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VOLUNTEER
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Editor's Note

This issue presents two sets of articles written from different perspectives that educate by the honesty of their findings and observations.

The first set describes volunteer programming in county government in the United States, and how volunteers are mobilized for alcohol and other drug abuse prevention. These research studies include rigorous analysis of the results.

The second set summarizes how a volunteer program is administered at a supportive residence for people with AIDS, and how assumptions can create barriers to school volunteer success. These two articles are written by practitioners from personal experience.

Frustrating, successful, problematic, and unexpected outcomes are described within these pages. I think your attention will be held by the revealing picture of the state of the profession of volunteer administration as it is practiced in the 1990s. Highlighted are areas of significant achievement contrasted with a lack of information on the basic components of volunteer program management.

And don't overlook the *Letters to the Editor* section, where a debate has started on the issue of mandated vs. voluntary service.

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ABSTRACT

The National Association of Counties' (NACo) Volunteerism Project promotes volunteerism in local government and assists counties that want to establish and maintain effective volunteer programs. In February 1996 the Volunteerism Project, in conjunction with NACo's Research Division, conducted a survey of volunteerism in county governments to document the extent of volunteer service and the level of volunteer management practices. This article provides an overview of the results and an analysis of the major findings.

An Overview of Volunteerism in County Government

Peter Lane, M.Ed., and Cynthia Shultz, M.P.P.

INTRODUCTION

Since 1991 the National Association of Counties' (NACo) Volunteerism Project has promoted volunteerism to county government officials and provided assistance to counties that want to establish and maintain effective volunteer programs. Volunteers in county government presently work in a wide range of areas and provide vital services during an era of shrinking budgets.

One goal of the Volunteerism Project is to educate county elected and appointed officials about the important role volunteerism plays in county government and the need for sound volunteer management practices. Through workshops, articles, and other resource materials, the project emphasizes the following benefits (from *The Volunteer Toolbox*, NACo, 1990):

• Volunteer programs are a cost-effective strategy to fill gaps in service or initiate new projects;

• Volunteers promote a positive image and learn about county government operations;

• Volunteers often become acquainted with their public officials and the goals and purposes of county programs;

• Volunteers bring a variety of skills and experiences to county government;

• Volunteers become advocates for programs and help seek donations of time, money, and materials from other members of the community; and

• Volunteer programs encourage civic participation.

As part of its activities, NACo's Volunteerism Project sent a questionnaire in February 1996 to the chief elected official in every U.S. county (3,042) and to individuals the project had previously identified as serving some type of volunteer coordinating role for their county (750). The questionnaire asked respondents to identify areas in which volunteers work, how

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the programs are structured, management practices employed, numbers of volunteers involved, and the dollar value of their contributions. In this article, the authors discuss the results of this survey and the implications for volunteer programs in county government.

BACKGROUND

There is relatively little research or written material on volunteer programs in local government. The International City/County Management Association (ICMA) conducted research on volunteer involvement in city and county governments during the 1980s (Valente and Manchester, 1984, and Morley, 1989). It reported an increase in the number of volunteer programs during that decade, particularly in social and human services.

Although references were few, a literature review revealed the benefits of establishing a volunteer program in county government as well as practical advice on creating one. Joan Brown in her 1983 article, "Government Volunteers: Why and How?" (*The Journal of Volunteer Administration*, Fall 1983) clearly articulates the rationale for establishing a volunteer program in county government and offers practical advice on how to go about it based on her experience in Marin County, California. In *Fostering Volunteer Programs in the Public Sector* (1990), Jeffrey L. Brudney offers a comprehensive overview and guide to establishing volunteer programs at all levels of government. Nancy J. McLeod and Tony Marks outline the process used by the city of Phoenix, Arizona, to establish a volunteer program. Their guide, *Getting a Volunteer Program Started* (1995), is helpful for those working in large, metropolitan areas. In 1995 the Pinellas County, Florida, volunteer program was highlighted in a segment of a 25-minute video on nontraditional volunteers produced by the Government Services Television Network. Apart from these resources, few materials exist that specifically address volunteer management issues within a local government structure.

The National Association of Counties (NACo) Volunteerism Project was initiated in 1990 when the president of NACo launched a year-long initiative focusing on the role of volunteers in local government. Volunteer programs in Salt Lake County, Utah, Arlington County, Virginia, Multnomah County, Oregon, and San Diego County, California, served as the basis for NACo's efforts at the outset of the Volunteerism Project (see *The Volunteer Toolbox*, NACo, 1990).

A task force comprised of elected and appointed officials met throughout the year. Task force goals were to promote the development and management of volunteer programs in county government and to study resources and methods through which county governments could facilitate and assist volunteerism. The task force discovered that volunteers were involved in nearly all areas of county government operations somewhere in the United States.

By 1991, the NACo Volunteerism Task Force had conducted a preliminary survey of volunteer programs in county government, completed a guide on how to establish a volunteer program in county government, and secured funding from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation to support the goals of the project. With that financial support, NACo's Volunteerism Project has conducted workshops for elected and appointed officials, publicized model programs, developed resource materials, and established a clearinghouse of information at NACo's Washington, DC office.

Although volunteer involvement in county government is widespread, it has often been done in an informal and unstructured manner. Volunteer programs that are more organized and expand the role of volunteers into less traditional service areas are now being considered more seriously by elected officials. Faced with budget shortfalls and an often apathetic citizenry, they are looking for creative solutions to the challenges many county governments face. In an *Atlanta Journal-Constitution* article written in 1993, Liane

Levetan, Chief Executive Officer, DeKalb County, Georgia, offered this perspective:

The fundamental question facing the head of any government today, whether at local, state, or national level, is how to do more with less.

Citizens repeatedly tell their elected representatives that government costs too much and that they are tired of paying more taxes. But, in the same breath, they emphasize that they will not accept any decline in the number or quality of services.

