, 1984; Manser, 1987), (c) to provide constructive outlets and courses of action for populations with excess of leisure time and other bases of needs for participation (Cull & Hardy, 1971; Morris, 1969;

Schindler-Rainman & Lippitt, 1971), and (d) to improve conditions in local communities and society at large by involving lay citizens in local activities (Haeuser & Schwartz, 1984; Litwak et al., 1975; Manser, 1987).

Volunteerism's diversity of purpose and its growing scope have led to the increasing systematization and "bureaucratization" of the field; evidence of these changes can be found in both the practice and the literature. This trend is reflected in the prevalence of the following topics: (a) deducting and creating voluntary roles from the goals and objectives of agencies and groups (Seguin, 1984), (b) fitting volunteers to roles by utilizing rational methods adapted from such technologies as functional job analysis (Fine & Wiley, 1971; Offer, 1981), and (c) en-

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hancing the relationships between professionals and volunteers in agencies and increasing volunteer utilization (Naylor, 1967; Routh, 1972; Sharon & Neeman, 1989; McNulty & Klatt, 1989). Several authors (Haeuser & Schwartz, 1984; Perlmutter, 1984) go on to conceptualize a new specialization in social work, that of volunteer administrator.

The growing systematization of volunteerism is a direct response to the increasing complexity of the needs that volunteers seek to address. Given this trend, the author sees a need to preserve the balance among organizational, community-at-large, and individual needs in the utilization of volunteers. More specifically, the author is concerned that the "bureaucratization" of volunteerism might reduce its ability to respond to the changing and evolving needs of communities.

THE VOLUNTEER OR THE TASK, WHICH COMES FIRST?

The question of how best to approach the involvement of volunteers is a central issue in community work literature. The main philosophical alternatives are perhaps best summarized by Rothman, Ehrlich, and Teresa (1984) who suggest that volunteerism and participation can be viewed: (a) as ends in themselves, *i.e.*, voluntary participation is an ideological imperative in community work and is a strategic and tactical necessity; (b) as means for achieving community ends, *i.e.*, participation by volunteers is an integral aspect of community work but the outcome takes precedence over the process; and (c) as conditional means that should be employed only in pursuing select objectives and only if participation can be effective.

Each of these views fits a key model in community work. The first view is linked to the community development and social action models, whereas the latter two better fit the social planning model and support the need for a more efficient involvement of volunteers (Rothman, 1979).

Dissatisfaction with the dichotomous way in which issues have been presented led the author to seek a more integrated approach to volunteerism and participation, one that addresses effectiveness and efficiency and responds to the broader needs of communities and to traditional values of community work. The basic premise underlying this approach states that the recruitment and involvement of volunteers should not be dictated only by present needs, structures, and missions of groups and organizations. It must also take into account broader, long range goals of communities and must be based on the recognition that community needs are not of a fixed nature. Groups and organizations are the building blocks of communities, but at any given moment the needs of the communities are greater than the sum of the existing organizations' missions. The ultimate goal should therefore be to make each able resident a volunteer and to create challenging, well-conceived tasks to accommodate the supply of volunteers.

THE HAIFA DEMONSTRATION PROJECT: "OPERATION HEART"

The need to test this approach led to the development of a demonstration project for the integrated recruitment and involvement of volunteers. The objectives of the project went beyond the need for knowledge building and were in response to actual problems that are endemic to communities in both developed and developing societies. These problems include low levels of participation and communal identification.

The project, named Operation Heart, took place in the city of Haifa in Northern Israel, which has a population of approximately 250,000. The site for the project consisted of four adjacent neighborhoods, each with approximately 6,000 households. The four neighborhoods offer a mix of social and economic conditions but none can be described as impoverished. Operation Heart was planned and implemented by a combined com-

munity school and center that serves the four target neighborhoods. Up to this point the process consisted of the following phases:

Needs and Resource Surveys and Assessment

1. Residents survey: the objective of this activity was to identify types of problems and needs, as well as potential resources that exist in the community. Tenant committees, numbering 605 members, were interviewed and asked to identify needs and resources in their buildings.

2. Nominal group sessions: this activity also aimed at assessing community circumstances. Small groups of teachers, social workers, religious leaders, and law enforcement personnel utilized the Nominal Group Process technique (Delbecq, Van de Ven & Gustafson, 1975) to identify and rank community problems and needs.

3. Voluntary groups and organizations survey: the objective was to identify areas of existing involvement as well as unmet and potential needs for volunteers. The information was obtained via questionnaires that were sent to all known groups operating in the four neighborhoods.

Design and Implementation of Recruitment Strategy

Following the analysis of findings from the first stage, current and potential needs were clustered around six areas of community concerns. Each of these areas was further broken down as follows:

1. Establishment of public safety and security: recruiting crossing guards, traffic observers, civil guards (auxiliary police), developing and teaching defensive driving courses.

2. Absorption of immigrants and other newcomers: sponsoring new families (advocacy), assisting children of newcomers, maintaining contact with prospective immigrants in their countries of origin.

3. Improvement of human and interpersonal relations: recruiting members for committees to promote human and civil rights, and for committees to promote better understanding between Arabs and Jews, training for conflict resolution among tenants.

4. Enhancement of quality of life: preserving nature, fostering community development, increasing consumer awareness and protection, producing local newspapers, conducting antismoking campaigns, preserving common housing property (stairways, refuse disposal areas), establishing organ donation programs.

5. Delivery of assistance to residents in need: recruiting big brothers, babysitting for needy parents, offering counseling, providing homemaking and repair assistance, providing legal aid, visiting isolated widows and aged residents.

6. Delivery of assistance to the disabled: providing home visits, providing homemaking and repair assistance, helping in fundraising activities, visiting hospitals and institutions, driving disabled persons, entertaining disabled children on weekends, providing escort services.

The six areas of concern became the focus of the recruitment strategy, which aimed at reaching all able residents over 16 years of age. The objective was to enlist the involvement of each in at least one voluntary activity whether of long term, short term, or one-time duration.

The areas of concern and their specific tasks also became the basis for the creation of new roles for the expected volunteers. This activity involved meeting with existing groups and community workers interested in developing new initiatives in anticipation of the new recruits. These meetings focused on ways to channel prospective volunteers to existing needs and on strategies for integrating organizational programs with new community issues (Haverkamp, 1989).

The main instrument used in the project was an indexed, directory-style

brochure. Each area of concern was allocated a page containing all the optional activities that one could select, along with a registration form. Useful household tips, such as first aid, were printed at the end of the brochure to increase the likelihood that residents would keep it.

The recruitment process utilized diverse methods and media. The flow of activities was sequenced and scheduled to culminate on Volunteer Day (or V-Day for short), a day designated for total canvassing of the community. Lead-in activities included delivery of the recruitment brochures to the mailboxes of all households in the four target neighborhoods; display of posters and distribution of informational leaflets in apartment buildings, shopping areas, and public facilities; feature stories in neighborhood, local, and national newspapers; and national radio and television coverage. Items included appearances of the organizers on talk shows, stories in the local sections of the news, and unpaid announcements of public interest. At a time when the media had been saturated with negative news, the project was "sold" as a relevant, positive, and unprecedented event.

The public campaign intensified during the week prior to canvassing day and two major events provided the lead into V-Day. The first was an evening of interviews in a local auditorium with prominent celebrities who were involved in voluntary activities. The second event was a volunteerism fair held in a local shopping area with the participation of 30 organizations.

Canvassing day (V-Day) was the end event and climax of the recruitment stage. To ensure maximal coverage, the four neighborhoods were subdivided into census tracts, and a list containing all housing units and their addresses was prepared for each tract. The canvassing force was made up of high school students and adult volunteers. Students were divided into pairs, with one tract of

addresses assigned to each pair. A central command post was set up and communications were established with area (neighborhood) managers whose tasks were to ensure the safety of the canvassers and to resolve localized problems such as erroneous addresses.