That means governments have to downsize without affecting the product they offer—services. We are going to have to work harder, and more efficiently.

It occurred to me when I took office last fall that we were neglecting a vital resource—our county's people. . . . So I initiated a program to encourage volunteers to offer their services to the county.

Ms. Levetan goes on to note that volunteerism in public service is not a new idea. Citizens are an invaluable resource and many are looking for ways to make a difference. The challenge, she says, is not to find people who want to make a contribution, but to make opportunities available to all who want to help.

OVERVIEW OF THE SURVEY

NACo's Volunteerism Project, in conjunction with NACo's research division, sent the volunteerism survey to 3,042 chief elected officials and 750 volunteer coordinators previously identified by project staff. Of the 3,792 surveys sent, 842 were returned (a 22.2% response rate). These responses represent 47 states and 754 of the 3,043 (24.8%) county governments in the United States.[1] More than one response was received from some counties because the chief elected official and one or more volunteer coordinators received a survey.

Large counties (population over 50,000) responded in slightly greater numbers than small counties (population under 50,000) based on the total number of counties in each population range. It is unclear whether a greater proportion of

small counties did not respond because they don't involve volunteers, or because volunteer activity occurs very informally and officials didn't have adequate information. The survey results represent counties with 37.2% of the total population of the United States.

Of the responding counties, 98% indicated that they involve volunteers in some capacity, including non-paid board members and service providers. Since 1991, almost one-fifth of the responding counties have either established a volunteer program or a central coordinating office.

Table I shows different service areas and the percentage of counties that indicated volunteers provide service in that area.

TABLE I
Service Areas and Percentage of Counties that Provide Volunteer Service

Service Area	% of Counties
Firefighters/ Emergency Medical Services	72.7
Aging Services	63.7
Libraries	50.2
Parks & Recreation	49.0
Youth Services	48.0
Social Services	42.5
Education	42.4
Environment/Recycling	40.9
Sheriff/Corrections	40.0
Community & Economic Development	37.3
Public Safety	34.7
Public Health	33.1
Transportation	25.9
Housing	19.5
Judicial/Legal	19.0
Finance	6.3
Public Utilities	3.2
Other	10.6

The number of citizens volunteering for their county government varies greatly and is often related to population size. Excluding counties that reported they did not know the number of volunteers contributing services, approximately 20% of responding counties involve more than 500 volunteers per year in government operations. The survey also found that the dollar value of services contributed by volunteers to county government is significant, rang-

ing from $25,000 or more in 33% of small counties (less than 50,000 population), $100,000 or more in 34.2% of mid-size counties (up to 250,000 population), and $1 million or more in 21.3% of large counties (more than 250,000 population). Eleven counties reported receiving services valued at over $5 million.

An overwhelming percentage of county governments (80%) coordinate their volunteers on a department or program basis. Approximately 6% of responding counties reported having some type of central coordinating office. Some county governments fund a volunteer center or work closely with other groups such as the Retired and Senior Volunteer Program (RSVP) or a local non-profit agency. In 32.8% of the responding counties, there is at least one full-time or part-time paid volunteer coordinator. In 9.6% of counties, there is at least one volunteer who serves as a volunteer coordinator. Of the counties with central coordination of volunteers, half have a population of 50,000 to 250,000. Counties that have established a central office, regardless of population, received a greater dollar value of volunteer service than counties that did not.

To assess volunteer management practices in county government, the survey asked respondents to identify the administrative tools that any of their volunteer programs use. Table II shows the percentage of counties that identified each type of volunteer management practice:

TABLE II

Volunter Management Practice

Volunteer Management Practice	% of Counties
Formal Recognition	61.5
Training	57.2
Policies and Procedures	39.9
Insurance	38.4
Program Plan	36.9
Benefits	35.6
Budget	33.8
Annual Report	30.5
Job Descriptions	30.0
Program Evaluation by Volunteers	18.3
Volunteer Evaluation	16.7

All eleven management practices listed on the survey are employed by 7.4% of the responding counties. In addition, another 2.3% employ all but one of them. The components that volunteer programs most often do not use are program evaluation and volunteer evaluation.

NOTABLE FINDINGS
• *Although there are many successful and well-established department or project-based volunteer programs in county government, survey results indicate that counties with some form of a central coordinating office receive nearly three times the dollar value of service from volunteers than counties that do not.*

This may be due to two factors: 1) a central office has a greater presence in the county government structure, and may be better able to work with individual departments to develop volunteer jobs and to more readily advocate for volunteer activities, and 2) a central office may be better able to record county-wide volunteer hours and calculate the dollar value of volunteer service.
• *Volunteerism in county government is on the rise.*

In comparison to ICMA's survey result from the 1980s, NACo's survey indicates at least a 20% increase in volunteer programs in several service areas including services to the aging, children/youth services, parks and recreation, and crime/corrections. In addition, NACO's survey indicates that nearly 20% of responding counties have established a central office or volunteer program since 1991. Because most counties face severe fiscal constraints, it is likely that many of them will continue to involve volunteers in meeting rising service demands. Volunteer programs can no longer be considered a luxury.

On the other hand, paid volunteer coordinator positions and volunteer programs are often the "first to go" if they are viewed as non-essential or not filling a critical service need. Although many people working with volunteer programs can attest to the fact that volunteer contributions to county government go far beyond

a simple dollar value, volunteer program coordinators will need to address the issue of accountability and ensure that the county leadership is aware of the benefits of volunteer service.

• *While the dollar value of volunteer efforts is substantial, particularly in an era when officials must scrutinize the "bottom-line" of every county program, it is important to note that 24% of the responding counties either did not know the dollar value of volunteer service to their counties, or did not respond to the question.*

Without this information, volunteer programs may not be able to effectively advocate for their role within the county government structure or be accountable to elected officials and county managers who may want to conduct a cost/benefit analysis.

• *While many counties have made significant strides in strengthening the management practices of their volunteer programs, there is an ongoing need to educate county officials and paid staff who are responsible for volunteer programs about the importance of many of these basic components of a successful program.*

Creating an environment that is supportive of volunteers—and of paid staff who work directly with volunteers—requires the support of elected officials, department heads, and administrators. This means support for such things as staff training, volunteer training, screening, insurance, and benefits. In addition, many volunteer coordinators in local government would benefit by having greater contact with local and national resources and networking groups. These groups, in turn, would also benefit by increased membership and the perspective brought by local government volunteer coordinators.

CONCLUSION

As devolution takes place, and more responsibilities are shifted to local governments from the state and federal level, counties will seek innovative ways to provide services. As the survey demonstrates, volunteer programs are already playing an increasingly important role in county government. This trend toward hands-on par-

ticipation is one way counties will meet the demands of future service delivery without great expense to taxpayers as well as promote an informed and active citizenry.

The challenge for many counties, however, will be to create a new culture of volunteerism. Doing so will mean shedding the outdated notion that volunteer programs can provide services without the need to provide a supportive, safe, and inclusive work environment. For successful volunteer programs, county officials must provide volunteers with the support and tools (for example, training, staff support, and equipment) necessary for their jobs. Volunteer coordinators must regularly assess and publicize the benefits of their volunteer programs to all segments of the community. They will have to work closely with county paid staff to promote the development of meaningful jobs and ways in which citizens can be a part of the county team.

ENDNOTE

[1]Please note: Forty-eight of the 50 states have some form of county government structure though their role varies greatly from state to state. Connecticut and Rhode Island are divided into geographic regions called counties, but they do not have county governments. Vermont is the only state with functioning county governments from which no survey was received.

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ABSTRACT

This article describes work done on behalf of the Davis Joint Unified School District in California to determine the current extent of volunteer involvement, if that level should be increased, and ways to increase it if that outcome was desired. While groups of principals, teachers, parents, and students confirmed a generally positive attitude about volunteer involvement, common frustrations such as limited time available to coordinate volunteers, and no organizational structure to support the volunteer programs were viewed as the major barriers to increasing volunteerism in the district. Common assumptions about parental volunteerism were refuted, highlighting the need for increased communication of needs and interests between parents and school personnel to overcome barriers to increased involvement.

Assumptions Create Barriers to School Volunteer Success

Carla Campbell Lehn, M.S.

INTRODUCTION

Recently parental involvement in education has received much attention. The Goals 2000 Educate America Act includes as one of its eight national education goals that "every school will strive to increase parental involvement and participation in children's education." Education Secretary Richard W. Riley has identified family involvement as one of the top 10 critical education initiatives.

The Davis Joint Unified School District in California decided to study its effectiveness in the area of parent volunteerism. Approximately 100 teachers, 55 parents, 12 principals, and 40 students participated in discussion groups. All parents from nine elementary schools and the two junior high schools in the district received surveys. More than 50 were completed and returned. Fifteen interviews also were conducted with four individual community business, four university, and seven volunteer leaders. Literature on school volunteerism was reviewed, and six directors of model school volunteer programs throughout the United States were interviewed.

The goal was to test the following hypotheses and answer the questions they raised:

Schools are overwhelmed.

Because of limited resources classes are larger and teachers have more children and more issues to address at school. It may seem wonderful to offer the services of volunteers to teachers and principals, but can we add the additional responsibilities of volunteer recruitment and administration to the day-to-day roles of school personnel and expect them to welcome it?

Volunteers have more skills to give.

Every parent has a multitude of skills, but few are asked to use them in the district. Skilled individuals don't know how to offer their skills to the school or that their skills are needed. And beyond parents there is the community at large—business leaders, retirees, and college students—who care and are concerned about

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education and could be recruited to volunteer in the district.

Volunteer administration is a profession like any other.

To be effective at volunteer administration, expertise is needed in applying principles developed by the profession over time. Professional skills and knowledge are needed to plan for and nurture volunteerism.

The school district wanted to answer the questions raised by these hypotheses:

- *How can we make the involvement of volunteers easier and more productive for school personnel?*

- *What keeps more parents from getting involved? Are there untapped sources of volunteer assistance in our community and, if so, what would it take to involve them?*

- *What, if any, principles of volunteer administration should be applied to the schools?*

WHY UTILIZE VOLUNTEERS IN SCHOOLS—WHAT'S THE BENEFIT?

A literature review on school volunteerism revealed a number of clear benefits that have been well documented.

Increased Community Support for Schools

The *National Committee for Citizens in Education* (Henderson, 1994) concluded that schools benefit from parent involvement through:

- improved teacher morale;
- higher ratings of teachers by parents;
- more support from families;
- higher student achievement; and
- better reputations in the community.

The National Research Council (1990) and Brudney (1990), among others, suggest that public sector organizations consider developing active volunteer programs for several reasons:

- Volunteerism helps citizens understand the needs, problems, and successes of public sector organizations. This develops a strong cadre of supporters.
- Volunteer involvement lends credibility to advocacy efforts, since decision-makers know that volunteers are unpaid constituents.
- Volunteerism enhances services by providing the person-power to either expand existing services or develop new services with their skills and talents.
- Volunteerism increases community connections for public sector organizations by providing new or greater access to service clubs, cultural organizations and corporations.
- Volunteerism increases the organization's ability to "connect" with its diverse "customers" because volunteers reflect the community and represent more points of view.

Increased Educational Program Effectiveness

Positive educational results also have been well documented. The National Research Council's 1990 review of 34 studies on the effects of volunteer tutoring programs in reading showed that tutored children made significantly greater gains in reading skills than did untutored students in control groups. Tutoring, in the studies reviewed, was provided by parents, other adult volunteers, and peer or older student volunteers. The results also suggest that peer or older student tutors may be more effective than adult tutors.