The canvassing volunteers were given four hours of orientation during the week preceding V-Day. Role plays and simulations were used to prepare the students for their task and for "real life" resident responses. Several ideas mentioned in the literature, including Rothman, Ehrlich, and Teresa's (1984) instrumental and expressive reward basis, and Rothman's (1974) action hypothesis, were incorporated into the training. A special emphasis was put on the referral of the new volunteers to existing groups or to interested community workers who expressed interest in creating roles for those who enlisted. The students were instructed to focus on the enlistment of volunteers and to turn down offers of material donations, which were seen as a diversion from the project's primary goal.

Canvassing took place on the evening of V-Day. The timing was selected to maximize the probability for finding residents at home. The canvassers were instructed to return to those addresses where residents had not been found during the first round of visits.

RESULTS

- 6,010 addresses were visited on the evening of V-Day.
- 5,928 households were actually identified.
- 4,409 households (74%) had at least one adult or teen age member at home during one of the visits.
- 895 households provided 974 new volunteers for a total of 1228 different tasks in the six areas of concern.

The following tables provide a breakdown of the new volunteers and the tasks for which they signed up, along several dimensions:

Table I
Tasks Selected by New Volunteers
by Area of Concern
n=1,228

<u>Area of Concern</u>	<u>Percent of All Tasks Selected</u>
Assistance to newcomers	30.5
Assisting needy families and persons	20.6
Public safety	17.0
Quality of life	15.7
Human, interpersonal relations	14.3
Assisting the handicapped	11.9
Total	100.00

Table II
Tasks Selected by New Volunteers
by Orientation of Tasks
n=1,228

<u>Orientation of Task</u>	<u>Percent of Tasks</u>
Individuals and families (direct services)	40.6
Social and environmental	37.1
Community development	22.3
Total	100.00

Table III
Tasks Selected by New Volunteers
by Preferred Frequency of Involvement
n=1,228

<u>Preferred Frequency</u>	<u>Percent of Tasks</u>
Once a week	43.2
Twice a week	25.4
Once a month	24.9
One time only	6.5
Total	100.00

The most frequently selected individual tasks were sending letters and parcels to prospective immigrants abroad (148 responses), taking first aid classes (73 responses), hosting youth from prospective immigrant families (72), consent to donate organs following death (54), and tutoring and homework assistance for needy children (47).

DISCUSSION

Assessing Success (effectiveness)

The primary goal was to recruit as many able residents as possible. As the figures suggest, the project achieved partial success. The author estimates that between 12% and 15% of all able residents responded to the appeal. These percentages represent a net increase in the number of volunteers (persons not involved in ongoing voluntary activities prior to the project). The figures do not include the high school students and adults who were involved in the various activities related to the implementation of the project itself.

Because the reported project is a pilot, comparisons to similar efforts in Israel or other countries are difficult. Those figures that are available come from surveys that measured the scope and nature of volunteerism or participation at given points in time. Estimates range from 24% of all adults (Morris, 1969; Reisch and Wenocur, 1984) to 34% (Manser, 1987). In view of these estimates, the enlistment of an additional 12% to 15% within a short time frame is encouraging, although the stated goal of reaching all residents had proven to be an ideal rather than a realistic target.

The measurement of success itself needs some clarification. One definition can include all those who responded positively to the recruitment campaign. A more conservative approach would count only those who have made at least the initial contact with the various committees and groups. Although the issue of retention goes beyond the scope of the

reported phases, in new groups that have had their initial meetings and in initial contacts of new volunteers with existing groups and services, the average follow-up rate was 70% of original respondents.

The Distribution of Responses

First impressions from observing Tables I and II are that the majority of respondents opted for more traditional, "safer" forms of involvement. Thus, public safety and assistance to the needy are long established areas for volunteers in Israel, while human and interpersonal relations are not. Almost 41% of the selected tasks are in the area of direct assistance to individuals and families, and 37% relate to broad social and environmental involvement. Only 22% of selected tasks are directly related to evolving community needs. This finding lends some support to the contention of community workers that residents tend to shy away from participation in community decision making. The findings also support the argument that in modern-day Israel service to the society at large has become more sanctioned than service to one's own community (Gidron & Bargal, 1986). Given the choice, the majority of respondents prefer traditional volunteerism and service to society rather than the less familiar participation in evolving community affairs.

The findings are consistent with those of the U.S. Census Bureau and the United Way of America (Reisch & Wenocur, 1984). These two sources reported that the majority of volunteers in the United States are engaged in providing direct services rather than in social planning, fund raising, committee work, and other community related activities.

Desired Levels of Involvement

Residents who responded favorably were given a choice in selecting the frequency of participation, from twice a week to one-time involvement ("doing one good deed," as it was presented).

This last choice offered an outlet for those who wished to avoid initial heavy commitment. The actual choices presented in Table III suggest a high level of preliminary commitment, with the majority selecting at least weekly involvement.

The Project from Participants' Perspective

Following the completion of the recruitment stage, structured interviews were conducted with the project volunteers in order to gain more insight into the project's process. In all, 142 project participants were interviewed. The interviews were conducted retrospectively and aimed at reconstructing the attitudes and actual experiences of the project volunteers before and during V-Day.

Findings were that most (60%) of the interviewees had felt some anxiety before their calls on residents. This finding supports the decision to send pairs of volunteers to make the calls (for mutual support). However, the majority (82%) reported that the response from residents was as good or better than they had expected, while 13% encountered more negative resident attitudes than they had anticipated.

Regarding the project outcome, 46% of those interviewed said that they had enlisted fewer volunteers than they hoped, whereas 24% enlisted more. In spite of such disappointments, more than 70% of those involved felt that the project was worthwhile and ought to be continued, and only 10% felt that the project had failed. When asked whether they would be willing to participate in future projects, more than 70% of the respondents replied affirmatively, and only 6% declined. The findings underscore the need to provide preparation and support to project volunteers throughout the duration of the effort.

Barriers to Volunteerism

Among the registration materials provided to project volunteers were instruments for recording the reasons offered

by those who declined to volunteer. Of the reasons recorded, lack of time was most frequently mentioned (96% of all our project volunteers recorded it at least once), followed by poor health (64%), and personal needs and problems (61%). Other reasons given were old age (48%), pre-existing involvement in voluntary and other activities (47%), family obligations (45%), and lack of interest (30%).

Of the reasons given, the least expected was the need for help. Many of those who gave old age, poor health, and family-related difficulties as reasons for not signing communicated explicitly that they themselves had unmet needs. With these residents' consent, their names were forwarded to local human services agencies.

A thorough analysis of the issues related to residents' negative response was beyond the scope of this project and there are serious questions concerning the validity of self-reporting in such instances. The issue nevertheless deserves attention from both community workers and volunteer administrators.

CONCLUSIONS

In addition to fitting volunteers into tasks defined by existing groups, this project aimed at the mass recruitment of volunteers and at the simultaneous creation of areas of involvement for all of them. These goals were partially accomplished through a massive community project that has generated a high level of public interest and public coverage. This impact must be sustained by incorporating follow-up activities into the ongoing workloads of community workers and volunteer administrators.

Although the current project phase of linking the new volunteers with tasks has not yet been completed and evaluated, this is the time for organizers and evaluators to address a number of core issues:

1. What are the optimal levels for volunteer involvement?

Although the assumption underlying the project was that linear relationships exist between levels of volunteerism and community functioning, the association could be curvilinear (decreased functioning with too much volunteer involvement). However, effectiveness might not be the sole justification for the expansion of volunteerism, because significant pay-offs can still result from such projects for individuals as well as for the community (Roupe, 1984).

2. Assuming that a significant positive association does exist between volunteerism and community functioning, how can the quantity and quality of volunteerism be enhanced?

One possible modification of the original design would call for targeting different arguments and appeals to specific groups of potential volunteers such as retirees, students, etc. The reported project used a uniform approach to all prospective volunteers.