While tutoring has been the volunteer activity most often studied by researchers, some studies suggest additional promising directions for school volunteerism. In a Washington, DC program, scientists and mathematicians were recruited as volunteers to lecture, conduct demonstrations, coach students for competitions, and lead science and math clubs. After a year, students were asked if their feelings about science and math had changed. Students reported they were more likely to study science and math and to seek science- and math-related careers as a result of the volunteers' interest and encouragement.

Cost Effectiveness

While the estimated monetary value of volunteer work can be substantial, it should not be considered "cost savings." Instead, funding for the volunteer program should be viewed as "leverage money," because it can help to finance services whose value can be worth much more than the original expenditure (Ellis, 1986).

WHAT RESEARCH PARTICIPANTS SAID ABOUT THE BENEFITS OF VOLUNTEERS

Results from discussion groups and surveys of principals, teachers, parents, and children in the California school district identified numerous benefits to involving volunteers in the schools. What follows is a sample of their responses:

Principals
- Volunteers become "goodwill ambassadors" for the schools. They help to enhance community understanding. They support schools and become advocates.
- They provide different role model opportunities and become another place for students to "connect."

Teachers
- Volunteers take some of the load off of us and stretch our resources.
- That they are here sends an important message to kids that school is important.
- They bring talents we don't have, enhance the program, and provide new opportunities for enrichment.

Parents
- Volunteering allows me to get to know the people who work with my kids and what's going on at the school.
- My kids feel proud when I'm here. My being here sends the message that school is important.

Second-Graders
- They help people who don't know as much and need help.
- They teach us new things.

IF VOLUNTEERS ARE SO GREAT, WHY AREN'T THERE MORE?

If volunteers are so effective, and everyone from school personnel to parents and children to national researchers believes there are benefits, why aren't there more volunteers? In the California district, principals and teachers consistently cited similar issues and concerns. They said:

- Quality control is difficult, and we have a particular concern with confidentiality issues.
- Volunteers need supervision and training, and we don't have time to do that.
- Most parents work and can't come to the classroom on a regular basis.
- The volunteers need training in classroom etiquette and discipline techniques.
- They only want to volunteer in their child's classroom. That may not be the only place we need help.
- Sometimes there's a mismatch between what the volunteer wants to do and what needs to be done. After all, "somebody has to cut the bunny ears."
- Volunteers say, "I want to do more than cut and paste," but reliability issues keep us from giving them more responsibility.
- It takes so much time to coordinate volunteers and define the tasks that need to be done. Also, it takes time to supervise, schedule, and communicate the need.
- Some volunteers come with their own agendas.

Many of the concerns identified by school personnel were mirrored in responses by parents who currently volunteer for the schools. They were asked to identify barriers to their success:

- I wish they would train me in appropriate discipline techniques.
- There is a lack of understanding about what the volunteer's role is.
- We need guidelines for volunteers on classroom etiquette and ethics.

- We do not get feedback from teachers other than "thank you." We wonder, was our work beneficial? Did we do it right?
- Please clue me in on how the material is presented to the children so I can be more helpful. For example, how did the teacher explain long division? Explaining it the way I learned it as a child isn't working.
- I have skills beyond what's been asked for, but there doesn't seem to be a way for me to use them.
- I haven't always felt welcome.

In a written survey, parents who don't currently volunteer for the schools were asked why not:

- I don't feel qualified to participate in some of the things offered. Maybe if training were provided I would.
- I work full time so availability is a big factor. If the teacher were to ask in advance, I would make time available, but I can't do so on a weekly basis.
- I have quit volunteering from time to time because I don't feel valued.
- I think more outreach to the parent community could be done and a more welcoming atmosphere could be fostered. I attended two parent-teacher association meetings, and not one person introduced himself/herself or welcomed me.
- Providing a written list of all possible ways to volunteer with a brief description of duties would help me find a way to help.
- If I had more notice, I could ask for the day off from work.

Teachers and principals also were asked what would increase the number of volunteers and quality of their involvement. They said the district needed to:

- Recruit them.
- Train them.
- Coordinate them, define the tasks, supervise, schedule, offer recognition, and communicate the need.
- Ensure they are dependable.
- Identify their particular skills.

Parents who were active volunteers, as well as those not currently volunteering for the schools, listed what was needed to increase volunteerism:

- A clear and solid organizational structure with volunteer roles and tasks clearly defined.
- An understanding of the diverse needs and objectives of parents.
- Teacher training to help manage volunteers. Some teachers who are good with volunteers could teach others.
- An inter-school directory to share resources to match people with specialized skills to appropriate volunteer assignments.
- Reaching out beyond the parent population to others in the community such as students and faculty at the local university.
- Recruiting people with specific skills who don't know they are needed.
- Reaching out to people who want to help, but don't know how.
- Making volunteers feel welcome. If they feel on the "outside," bring them in.

ANALYSIS

All the major players—principals, teachers, volunteers and non-volunteers, students and business leaders—hope for increased resources for the schools through volunteer involvement. All agreed that a major barrier is lack of organizational structure to support volunteerism. Concerns expressed by school personnel and volunteers centered around the need for volunteer program management.

All view volunteer job identification, recruitment, appropriate placement, scheduling, training, supervision, and recognition of volunteers as necessary for success. The fact that no one currently has the time available to accomplish these administrative tasks was seen as the major barrier to increasing volunteer involvement in the district.

McCurley and Lynch (1989) state that "volunteer programs do not work spontaneously, but require someone to devote

the care and attention required for fitting together a complex system matching the needs of the agency with the needs of the volunteers and the community." Bembry (1996) demonstrated that "trained volunteer coordinators can have a significant impact on both increasing the number of volunteers and improving the qualitative aspects of a volunteer program."

The school district could acknowledge the need to coordinate volunteers and administer a volunteer program. Increased communication between each group could eliminate erroneous assumptions between educators and volunteers. Identification of issues that inhibit productivity, and addressing them jointly with district personnel and volunteers, will allow volunteerism to grow and flourish in the district.

School Assumptions Examined

• *Volunteers and confidentiality don't mix.*

Principals and teachers were consistently concerned with volunteers' abilities to maintain confidentiality, a critically important standard of their profession, yet little or no direction had been given to the volunteers on this subject. Volunteers repeatedly expressed a desire to understand school policies better so they could feel more comfortable and be successful in their roles.

Other organizations where confidentiality is an issue—hospitals, AIDS support systems, mental health programs—have successfully instituted policies, procedures, and training for volunteers which require strict adherence to confidentiality regulations.

• *Volunteers won't take responsibility for discipline.*

Teachers and principals repeatedly expressed astonishment that parents seemed unwilling to apply adequate and appropriate discipline techniques while volunteering at school. Parents, however, consistently wished for better understanding of their role in discipline. Parents easily identified the need, but had been given little or no direction about appropriate disciplinary measures they could apply. Fur-

ther, they had been given no authority in this area. They assumed discipline was the teacher's domain, not theirs. Many parents in the district expressed a desire for training in this and in other areas.

• *Parents want to volunteer only in their own child's classroom.*

Both teachers and principals often seemed to limit potential volunteer assignments to the classroom, and then further assumed that the parents' interest was to volunteer only in their child's classroom. It was found, however, that physically being in the classroom on a regular basis is not of interest to some volunteers, and may not be possible for others. Many felt that just being present somewhere in the school sent the right message to their children that they cared about education.

Parents with little interest in participating in classroom activities wished to use their skills on behalf of the schools, but often felt frustrated that no opportunities were available to them. Professions that provide access to resources within the parent population include psychologist, nutritionist, banker, veterinarian, dance teacher, scientist. Parents also had expertise in environmental issues, swimming, nature study, computers, and grant writing. If a system were in place to accommodate these offers of help, the schools would be richer indeed.

Parents also have made assumptions about what the schools need based upon the often limited, classroom-based volunteer jobs they have been offered. Some assume that if they don't have professional experience in education, they aren't qualified to help and therefore can't be useful. Yet many non-classroom school needs are unmet and volunteer skills not utilized.

A striking example was evident in all discussion groups when teachers and principals expressed a strong need for help with the repair and maintenance of school buildings and equipment. Builders, plumbers, and electricians certainly are among the district's parent population, as well as being represented in the local busi-

ness community, but if these potential volunteers aren't aware of a need they won't self-identify. While liability and union issues must be explored in these and other areas, dismissing these potential volunteers out of hand neglects a large potential source of untapped service providers.

• *Parents who work outside the home are not willing to volunteer or are unreliable.*

While it is true that many parents are in the workforce, they nonetheless expressed a willingness and a desire to help the schools if jobs could be created for them less often than on a weekly basis, and/or outside their working hours.

In response to the written parent survey, 58 percent of those parents who did not volunteer at school reported they were active volunteers in other settings where their schedules were accommodated, or their talents better utilized.

• *If they really wanted to volunteer, they would already be here.*

Many teachers and principals in the discussion groups believed that anybody who is willing and able to volunteer will come forward on his/her own. This assumption is refuted by parents who said that volunteer time slots in a regular classroom are inconvenient and that they don't know of other ways to be helpful.

Successful volunteer recruitment requires an understanding of the need to offer choices for involvement which accommodate volunteers' skills, needs, and interests. Each volunteer is motivated to volunteer for a particular, individual set of reasons. While for many volunteering begins with a desire to "give back to the community," motivation may also include one or more of the following: a desire to meet people, share skills, learn new ones, explore a career path, feel part of a team, or gain experience.

The school district seeking volunteers must take a marketing approach to find human resources needed to accomplish its goals. The exchange should be viewed as one in which both the school district and the volunteer benefit.

In addition, potential sources of volunteers other than parents have been only minimally explored. Education was identified as the number one priority by 450 corporate CEOs when asked where they would like to see their corporate volunteerism resources applied (Wild, 1993). In the California district, local business and university leaders expressed a strong willingness to involve themselves and their colleagues in service to the schools, but they had been frustrated trying to "find their way in." A carefully planned recruitment strategy has great potential for the recruitment of large numbers of non-parent volunteers.

It seems clear that assumptions are being made that limit volunteer involvement. Examination of false assumptions would go a long way to accommodate the desires of parents and others to become more involved.

SUCCESS FACTORS IDENTIFIED

In a study of successful school volunteer programs across the country, the National Research Council (1990) identified the following factors necessary for success:

• *Support by Top Policy Levels*

Strong support from the school board must be expressed publicly, preferably in the form of a written policy. Sincere personal approval by the superintendent and participating principals also is apparent in successful programs.

State-level support in the form of a position or policy on school volunteerism, a contact person or office within the state department of education, and seed funding to provide incentives for participation also are helpful.

• *Organization and Management*

Organization and management were found to be key factors in determining the outcome of successful programs. Although the structure and operation of successful programs vary, a district administrator generally is appointed. This person—with

the aid of a coordinator or team at each school—takes major responsibility for volunteer activities, including record-keeping and preparation of recruitment and training materials.

In successful volunteer programs, the district administrator consults with teachers and principals in each school to assess their need for volunteers. This "central office" either recruits and places volunteers directly in the schools, or trains a school team (usually consisting of a volunteer and a member of the school's staff) to recruit, then train and manage the site's volunteers. The district administrator also develops district-wide procedures, and is responsible for assisting in cultivating community and/or business contacts.

• *Involvement of Teachers*

The relationship between the teachers and the on-site volunteer coordinator is critical. Teachers with no training in supervision of volunteers are sometimes reluctant to take on what they perceive as a burden rather than a help. Therefore, successful volunteer program coordinators provide training not only for volunteers, but for teachers and other staff as well.