3. Based on the finding that volunteers turn more to traditional roles and less to tasks related to community development, how can more volunteers be channeled to the latter?

Many writers in this field call for greater involvement of volunteers in working toward achieving general community goals (Haeuser & Schwartz, 1984; Schindler-Rainman, 1984). They contend that a vast pool of potential volunteers exists but the methods of recruitment and channeling have not changed over the years. One possible direction would be to conduct smaller projects that aim to create and fill roles related solely to community functioning and development.

4. How can an integrated approach to volunteerism, focusing on the simultaneous creation of tasks and a pool of volunteers best succeed?

The potential for linkages should be further explored with the goal of establishing clearing houses for both tasks and volunteers in the community. Another possibility would be to make ongoing re-

cruitment part of the work-plans of volunteer administrators and community workers. Community-wide recruitment drives can become annual events, analogous to integrated fund raising campaigns.

5. How can this recruitment and involvement model be adapted to other environments?

The model described in this article assumes a high level of receptiveness and readiness on the part of the professional "establishment." Such cooperative attitudes can not be taken for granted. Although the basic approach is relatively simple and can be easily adapted to diverse environments, its implementation requires painstaking preparations. At the heart of these preparations must be increasing cooperation between community workers, volunteer administrators, and agency professionals. Such cooperation is a condition for the involvement of volunteers in a wide range of community activities on a scale to which the human services are not yet accustomed.

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Understanding the Needs of the Senior Volunteer

Alec J. Lee, M.B.A., M.P.A. and Catherine Burden, B.A., B.P.R.

As the average age of our population steadily rises, new challenges are faced by those community organizations wanting to involve older citizens as volunteers. Such challenges are particularly felt in recruitment activities and in designing meaningful volunteer jobs. As indicated by Stevens (1989-90), understanding the motives, needs and characteristics of seniors who volunteer, and those who choose not to volunteer, is necessary in developing successful volunteer programs.

These challenges are a major focus of activity for volunteer groups in Victoria, British Columbia. As the unofficial "retirement capital of Canada," Victoria's population includes a combination of both incoming retirees and aging current residents.

Close to one in five residents of Victoria is already over 65, compared to one in nine for Canada as a whole. Today, nearly 29% of the population of the Greater Victoria region is over the age of 55, some 80,000 individuals (*Statistics Canada, 1986*).

Victoria's experience provides a preview of the issues and challenges awaiting the rest of Canada and other countries in the near future.

Estimates are that the number of Canadians over 65 will almost double in the next 15 years, rising from 11% to 20% of the population. How will community organizations respond to this aging group of potential volunteers?

A study of Greater Victoria seniors, 55 years of age and over, was undertaken to determine characteristics of seniors who volunteer and to discover the reasons seniors do and do not participate in volunteer activities.

This report describes the study's methodology and results, and identifies some implications for practitioners.

NATURE OF THE STUDY

The data reported here were obtained through a telephone survey of 258 Greater Victoria residents, aged 55 years and over. A stratified random sample was used, with age, sex and area of residence (using local municipalities) as the operative strata, to ensure representation. A sample of this size yields percentage results that are statistically accurate to within a maximum of plus or minus 6.2%, nineteen times out of twenty.

The data were collected during mid-January, 1990, using a pre-tested questionnaire.

SENIORS WHO VOLUNTEER

We divided volunteering into formal (volunteering with a community organization) and informal (helping others without going through an organization). During the past 12 months, 34.9% of those interviewed had been active in organized volunteer work, while 65.1% volunteered informally. Of those who took part in formal volunteering, 29.9% were volunteering at the time of the

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study and an additional 5.0% were not currently involved in volunteering, but had done so in the past year.

This is significantly higher than the overall Canadian national percentage of seniors who volunteer. In its recent publication, "Giving Freely: Volunteers in Canada" (1989), *Statistics Canada* reported that 27.9% of Canadians 55 years of age and over were involved in organized volunteer activity during a recent 12 month period.

WHERE DO THEY VOLUNTEER?

Over three-quarters (76.6%) of the volunteers donated their time to a single organization, while 17.8% had been active with two organizations and 5.5% volunteered with three or more agencies.

Social Service Organizations were the number one choice of volunteers, with 31.1% of the seniors mentioning this type of organization as the recipient of their time. Society and Public Benefit Groups and Religious Groups were the next most frequently mentioned choices, both with 23.3% of the responses, followed by Health Organizations (22.2%) and Sports and Recreation Groups (12.2%). (Note that the percentage totals exceed 100% because some volunteers are involved in more than one type of group.)

WHAT VOLUNTEER WORK DO THEY DO?

Seniors have been active behind the scenes in the community as well as involved in front-line volunteering. Although the most frequently mentioned type of work was Care, Companionship and Visiting (28.9%), many of the seniors who volunteer are involved as Board Members (22.2%). The categories of work mentioned are listed in Table I.

TIME SPENT VOLUNTEERING

Based on the sample, seniors in Victoria provide a median of approximately 4.0 hours per week in volunteer activities. This is slightly more than the Canadian national average of 3.7 hours.

As well, it is estimated that seniors have been actively involved in volunteer work for a median of 6.6 years, with the length of time ranging from six months to 50 years.

It must be noted that these are subjective estimates of time spent volunteering, rather than precise, objective measures. However, they do provide useful indicators of both time commitment and volunteerism as part of a lifestyle.

REASONS FOR VOLUNTEERING

What attracts a person to volunteering? Roughly one third (33.3%) of the sample stated To Help Others in Need as the reason for donating their time. None of the other reasons gained this high a percentage, with the next most popular response the choice of only 13.3% of those interviewed (see Table II).

In spite of the majority of respondents stating altruistic reasons for becoming involved in volunteering, personal fulfillment represents an important issue that needs to be addressed to retain volunteers. Companionship (23.3%) was the primary reason volunteers remained with their organizations with Enjoyment of the Work (21.2%) and a Feeling of Satisfaction (11.1%) being other motivational factors.

The majority of volunteers in the sample participated in volunteering because Someone Asked Them. Personal contact was the main recruiting method.

REASONS FOR NOT VOLUNTEERING

The 168 respondents who had not been involved in formal volunteer activities over the past year were asked if there were any particular reasons why they chose not to volunteer. The most frequently mentioned responses were that people were too busy, or that their health did not allow them to volunteer (see Table III).

IMPLICATIONS

While the personal approach was the main method prompting involvement, it

Table I
Kinds of Volunteer Work in Which Seniors Have Been Involved

KIND OF VOLUNTEER WORK	NUMBER n	PERCENT % *
CARE, COMPANIONSHIP, VISITING	26	28.9
BOARD MEMBER	20	22.2
SELLING ITEMS	17	18.9
ORGANIZING EVENTS, SUPERVISING OR COORDINATING ACTIVITIES	13	14.4
FUND RAISING	10	11.1
OFFICE WORK	10	11.1
HELPING IN EVENTS	6	6.7
MAKING ITEMS	6	6.7
COUNSELING, GIVING ADVICE/SUPPORT	6	6.7
TEACHING, EDUCATING	6	6.7
DRIVING	5	5.5
COACHING, REFEREEING, JUDGING	4	4.4
PROVIDING INFORMATION	4	4.4
PREPARING OR SERVING FOOD	4	4.4
REPAIRING, MAINTAINING, BUILDING	4	4.4
OTHER **	18	20.0

* The percentages are based on the 90 respondents who volunteer. Percentage totals exceed 100% because respondents could give more than one answer.

** "Other" includes Canvassing, Recruiting Volunteers, Guiding Groups, Researching, Helping in a Religious Service, Collecting/Distributing Food, Search and Rescue, Environmental Protection.

Table II
Main Reasons for Getting Involved in Volunteering

REASONS FOR VOLUNTEERING	NUMBER n	PERCENT % *
TO HELP OTHERS IN NEED	30	33.3
TO STAY HEALTHY, ACTIVE, USEFUL	12	13.3
I LIKE THE CAUSE OF THE GROUP	9	10.0
I WAS QUALIFIED TO DO THE JOB	8	8.9
TO HELP MY CHILD'S/FAMILY'S GROUP	7	7.8
THEY ARE NICE PEOPLE	7	7.8
I WANTED TO HELP IN SOLVING COMMUNITY PROBLEMS - SEWERS, TAXES	7	7.8
TO RETURN SOMETHING BACK TO THE COMMUNITY	5	5.5
SELF SATISFACTION	5	5.5
I FELT I WANTED TO CONTRIBUTE	4	4.4
IT WAS SOMETHING TO DO	3	3.3
OTHER MISCELLANEOUS **	10	11.1
<p>* The percentages are based on the 90 respondents who volunteer. Percentage totals exceed 100% because respondents could give more than one answer.</p> <p>** "Other" includes I was able to work at home, I felt it would be fun, I believe in the Bible, It's a way for me to use the facilities, Networking, I want to feel part of the organization.</p>		

poses a potential problem in volunteer recruitment. The "people-hours" necessary for this type of recruitment can present a time barrier for staff of many organizations.

Other methods of reaching people on a personal level must be investigated in order to overcome this obstacle.

In recruitment strategies, as well as in the design of volunteer positions, benefits to the volunteer as well as to the community should be emphasized. These benefits can focus on the stated reasons for volunteering, such as companionship, interesting work, helping others and staying healthy and active.

Table III
Reasons for Not Volunteering

REASONS FOR NOT VOLUNTEERING	NUMBER n	PERCENT % *
ALREADY VERY BUSY	51	30.4
HEALTH REASONS	42	25.0
I AM ALREADY TAKING CARE OF SOMEONE (E.G. RELATIVE OR FRIEND)	24	14.3
WORK SCHEDULE/DEMANDS	17	10.1
I AM TOO OLD	16	9.5
I AM NOT INTERESTED/ NOT READY	10	6.0
I DON'T HAVE TRANSPORTATION	4	2.4
OTHER MISCELLANEOUS **	22	13.1
<p>* The percentages are based on the 168 respondents who have not volunteered over the past year.</p> <p>** Percentage totals exceed 100% because respondents could give more than one answer.</p>		

Responses from non-volunteers give clues to more innovative recruiting ideas. A more flexible schedule may attract extremely busy individuals, while a person with health problems may be interested in volunteer positions from the home, such as telephone visiting. Initiatives encouraging employers to release their workers in order to perform public service work are being developed with great success.

CONCLUSION

A copy of the report documenting the findings of this survey is available through the Victoria Volunteer Bureau (211-620 View Street, Victoria, B. C., V8W 1J6, Canada). The report, which served to clarify a number of areas where re-

cruitment of people over the age of 55 can be improved, is the first step of a Seniors Volunteering Project, sponsored by the Volunteer Bureau with the financial support of Health and Welfare Canada's Seniors' Independence Program. This project will carry out in-depth personal interviews with over 200 seniors to get their ideas on how volunteer agencies can better respond to the needs and interests of this important group.

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Volunteer Organizations in Disasters

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The work of volunteer organizations is crucial in disaster relief, particularly in the initial hours and days after the disaster impact (Gillespie, Sherraden, Streeter & Zakour, 1986). The first priority of communities in disaster is to provide for the survival needs of the victims, including search and rescue, shelter, food, and clothing. Particularly in smaller communities, volunteer fire departments initiate search and rescue. The American Red Cross, in cooperation with emergency management units, usually arrives soon after a disaster strikes, and provides emergency medical care, temporary shelter, and other basic needs. Additionally, the Salvation Army and many different volunteer organizations join in, providing relief services such as crisis counseling, emergency welfare services, and assistance in locating missing persons (Ross, 1970, p. 407). Organizations such as the American Red Cross, the Salvation Army, and municipal civil defense agencies are based in the local community which allows them and other volunteer organizations to quickly mobilize large numbers of workers and to be first on the scene.

Besides important survival-oriented activities, volunteer organizations provide communication and coordination services for other relief providers includ-

ing large police departments, governmental agencies, and businesses which donate supplies. In the case of disasters with wide impact, the necessity for such communication and coordination is even more vital. As more individuals and organizations become involved in relief, there is a greater need to organize the activity of many individuals and groups to minimize loss and suffering (Dynes, 1970, p. 54). For example, the American Red Cross normally enlists the help of ham radio clubs to aid in communication. Ham operators help the American Red Cross to coordinate field units, particularly when phone lines are inoperative (Stallings, 1971, p. 11).

Additionally, the American Red Cross coordinates other organizations' activities through the formation of disaster committees within the Red Cross. The American Red Cross has been given a mandate by the United States Congress to perform disaster relief and to help coordinate the relief activities of other organizations. American Red Cross committees include representatives from many other community groups, such as church groups, health agencies, and municipal emergency management organizations. In order to improve disaster preparedness, the American Red Cross works with these groups to develop an overall

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disaster relief plan and participates in joint training and field exercises.

In addition to survival and coordination functions, volunteer organizations provide psychological support and economic aid. Psychological support includes counseling and spiritual support, as well as crisis-oriented psychological services. Many groups participate in economic recovery, including the American Red Cross, the Salvation Army, neighborhood associations, unions, church organizations, civil-rights groups, and other volunteer associations (Torry, 1979, p. 529). These organizations may offer financial aid, low-interest loans, and help in employment after disaster has disrupted the local economy.

Associated with the special functions of volunteer organizations are distinctive organizational characteristics. First, the majority of people delivering service are not reimbursed by a paycheck. Second, the ultimate goals of the volunteer organization are not profit-oriented. Third, membership in the organization is voluntary in the sense that it is neither mandatory nor inherited through one's family (Sills, 1968; McCurley, 1985). This article will examine the functions of volunteer organizations in disaster, special organizational challenges during disaster, the complex nature of volunteer leadership, and recommendations to increase the effectiveness of disaster relief efforts.

SURVIVAL FUNCTIONS

After a disaster strikes, the highest priority is care of victims, which includes providing first aid and transporting the injured to medical attention. Simultaneously, rescue activities such as extricating trapped individuals or evacuating individuals from dangerous areas, are taking place. After immediate survival needs are met, other basic needs become important, such as the necessities of food, shelter, and clothing.

Volunteer organizations are prominent in both survival and basic need efforts. The American Red Cross mobilizes per-

sonnel and medical supplies such as blood and plasma. The Red Cross and Salvation Army provide food and shelter. In disaster situations, volunteer organizations are instrumental in making schools, auditoriums, churches, and other public buildings available for shelter. Many local volunteer organizations including religious, neighborhood, and youth groups offer clothing and other supplies to disaster victims (Bolin, 1986).

COORDINATION AND COMMUNICATION FUNCTIONS

While survival services are crucial in disaster relief, the communication and coordination functions of volunteer agencies are equally important. These functions provide the basis for all other activities. Communication and coordination provided by volunteer groups promote community cohesiveness during disasters, which in turn facilitates opportunities for people to help victims (Gillespie, 1988). To promote communication and coordination, volunteer leaders visit hard-hit areas and other relief organizations. These on-site visits allow leaders to refer volunteers and exchange other personnel, which in turn helps distribute volunteers and their skills where they are most needed (Vizza, 1990). Also, with improved knowledge about who has been hard hit, volunteer administrators can better target and mobilize volunteers to the most serious conditions.

There is great ethnic, regional, and class diversity in the United States, and communication between these groups seems to be diminishing (Spindler & Spindler, 1983). Communication is diminished partly because different groups often do not share common spatial areas, political or service organizations, or interorganizational networks (Cohen, 1978). Minority groups in the United States tend to be isolated in this way, and they also tend to have lower incomes. Lower-income groups are often more vulnerable in disaster because of poorly constructed dwellings, less insurance

protection, and less access to medical care. Additionally, lower educational levels are associated with inadequate comprehension of warnings and less access to sources of aid (Mileti & Nigg, 1984). All of this points to the need for greater facilitation of communication and coordination during disaster.