Involvement of the teachers' union is also a critical success factor. "Both of the major teacher organizations support the use of volunteers in schools, with the provision that they [volunteers] work under the supervision of professional teaching staff, and are not used to replace teachers or school aides" (National Research Council, 1990). Lack of commitment to this concept on the part of policy-makers and school volunteer program coordinators can be a major impediment to success.

• *Recruitment, Training, and Placement of Volunteers*

The most successful programs recruit volunteers from a variety of sources—senior citizens groups, businesses, colleges and universities, students from other elementary and secondary schools—and always, parents. As in other volunteer programs, it seems the best recruiter is an enthusiastic, satisfied volunteer.

The critical importance of orientation to the volunteer program and training for the specific job cannot be over-emphasized as success factors. Many potential pitfalls such as misunderstandings about the expectations of volunteers or about important policies such as confidentiality can be avoided successfully with clear role definition and good training.

• *Recognition of Volunteers*

Successful programs give much time and attention to the way volunteers are treated. While formal recognition such as dinners or plaques most often come to mind, research shows that informal recognition based on the volunteer's needs and interests is the most valued. Personal notes of appreciation, name-tags, or mention of service in newsletters or local newspapers often are more appreciated than the grandest dinner meeting. Well-designed training programs provided as a part of volunteer service often also are perceived by volunteers as benefits of their involvement and, therefore, as a source of recognition.

CONCLUSIONS

It appears there exists broad support for the idea of attempting to increase volunteerism in the district. Lack of volunteer coordination and administration of the volunteer program, as well as communication barriers based upon erroneous assumptions, seem to be factors which stand in the way of success.

The following steps to further develop a volunteer program for the district have been recommended and are currently under consideration:

• *Commitment from the Top*

For volunteerism to be successful, both the superintendent and the school board should take formal action on its behalf. A good beginning is to develop a policy on volunteer involvement in the district.

• *Ensure Effective Volunteer Program Administration*

A district-wide volunteer administrator should develop a strategic plan in conjunction with key players: teachers, parents, students, principals, union representatives, and community leaders. This person is responsible for coordinating the volunteer efforts at participating school sites, as well as encouraging appropriate recruitment and placement procedures and orientation and training programs for both volunteers and staff. A cost/benefit analysis will determine the ability of the program to "leverage" the dollars allocated to create additional resources for the district.

• *Think Beyond the Classroom*

Many parents and community businesses would like to help schools, but not in the classroom. For example, gardening, training design and delivery, clerical, carpentry, and grantwriting skills were mentioned as needed by district personnel. Although liability and union issues will need to be explored in some of these areas, these are examples of skills volunteers have and schools need that don't require classroom attendance by the provider.

• *Think Beyond Parents*

The business and university communities (faculty, staff, and students), retirees, and junior high and high school students are valuable volunteer resources. Many opportunities exist for the development of outstanding programs with non-parent volunteers.

It is hoped that much of what was learned in this school district will be applicable in the development of school volunteer programs in other communities.

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ABSTRACT

This article describes an innovative community mobilization strategy that was implemented as part of an alcohol and other drug prevention program that targeted church communities, families, and high risk youth. It focuses on how the program, Creating Lasting Connections, defined communities in terms of social support systems associated with the church system rather than defining communities geographically. The community mobilization strategy emphasized the development and training of local community volunteer teams to act as advocates for the program as well as community engagement through participation and empowerment. Evaluation results are presented that demonstrate the success of this strategy. Significant learnings are also highlighted.

Mobilizing Church Communities for Alcohol and Other Drug Abuse Prevention Through the Use of Volunteer Church Advocate Teams

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INTRODUCTION

During the 1980s, prevention researchers and practitioners increased their attention on community-based prevention. They realized the importance of the community to the prevention of youth alcohol and other drug problems (Benard, 1991). This shift in focus was in line with developmental and social learning theories suggesting that youths face pressures to engage in problem behaviors from many sources outside of the school (Johnson, Pentz, Weber, Dwyer, Baer, MacKinnon, and Hansen, 1990).

Given the importance of community, a central question is how communities can be mobilized and organized to help implement prevention programs. While there is no standard model for mobilizing and organizing communities to deal with alcohol and other drug problems, it is widely recognized that community participation in prevention and intervention programs is crucial to the success of these programs (Clapp, 1995; Massachusetts Department of Public Health, 1994; Wechsler, 1988, 1990). The community-based approach to prevention outlined by Wechsler (1988,

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1990), for example, emphasizes community involvement in identifying and solving problems through the development of indigenous leadership and community empowerment.

This article focuses on an innovative model for mobilizing church communities for prevention and early intervention of alcohol and other drug problems. The model included an emphasis on community engagement and the development of teams of volunteer church advocates as key elements. Church communities were targeted in this project because the definition of community focused not on geographically-bounded communities (such as neighborhoods or precincts), but on natural groupings and support systems based on shared activities and interests.

This targeting of church communities was based on program experience indicating that it makes sense to link up with people for prevention where community already seems to exist. At the same time, there is support both in the general prevention literature and the literature on church and community that this approach is a sound one.

Benard (1991), while not specifically mentioning church communities, notes the importance of the "community" in building resilient youths through a triad of protective factors: caring and support, high expectations, and opportunities for meaningful participation. This list of community protective factors seems particularly appropriate for church communities which typically involve all three (support, high expectations and clear norms, as well as participation).

Maton and Wells (1995) point out that religion is a powerful resource for prevention. These authors describe multiple ways in which religion and religious organizations can help develop community well-being (through prevention, healing, and empowerment), and they call for more research focusing on how this occurs so that the preventive and empowering potential of religious organizations can be enhanced.

Once church communities were selected as sites for the Creating Lasting Connections project, attention was centered on developing and empowering volunteer Church Advocate Teams as pivotal agents in the implementation of the program.

Following a brief discussion of the demonstration project itself, a detailed description of each phase of the church community mobilization strategy will be provided, along with evaluation results that are pertinent to determining the successful implementation of each phase of the strategy. Significant learnings that stem from the implementation experience and evaluation results also are presented.

THE DEMONSTRATION PROJECT

Creating Lasting Connections was a five-year demonstration project located in Louisville, Kentucky, funded (beginning in 1989) by the federal Center for Substance Abuse Prevention which targeted alcohol and other drug use among high-risk youth. The project, which was designed and implemented by the Council on Prevention and Education: Substances, Inc. (COPES), sought to increase community, family, and individual (youth) resiliency factors[1] which would reduce the likelihood that 12–14 year-old high-risk youths would abuse alcohol and other drugs. Church communities were targeted in rural, suburban, and inner-city settings within the greater Louisville region. In addition to the diversity of community contexts across the urban-rural continuum, the communities also represented diversity in terms of ethnicity.

The program design included specific interventions aimed at increasing resiliency in the three domains[2] mentioned (community, family, and individual). At the community level (which is largely the subject of this article), the program was designed to create lasting connections among church leaders and families in need within their church communities. As will be explained, the definition of community and the selection of communities to participate was an integral part of the strategy to mobilize the church communi-

ties to become vested early in the project and to support high-risk youths and their families throughout the project.

Within the family and individual domains, the focus was on parents/guardians and their 12–14 year-old children. The interventions within these domains included a series of trainings conducted by program staff which focused on increasing resiliency in the areas of alcohol and other drug knowledge and beliefs, family management, and communication. First, the parents who were recruited into the program were offered an intensive 12- to 16-hour training. This component included a history of substance abuse prevention programs, examination of personal and group feelings and attitudes toward alcohol and other drug issues, and an in-depth look at the dynamics of chemical dependency and its effects on families.

Next, parents and guardians participated in a 12- to 16-hour training curriculum entitled *Not My Child*. In this training, families were asked to examine and enhance their ability to develop and implement expectations and consequences with their children in all areas of concern. The curriculum focused on the principles of inclusion, acceptance, understanding, respect, and autonomy.

Following a component which focused on recruiting the youths into the program through a family social activity, the next interventions included *Straight Communications* trainings (which also took about 12 to 16 hours). These trainings gave opportunities first to parents and youth among their respective peer groups, and then to parents and their children together, to develop skills needed to implement constructive decisions and to enhance self-esteem. The training also provided opportunities to explore and practice various communication styles within role-plays. The *Straight Communication* training was adapted from the *Say It Straight* program developed by Dr. Paula Englander-Golden (Englander-Golden, Elconin, and Miller, 1985; Englander-Golden, Elconin, Miller, and Schwartzkopf, 1986), which was based on Virginia Satir's *Peoplemaking* (1983).

Because of the nature of the issues and emotions addressed in the trainings, the program staff knew that multiple supportive components for the participants and their families were needed. So, in addition to the training components outlined above, the program included provision of early intervention services to families as needed during the training phase. In the follow-up phase (following the trainings), case management services also were provided to all families. These services included regular telephone contact to encourage families to participate in community activities and to access community services for any family or personal problem.

The evaluation of the Creating Lasting Connections program (Johnson, Berbaum, Bryant, and Bucholtz, 1995) focused on studying both the processes and outcomes of the major program components, which were church community mobilization, parent/guardian and youth training, and early intervention and case management services. Hypotheses were formulated based on the program's objectives in the areas of community engagement, family and youth resiliency, and youth alcohol and other drug use. Community volunteer advocates from the church were essential to the implementation of the rigorous evaluation, which included random assignment of families to experimental (program) and comparison groups.

The process and outcome evaluation results of the larger evaluation are detailed in Johnson, Berbaum, Bryant, and Bucholtz (1995) and Johnson, Strader, Berbaum, Bryant, Bucholtz, Collins, and Noe (1996). The findings from the evaluation of the Creating Lasting Connections program strongly indicate that a church community based intervention that integrates system- and client-level program components can strengthen resiliency among high-risk youth and their families. More importantly, the findings show that community based prevention can delay onset and reduce fre-

quency of alcohol and other drug use among youth within a one-year period.

This article includes selected evaluation results from the larger evaluation to determine successful implementation of each phase of the church community mobilization strategy. Adequate performance in the program was determined by staff before the fact, *a priori*, (Rossi and Freeman, 1989; Suchman, 1967). To assess successful implementation, the actual performance was compared with these *a priori* expectations.

CHURCH COMMUNITY
MOBILIZATION STRATEGY

There are many strategies in the literature for mobilizing communities and their leaders (Rothman, 1979; Rothman and Tropman, 1987; Kettner, Daley, and Nichols, 1985), yet there is often a problem in defining the boundaries of communities. One source on organizing communities for prevention (Massachusetts Department of Public Health, 1994) noted that the term community has both a geographical connotation and a social one, but that the bottom line is that community defines the way people come together.

Recent models of community organizing for prevention of alcohol and other drug problems tend to emphasize community participation in problem identification, intervention planning, and implementation (Clapp, 1995). The Creating Lasting Connections program design, however, went a step further by actually defining community not in geographical terms, but in terms of natural groupings and support systems built around the shared activities and interests of church congregations. At the root of this definition of community was the idea that it made sense to link up with people for prevention where "community" already seemed to exist. This idea grew out of extensive program experience indicating that the use of geographical boundaries in defining communities did not ensure shared activities or interests, and that

school communities (and programming) often excluded parents and guardians.

Having defined community in terms of social support and shared interests, the mobilization strategy involved a number of phases designed to select church communities and to empower Church Advocate Team volunteers to identify, recruit, and retain families in the program. The mobilization strategy was conceived as a five phase process:

I. Church community site selection.
II. Development of volunteer Church Advocate Teams.
III. Training of the volunteer Church Advocate Teams.
IV. Development and implementation of a family recruitment plan.
V. Program retention activities (retaining families in the program) by the volunteer Church Advocate Teams.