Though minority groups have great need during disaster for relief services, they are less likely to be served by the "official" network of disaster relief organizations. Many groups within minority populations provide relief after disaster strikes, including smaller churches and fraternal organizations. These organizations often do not have disaster relief plans, and they usually do not include the relief function in their name or charter. Therefore, they are rarely included as "official" players in municipal or American Red Cross disaster plans. Because of this exclusion, agencies within minority populations may not begin to receive resources from the disaster relief network until days or weeks after disaster strikes. Yet, aid from external volunteer organizations is critical to effective disaster relief and recovery (Bolin, 1986). Improvement of communication and coordination among volunteer and other organizations is an important means to strengthen disaster relief services, especially for vulnerable minority groups (Zakour, 1988).

ORGANIZATIONAL TYPES IN DISASTER

The response of organizations in disaster situations varies according to the type of organization (Drabek, 1970, p. 332). Volunteer organizations are less distinct in their structure than formal bureaucratic organizations. For example, large numbers of individuals and groups volunteer for the American Red Cross during a disaster (Adams, 1970). Many of these volunteers have not previously worked under Red Cross leadership, and they may be simultaneously volunteering with other organizations. Because of

this influx of new volunteers, the roles and responsibilities of both Red Cross leaders and volunteers may become unclear. Also, Salvation Army personnel sometimes circumvent rules and directives to meet the needs of disaster victims.

Many volunteer organizations or associations that are active in disaster settings are small, having fewer than a dozen members. This size results in a loose division of labor, because, with fewer members, roles are more likely to be shared with other members. Small organizations are also more likely to have informal communication patterns and highly flexible procedures.

Volunteer organizations during disasters have vague organizational and geographic boundaries. With many individuals and groups acting as volunteers for multiple organizations, it is often unclear where an organization's volunteers are located. Core workers may not know what volunteer field units are doing at any given time, and coordination of work activities may be problematic. These boundary and coordination problems are made more difficult by lack of previous practice (Gillespie & Streeter, 1987).

Another set of characteristics is related to the expanding nature of volunteer organizations during disasters. Organizations which maintain their defined structure and regular assigned tasks in a disaster are "established" organizations. A large fire department with paid workers is likely to be an established organization with added responsibility in disasters for increased numbers of fires. Those which have new tasks are "extending" organizations, such as police departments in which the personnel remain the same, but with new and different rescue activities. Those with a new structure and additional personnel are called "expanding"; these are usually volunteer organizations such as the Salvation Army or other social service agencies. Finally, "emergent" groups or orga-

nizations are those which take on both a new structure and nonregular tasks. Emergent relief organizations include small churches and neighborhood organizations which have no disaster plans or experience. When disaster strikes, these churches and groups offer their kitchens and other facilities to provide relief, and their members create new and informal volunteer organizations to help disaster victims.

Expanding organizations in disasters have small, central, permanent cores of workers during nonemergency periods. Day-to-day activities of these organizations may include training, field exercises, disaster planning, and response to small-scale emergencies such as relief to families who have lost their homes to fire. During expansion, the organization becomes considerably larger than the old core, and the structure and function of the expanded organization changes. After the disaster, the organization reverts to its predisaster structure. This lack of permanence further distinguishes volunteer organizations from established organizations in disaster.

Emergent interorganizational coordination groups which are active during disaster response are usually dormant in predisaster settings, and their personnel may also be organizationally inactive before a disaster. Members of these groups may include police and fire chiefs of nearby municipalities, as well as directors of various service organizations, who begin meeting on a continual basis during disaster. In some cases, a prominent retired person is the official civil defense director, and this person contacts and gathers the leaders of many relief agencies in a central location to help coordinate overall response. These coordination groups emerge during disaster to ensure that disaster relief organizations act in concert, that information and resources are exchanged among various organizations, and that volunteers are present where they are most needed. Coordination bodies are often the offspring

of expanding volunteer organizations such as municipal civil defense organizations with ties to many other organizations. Though they are emergent, to some degree coordination groups may be planned before the disaster occurs, as in the case of American Red Cross disaster committees which come into action during a large-scale disaster.

In addition to being run by volunteer participants, emergent coordinating organizations are similar to expanding volunteer organizations in other respects. Volunteer groups may expand to such a degree that their structure is transformed into what appears to be a new organization. Both volunteer organizations and coordinating bodies are likely to have plans which come into action during a disaster. Both expanding and emergent groups during disaster are not adequately understood using formal organizational theory (Quarantelli & Dynes, 1977).

PERSONNEL ISSUES

Unlike organizations that pay their workers, many volunteer organizations have both administrative and line workers who lack formal training. Leaders in volunteer organizations are not recruited strictly on the basis of competence but also on the basis of social status, wealth, or personal relationships to political leaders. Occasionally, this results in ineffectual leadership. This situation is not easily resolved, for volunteer organizations do not and should not reward leaders with large salaries or high political status in the community. Only the intrinsic rewards of volunteer service are likely to attract individuals committed to competent leadership. The problem seems resolvable only if the organization is made highly attractive to potential leaders and if some standards exist to measure skill and ability.

It may also be a challenge to recruit and train adequate numbers of other skilled volunteer workers. Every type of organization has problems in retaining

skilled workers, and volunteer organizations are no exception. Many of the volunteers present in disasters are walk-in, rather than trained, volunteers. Thus, many disaster volunteers lack the training and skills to perform specialized relief tasks. This problem is compounded by the fact that, without ongoing screening of volunteers, during a disaster an organization may be inundated by the "wrong type" of volunteers. Middle-class individuals may turn up as volunteers, for example, when what is needed are lower-income volunteers to act as effective outreach workers for lower-income victims (Stoddard, 1969, p. 185). Though the majority of volunteer roles during disaster probably involve manual work, work groups require skilled supervisors as well as training and prior experience working together (Fisher, 1985). In the absence of active recruitment and training programs, volunteer agencies may lack adequate members of trained, skilled, and otherwise appropriate workers.

These personnel issues, which are a challenge to organizations in their day-to-day functioning, are critical during disaster. Volunteers must be trained in their appropriate roles, or workers can be less effective in a disaster situation. This training must be ongoing and maintained in the absence of disaster conditions, or training is ineffective when disaster strikes. To effectively employ the walk-in volunteers who show up after disaster strikes, skilled and trained work-group supervisors are necessary. For this reason, it is important to maintain a motivated core of trained volunteers over long nondisaster periods (Sorensen, Mileti & Copenhaver, 1985).

To effectively integrate trained volunteers with walk-in volunteers, screening is very useful. Organizations should gather information on the backgrounds and skills of volunteers. Those who do not meet the needs of a particular organization can be referred to other agencies where their skills are in short supply. For

example, when the Loma Prieta Earthquake rocked California in 1989, the San Francisco Volunteer Center had already compiled information on hundreds of volunteers who had called a special 800 number. With the help of a local radio station, 11,000 additional calls were received in the first ten days after the earthquake. These volunteers were matched and referred to organizations which needed their particular skills or backgrounds (Vizza, 1990).

Overall, the solution to problems of appropriate leadership and skills lies in recruiting and motivating volunteers. If attractive inducements exist for volunteering and becoming a leader, then a wider selection of skilled individuals and potential leaders is available to an organization. Opportunities to learn new skills, to network in the community, or to gain otherwise satisfying experiences encourage individuals to volunteer (King, 1984). After these individuals are recruited, careful attention should be paid to volunteers' motivations for remaining in the organization. Periodic reviews of volunteer satisfaction, using questionnaires or interviews, could help program administrators create and guide volunteers to the most rewarding activities for them in volunteer organizations. With more long-term participation of volunteers, individuals can learn both new disaster relief skills, and effectiveness in a disaster setting (Forrest, 1986).

CREDIBILITY AND COMMUNICATION PROBLEMS

Coordination is important for effective disaster relief, and certain volunteer organizations are central in the coordination of activities (Zakour, 1988). For many volunteer agencies, coordination and links with other organizations is an absolute necessity in obtaining money, volunteers, and other types of aid (Streeter, Sherraden, Gillespie & Zakour, 1986). Furthermore, the need for interorganizational coordination has increased as the number of volunteer organizations

active in disaster proliferates. Though interorganizational coordination seems to take on increased importance during disaster, the distinctive qualities of volunteer organizations present special problems and issues for coordination.

One of these problems is the credibility of newly expanded organizations. For an organization to be credible, it must be accepted by other organizations and the community as having the right and the authority to provide particular disaster services. Other organizations must accept the newcomer as having a legitimate and important role to play in disaster relief. Many, if not most, of the positions and workers in expanded organizations are new, and in a sense these expanded organizations are new, and in a sense these expanded organizations are like newly formed organizations. More established organizations are thus unsure of the nature of the new organization, and may be unwilling to accept the organization as credible in any particular disaster. In fact, conflict often occurs between different organizations over issues of credibility and the news media (Kreps, 1980; Britton, 1983). For example, two organizations may compete for news coverage highlighting the relief efforts of their volunteer organizations. Bitterness can develop between leaders if they feel the story of their own organization has been inadequately covered by the media.

Related to credibility issues are problems in communications. In a greatly expanded organization, the normal channels of communication are often inadequate to carry the greatly enlarged number of messages. Therefore, it is helpful to plan for additional lines of communication during the early hours of disaster. Usually, groups that specialize in communications must be called in; these groups include ham radio operators. The lack of both credibility and adequate communication is likely to hamper interorganizational relations (Sorensen et al., 1985), and these interorganizational

problems occur to a greater extent in volunteer organizations. For example, the Charleston Voluntary Action Center was not included as an "official" player in the disaster management plan. Consequently, for a full week after Hurricane Hugo struck, the Voluntary Action Center was not recognized as having credibility in relief activities. Because of this lack of credibility, the Charleston network of disaster relief organizations did not work closely with the Voluntary Action Center during the critical days after the hurricane struck.

INTERORGANIZATIONAL RELATIONS

In addition to communication and credibility issues, which present special problems for volunteer agencies during disasters, conditions of volunteer management may affect the nature of interorganizational cooperation. First, many of the volunteer organizations active in disasters have a federated, rather than corporate, structure. Federated structures involve a loose collection of semi-autonomous local units, while corporate structures are more centralized. Large organizations such as the Salvation Army are federated. In general, such organizations are more likely to be involved in interorganizational networks (Levine & White, 1961). Second, during a disaster, volunteer organizations take on nonroutine tasks. The lack of strict operating procedures and lack of a strong division of labor in some volunteer organizations make switching to new tasks easier. Nonroutine tasks are associated with involvement in joint programs with other organizations (Perrow, 1967). Flexibility in switching to new tasks can help organizations provide a high quality of relief services, but only if organizations have procedures for priority setting, communication, and coordination of activities during disaster.

In addition to the effects of federated structures and nonroutine tasks on coop-

eration, organizations with similar goals are more likely to cooperate and interact (Gillespie & Mileti, 1979). Within the network of disaster organizations, organizations that share common goals tend to work closely with each other. In the same way that common goals facilitate cooperation, legal mandates promote intense interorganizational ties. The U.S. Congress has given a mandate to the American Red Cross to perform disaster relief. Therefore, the Red Cross is often at the center of an interorganizational network in which the relations are intense: interaction is frequent and many resources are exchanged. Other organizations view the American Red Cross as a very important organization to work with in disaster (Aldrich, 1976). Finally, since numerous volunteer organizations are community-wide associations, it is more likely that interorganizational coordination bodies are developed by these organizations (Turk, 1977).

Overall, during a disaster, volunteer organizations participate in numerous interorganizational exchanges, as well as coordination. Organizations share personnel, including individuals with specialized skills in leadership, search and rescue, or communications. Equipment and supplies, as well as information, are also shared. Organizations try to communicate with each other daily, hourly, or even continually through radio.

This integration of organizations is most effective if disaster plans are in place before disaster strikes (Gillespie et al., 1986). These plans should involve verbal or written agreements between organizations regarding cooperation in a disaster and the functions and jurisdiction of each organization should be spelled out in these agreements. Each individual, group, and volunteer organization should have a clearly defined role to play. Disaster plans help to prevent the breakdown of integration and coordination in the first hours and days after disaster.

COMMUNITY AND SYSTEMS APPROACHES

A focus on factors external to the volunteer organization is also important. Many individuals perform relief activities on their own, without the direction of volunteer organizations. As noted above, minorities and other social groups in the community may be hard hit by a disaster, and yet these groups may be relatively isolated from the help of disaster relief organizations. A community-wide and system-wide focus may be necessary to help volunteer administrators direct an effective relief effort (Wolensky, 1978).

In a disaster, volunteer administrators need to help organize the many individuals who provide relief (Gillespie & Perry, 1984). Volunteer organizations can either be overwhelmed by masses of individuals, or they can effectively use this resource. Organizations linked into a centrally coordinated system can direct workers to where they are most needed and avoid overcrowding in some places. They can provide equipment and leaders to complement masses of untrained workers. Linking formal organizations, semiformal organizations, and the masses of potential volunteers multiplies the effectiveness of the relief effort.

In general, volunteer organizations want to insure that individual talents are distributed optimally in the system of disaster relief organizations (Merton, 1969). Prior training insures that volunteers have the proper skills in disasters, but these individuals must be properly placed geographically and organizationally. In addition to optimal distribution of talent, it is important to sustain relief efforts over difficult times. Barton (1969) notes that direct contact with victims facilitates awareness of deprived individuals, sympathetic identification with them, and thus an altruistic orientation toward them. Mass media coverage, discussion, and contact with victims also increase sympathetic identification with the victims. If organizations are con-

nected in a network and circulate volunteers to expose them to different groups of victims, it is likely that more individuals will volunteer on a sustained basis to help the victims. Not only does this process of sharing volunteers help ensure the distribution of skills to where they are needed, it also provides volunteers with new experiences to hold their interest. Volunteer organizations and their interorganizational networks may expose the general community to the suffering of various groups, thus setting in motion a process which would direct more volunteers to help these groups.

In fact, volunteer organizations should act to integrate groups during day-to-day operations (DeLaat, 1987) as well as during disasters (Neal, 1983). Actions to provide relief services to all groups in a community might continue after the disaster, and a community can be drawn closer together in this way. Efforts to pull together minority and other groups in a community may be of an ephemeral nature, disappearing after relief goals are met. In contrast, they may take on a bureaucratic structure and become permanent, particularly if these efforts are accepted as important by other organizations (Quarantelli, 1970). For example, after a series of floods and other disasters, an American Red Cross chapter in St. Louis has undertaken a long-term effort to more fully include low-income and minority persons on Red Cross boards.

In a similar fashion, organizations aimed at disaster relief may continue to provide services as well as opportunities to volunteers even after the disaster recovery is completed. This can be useful to volunteer organizations seeking new volunteers such as older Americans, low-income groups, or African-Americans. More important, volunteer organizations can better serve the entire community and gain support from groups not formerly associated with any of the organizations.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR DISASTER RELIEF

This review of volunteer organizations in disasters suggests a number of recommendations:

First, all workers should have fixed tasks in disaster relief, and these tasks should be specific. Fixed tasks can be assigned in the form of job descriptions which are a part of written disaster plans. Each organization responsible for disaster relief should know for which tasks it is responsible. This specificity of tasks has been shown to reduce conflict among individuals, groups, and organizations.

Second, bureaucratic regulations and procedures may need to be relaxed in a disaster. Rather than centralized decision-making and a strict chain of command, work-group leaders in the field could have more decision-making power. Decentralization of organizations would allow for better organizational communication and information gathering from the community, and particularly from other organizations. With a decentralized organization, numerous individuals in a volunteer organization, rather than just a few top leaders, could be in frequent contact with other organizations. Communication within and between volunteer organizations and groups is more easily established by many individuals rather than just a few leaders. With increased lines of communication between an agency's members and community groups, community needs in a disaster could be better understood. In addition, formal guidelines for recruiting personnel might be relaxed to supplement organizations' services to the community. This might increase organizational effectiveness by adding diverse and novel ways of providing service (Gillespie, Mileti & Perry, 1976).

Third, training should be provided in disaster-relevant skills. This training needs to be ongoing and available in nonemergency times to insure enough

skill in the general population. Training might include sessions on how to perform specific tasks, desk-top simulations of disaster activity, or actual field exercises and drills. Practice helps ensure that volunteer leaders and workers act together effectively in a disaster.

Fourth, organizations must provide attractive inducements to motivate volunteers. These may include volunteer programs which train workers in skills useful for career advancement. Other inducements may include recognition for volunteer achievements or opportunities for volunteers to network in their communities. This increases the probability that skilled individuals and effective leaders can be selected and developed for volunteer organizations. The nature of the inducements provided will depend on the type of volunteers desired as well as the goals of individuals who normally volunteer for the particular volunteer organization.

Fifth, merit tests could aid in the selection of leaders. Rather than base leadership selection only upon social standing in the community, selection could take place on the basis of both former experience and performance-based tests which could indicate which skills potential leaders already possess.

Sixth, disaster communication plans must be made ahead of time. When disaster occurs, it is too late to plan for effective communications. Backup systems of communications, such as alternate phone lines and ham radio operators, should be available in the event of disaster. The communications media should constantly be given information on where additional volunteers are needed, what can be done to boost public morale, what individuals can do to insure their own safety, what emergency services are available, and how to access these services.

Seventh, coordination and interorganizational network plans must also be formulated in advance. Organizations

which will need to cooperate during a disaster should have lines of communication and plans for coordination already in place before disaster strikes. Each organization and political jurisdiction should know its clearly defined responsibilities during disaster. Coordination plans increase each organization's credibility in performing its relief activities.

Finally, these plans for coordination should be made to insure that a maximum number of volunteers will have appropriate contact with victims from otherwise isolated minority groups. Only if this advance contact is made will adequate help be available to these special groups. Otherwise, volunteer organizations will find themselves overwhelmed with volunteers in the immediate period after a disaster, but without adequate numbers of volunteers in later days as information arrives on the plight of isolated groups. With these recommendations, the effectiveness of disaster relief activities among volunteer organizations can be increased.

SUMMARY

Volunteer organizations provide many important services during a disaster, including survival functions and coordinating, informational, and other social services. Because volunteer organizations lack many characteristics common to bureaucracies, and because of their expanding or even emergent nature, these organizations have special problems and capabilities in disasters. Though volunteer organizations can marshal the extra personnel necessary to deal with disaster relief needs, often there is a lack of adequately trained and truly useful volunteer workers. Communication and credibility are problems of particular importance to volunteer organizations when disaster strikes. Volunteer organizations are likely to engage in some type of effort to coordinate relief activities. In a disaster, volunteer administration involves more than insuring the effective-

ness of a particular organization's relief efforts. Volunteer administrators also need to focus efforts on cooperation with many other organizations and on ensuring that all groups in a community are adequately served. Only a systems and community-wide orientation to volunteer relief roles can ensure the effectiveness of volunteer organization in disaster.

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The Inception of a Volunteer Program Management Course: A First Step Toward Professionalism

Muriel M. Scarbrough

The inspiration for a professional training course for volunteer directors was born at the St. Louis Council of Directors of Volunteer Services (CVD) Annual Workshop in 1989. Susan J. Ellis, the featured speaker, posed two challenging questions. The first was: "What training have you had for your position as a Director of Volunteer Services (DVS)?" The majority of directors indicated they had none or on-the-job at best. Her next question was even more to the point: "How can you expect your position to be considered a professional one with no formal education in your field?"

As President of CVD, the question of upgrading your professional status was one of continuing concern to me and this challenge provided the necessary motivation. Steps had to be taken to begin this upgrading.

The most direct avenue appeared to be contacting local colleges that might consider including a course on *Volunteer Program Management* in their curriculum. My first step was to call two local institutions, Tarkio College and the St. Louis Community College (SLCC) Continuing Education Offices. After hearing this request, staff from both colleges expressed interest in adding the program to their curriculum, if there were enough prospective students. In later calls, we discussed curriculum content as well as possible class sites, fees, equipment needs and course content.

The main requisite was that the course be a fully accredited course. Another requirement was that the teacher have a background in volunteerism. Both colleges agreed to accept these conditions.

The next CVD general meeting addressed the issue and found a great deal of interest. The next step was a mailing (see Appendix) to the entire membership of 143 agencies. Thirty-seven percent responded, with roughly half of those indicating definite interest in taking such a course. The remainder asked for more information before making a decision.

After numerous telephone conferences, SLCC was finally selected over Tarkio for two reasons: first, the number of students required to assure a class was seventeen to eighteen compared to twenty to twenty-five at Tarkio. Second, the lower tuition at SLCC would accommodate those students with limited budgets.

The next challenge was finding a qualified teacher, one acceptable to the college as well as to prospective students. Only someone with a solid background in volunteerism would be acceptable to volunteer directors. The college required a master's degree. This latter prerequisite was necessary to assure full accreditation for the course.

A CVD member was preferred as a teacher by those expressing interest in the course so DVSs who appeared to have the necessary qualifications were

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contacted. The first choice had an impressive background in volunteerism but she was unacceptable to the college if the course were to be fully accredited. After an exhaustive search by telephone, and through word of mouth (assisted by CVD members), a number of our peers were found who met all criteria and several were available and willing to teach. The final choice had eight years of experience as a DVS as well as a master's degree in teaching. She responded enthusiastically and so began a round of meetings with SLCC.

Because most of the students were expected to be employed DVSs, the first course was offered in the evening at an off-campus site, selected to allow better choices of time, parking and access to quality audio-visual equipment. The site chosen was a centrally located high school with excellent audio-visual equipment, ample parking and adequate classrooms.

The first class was held on January 16, 1990, with an enrollment of 18 students. An interesting side note here is that of those eighteen students, only six were CVD members. Since our advertising had been limited to CVD members, the curriculum brochure had apparently proved an effective means of attracting students. It therefore appeared that others in the community were seeing the value of such a course.

The choice of a Tuesday evening, from 6:00 to 9:00 p.m. was inconvenient for a number of CVD members who had indicated a strong desire to take the course. Several of these were greatly disappointed and were willing to pay the course fee if classes could be videotaped for them. The college felt this would not be feasible for this first course. Others in CVD gave no reasons for not following through and taking the course. While this was slightly discouraging, the fact that the course was being offered and that an adequate number of students had registered was compensation enough for the time and effort expended.

The instructor used a variety of teaching methods including lecturing, expert guest speakers, videos of nationally known experts in the field of volunteerism, satellite programs and a presentation by each student concerning one aspect of the DVS position, *i.e.*, producing a volunteer manual, an orientation slide presentation, special events such as fund raisers, and so forth.

The last twenty minutes of each class was given over to sharing "Triumphs and Terrors," as the instructor titled it. The class members were encouraged to share projects that worked really well for them and others that were disasters. Class members were unanimous in their expressed enthusiasm for this segment of the program. It was considered a great help, especially for less experienced DVSs.

The composite of students reflected quite a variety of experience. There were veteran DVSs with seven to ten years of service, those with only a couple of years of experience and one who was just beginning her job as a DVS. Three were not yet in the field. Of these last three, one was preparing to become a Volunteer Coordinator, one was a hospital employee in a Marketing/Public Relations Department and the third was a woman using the class as an elective toward her master's degree. The last was the only dropout.

Students were employees of two nursing homes, a children's home, four hospitals (one a mental health and one a Veteran's), a health department, a private girls' school, a humane society, a girls' club (for the underprivileged), an organization which made talking tapes for the blind, a cathedral mission society, a youth hostel agency, and a Salvation Army center for children.

Educational backgrounds varied from G.E.D. to master's degrees, and the age range was from the early twenties to the mid-sixties.

Personalities were incredibly diverse and yet there was tremendous cohesiveness and support. The instructor fostered

and encouraged this atmosphere. On-the-job problems and disappointments were discussed with complete openness and the entire class responded with suggestions and concern where there seemed to be no viable solution. Networking during breaks brought a number of benefits and new resources.

The textbook used was Marlene Wilson's *The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs*, (Pub.: Boulder, CO: Voluntary Management Associates, 9th edition-1988). Grading was based on attendance, class participation, the personal presentation and a final examination.

Seventeen students completed the course with fifteen taking the exam, one choosing to audit the course and one who had moved out of state completing the course requirement by mail. Students evaluating the class indicated unanimous satisfaction with the course and a desire for expansion of the program.

While one reason for attending was to gain credibility, the class provided a great deal of new knowledge and insight. Questions asked by even inexperienced DVSs often brought out new ideas and ways of looking at situations that students were able to take back to their jobs and use effectively.

At the end of the course a report was made at our May CVD general meeting and of the forty-three members in attendance, fifteen indicated definite interest in taking the course when it is offered again.

On July 27, 1990, the instructor met with the department head of the Human Services program, SLCC, Meramec Campus, to discuss expansion of the program. The department head has now presented the proposal of expansion to a 24-28 hour certification program to college administration. The idea received a positive reception and she has expressed the belief that this program could be in place by the fall of 1991. It has been announced in Introduction to Human Services classes as an expected reality.

Some of the courses being considered for this certification program are Marketing/Public Relations, Oral Communications/Public Speaking, Psychology, Writing Skills and other related courses some of which are already part of the Human Services curriculum.

According to data from the Association of Volunteer Administration (AVA), there are only three other colleges in Missouri offering courses in volunteer management, one of which has both credit and non-credit courses, one has credit and the third offers only non-credit. All three colleges are located in Kansas City.

In 1989-1990 there were nineteen states reporting active programs for Volunteer Managers in thirty-seven colleges or universities. In some institutions both credit and non-credit courses are offered with total available credit courses of twenty-four, twenty-five non-credit, one for graduate credit, one is a certification program and one consists of a one-day conference.

When analyzing this information from AVA, it was interesting to note the multitude of departments within which the programs were found. The department having the largest number was "American Humanics" with seven, second was "Continuing Education" with six offerings (one of which was the one-day conference) and third was the "Office of Community Education" with two offerings. Others were under such unlikely places as "Recreation and Community Education," "Recreation and Leisure Studies," "Department of Urban and Environmental Policy," "Youth Educational Services," "Cookingham Institute of Public Affairs," and "Youth Agency Administration Interdisciplinary Studies." It would appear many colleges are struggling with the problem of placing such programs. Those of us interested in professionalizing the DVS position need to work with the colleges and universities in our areas to facilitate implementation of the necessary courses.

The position of Director of Volunteer Services is so new that most schools of higher education offer no curriculum in Volunteer Management. There is no planned route of entry to the job. Not one person in the class started out to be a

DVS: events in their employment simply led them into the position. With this initial class we have taken a major step toward professionalism and the journey will be continued.

APPENDIX



ANNOUNCING

CONTACT HAS BEEN MADE WITH THE ST. LOUIS COMMUNITY COLLEGES AND THE LOCAL TARKIO EXTENSION SERVICES REGARDING THE POSSIBILITY OF A FOR-CREDIT COURSE IN VOLUNTEER PROGRAM MANAGEMENT. BOTH COLLEGE SYSTEMS HAVE EXPRESSED INTEREST IN OFFERING THIS COURSE SHOULD THERE BE ENOUGH INTEREST TO WARRANT THEIR DOING SO. IF YOU ARE INTERESTED, OR WOULD LIKE MORE INFORMATION, PLEASE COMPLETE THE FORM BELOW WITH YOUR NAME, AGENCY, ADDRESS AND A CHECK IN THE APPROPRIATE BOX AND RETURN TO:

MURIEL M. SCARBROUGH, DVS
ST. LOUIS COUNTY DOCHMC
111 S. MERAMEC, ROOM LL111
CLAYTON, MO 63105

- I WOULD LIKE MORE INFORMATION REGARDING THIS COURSE.
- I WOULD BE INTERESTED IN TAKING SUCH A COURSE.

NAME: _____

AGENCY: _____

ADDRESS: _____

St. Louis Council of Directors of Volunteer Services

Book Review

You Can Make a Difference! Helping Others and Yourself Through Volunteering by Marlene Wilson

Reviewed by Betsy Aldrich Garland, B.S.N., M.Div.

You Can Make A Difference! Helping Others and Yourself Through Volunteering. Marlene Wilson. Boulder, Colorado: Volunteer Management Associates, 320 South Cedar Brook Road 80304, 1990. 210 pages.

What can you do when you want to feel needed and useful? Volunteer! What can you do when you are lonely or have lost a loved one? Volunteer! Or want to learn about different cultures? Or need to develop new skills? Or think you are too busy to make a difference? Volunteer!

Professionals in the field of volunteer administration know that volunteering is the prescription for a variety of needs and new situations as well as the strategy for both reclaiming the past and shaping the future. Seldom, however, have they had such a well written resource and desk reference to focus discussion around such topics as "Bringing More Joy and Fulfillment to Your Life," "Learning and Growing Through Sharing," "Putting Your Beliefs Into Action," and "Helping a Cause You Care About."

You Can Make a Difference! is an enormously practical, yet deeply spiritual, book. We learn *why* people volunteer and

why the nation needs them. We also are reminded that everyone has something to offer and that a life worth living is a life lived in a relationship and in service to others.

Marlene Wilson is ideally suited to write this book. She writes from a global perspective but also from concrete, local experience. She has traveled across the country, training and consulting with organizational leaders, administrators, pastors, and others. She stands at the center of the field and tells us about ourselves. One of us, she has confronted all of our situations and struggled with all of our issues. Just as important, she lives what she believes. She too, like the rest of us, has experienced the joy of service, the tension of family and career, the loss of a loved one.

You Can Make A Difference! is anecdotal, autobiographical, and personal. It is also a how-to manual and reference directory. It is a collection of ideas and projects that work, statistics and resources, and analyses of trends. Chapters are organized by the audiences Ms. Wilson wants to reach: young people, retirees, employees, those in transition or differently-abled. Directors of volunteers will

Betsy Aldrich Garland, B.S.N., M.Div., is the Executive Director of Volunteers in Action, Inc., Rhode Island's central recruitment, referral, training, and informational center for volunteers, agencies, and professional administrators. A 1990 graduate of Harvard Divinity School with a Master of Divinity degree, Ms. Garland has a special interest in the development of the laity and the revitalization of volunteers in the religious sector.

find current, "state-of-the-art" information. Therapists will find a helpful tool toward moving people out of depression and dependency into self-esteem and productivity. Pastors will find stories, quotes, and everyday heroes for their sermons. And people who want to help will find the telephone number of the closest Volunteer Center.

As in her previous books (*The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs, Survival Skills for Managers, How to Mobilize*

Church Volunteers), Marlene Wilson has done it again. She has collected a broad cross-section of resources around a variety of themes, synthesized the materials for us, and related them to the field in which we all live and work. Although the statistics and resources soon will be out of date, the wisdom in *You Can Make A Difference!* will last. Seldom has there been so much richness in so few pages that we might all wish we had a pocket edition!

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AVA's National Office at (303) 541-0238

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