In each of these phases there were assessments used to determine successful implementation of the strategy. The objectives associated with the phases and the measures used to determine successful implementation of the strategy are summarized in Table I.

Phase I: Church Community Selection

Phase I was a site selection process focusing on the identification and selection of community sites. The first step of the process involved identifying church communities that were within the established boundaries of the targeted service delivery area (40–50 mile radius of Louisville, Kentucky) and that were interested in learning more about the project. A questionnaire was mailed to 132 churches in this area to obtain information on demographics, types of services offered, and interest in and readiness to participate in Creating Lasting Connections (McKelvy, Schneider, and Johnson, 1990). Forty-two churches (32%) returned the survey, and 28 of these expressed an interest in participating in the program.

A second step within Phase I involved the selection of church communities from

TABLE I

Objectives and Measures of Success for Community Mobilization Strategy by Phases

Phase	Objective	Measure
I.	• To identify, assess, select, and recruit 3 to 10 church communities with potential to be successful demonstration sites	• Number of church communities identified • Number of church communities that responded to survey • Assessment scores • Number of sites recruited
II.	• To identify and recruit volunteer Church Advocate Teams with at least 8 members in each demonstration site	• Number of church sites in which at least 8 Church Advocate Team volunteers were recruited
III.	• To train volunteer Church Advocate Teams members effectively	• Program implementation analysis of Church Advocate Team volunteers' reports of whether the training was designed to prepare them for their roles and was implemented as designed
IV.	• To develop a family recruitment plan at each site and to implement it successfully	• Comparison of program staff expectations and Church Advocate Team volunteers' reports of most useful recruitment tactics • Number of families recruited at each site (minimum of 24)
V.	• To engage the church communities to be empowered to successfully implement the program and its evaluation and to participate in program retention efforts	• Program retention rates • Ethnographic analysis of volunteer Church Advocate Teams that assessed empowerment and participation

those that had indicated an interest, based on the communities' appropriateness as demonstration sites. There were four separate criteria for site selection. The first criterion concerned the number of individuals with targeted high-risk characteristics who were accessible within the church community's sphere of influence. The second dealt with the social services/programs which were offered by the church community and their relatedness to Creating Lasting Connections. The third criterion entailed examination of the program offerings of each church community by whether or not the services were delivered by members of the community itself, in cooperation with other communities, or contracted or referred to external sources (such as mental health agencies). This criterion was deemed important because it was known that church community volunteers in the program would be expected to assist youths and families with a variety of services, so experience in having previously done so was viewed as positive. The fourth selection criterion concerned a

church community's willingness and readiness for program implementation. In terms of readiness, a "readiness index," which was constructed from five questions asked in the church surveys, measured community priorities, willingness, and resources (McKelvy et al., 1990).

Church communities that indicated an interest in participating in the Creating Lasting Connections program were then offered the opportunity to participate in one of two orientation meetings. Eleven church communities sent representatives to these meetings. This process enabled program staff to further evaluate the readiness and ability of the interested sites to implement the program.

A final selection criterion that measured a church's potential for the project was developed following an on-site visit. Besides the 11 churches represented at the orientation meetings, two additional churches also expressed interest in site visits. The site visit clarified issues for members of the church communities and allowed the staff to assess the church community's

ability to meet the requirements for being a demonstration site. A staff assessment score was developed and filled out by each staff member involved in the visit. The final scores ranged from 1 (fair) to 2 (average) to 3 (good) to 4 (excellent) for each of eight assessment criteria, yielding total scores from 8 to 32.

The success of Phase I of the mobilization strategy is indicated in part by the fact that six church communities attempted implementation of the Creating Lasting Connections program, as compared to the original goal of 3 to 10 church communities. This is indicated in Table II. Table II also outlines the process stages that took place in Phase I and the number of church communities involved in each stage, including number of churches identified and sent letters, number of churches that responded to the survey, number that expressed interest in learning more about the program, and number of churches that sent representatives to the orientation meetings. These numbers illustrate the successful implementation of a detailed site identification, assessment, and selection process.

It should be noted that some of the original church communities chose to form coalitions with other churches, so that in some of the tables in this article an indication will be given of several churches making up one church community "site."

Another measure of success within Phase I was the comparison of staff assessment scores of the church sites and eventual implementation success. Of the six churches that attempted implementation of the program, only two had assessment scores below 24, which was considered to be good overall. One site, which had an assessment score of 23, did not recruit enough families to successfully implement the program. Another site, which was a coalition of three churches, had an average assessment score of 21. The program was fully implemented at this site, although it took two years to accomplish (the design being for one year). These results suggest that the staff assessment scores were good indicators of the potential for success.

Phase II: Volunteer Church Advocate Team Formation and Orientation

Phase II involved the formation and orientation of volunteer Community Advocate Teams. These volunteer teams were composed of members (church staff and church community leaders) who were recruited either by church staff or program staff. The volunteer teams were designed to effectively participate in the program, to actively promote the project, and to recruit families of high-risk youths in the church communities.

The teams were a pivotal part of the church community mobilization strategy for two important reasons. First, since the volunteers often were well-known to other community members (and since they often had good knowledge of others in the community), they were very important to initiating a strong recruitment base. Second, the volunteers provided an im-

Table II
Summary of Processes Involved in Church Identification and Recruitment

Process	Number of Church Communities
Identified and sent introductory letters and questionnaires	132
Churches responded to surveys	42
Churches indicated an interest in learning more (and were invited to orientation meetings)	28
Churches sent representatives to orientation meetings	11*
Conducted site visits	13
Demonstration sites selected	6

*Two other church communities were not able to send representatives, but called later requesting site

portant linkage between community members and the Creating Lasting Connections program staff. The existence of linkages between community leaders and program staff at this phase generated community trust and buy-in.

The process of establishing volunteer teams involved holding an initial Church Advocate Team overview meeting to simultaneously present an overview of the program and to actually recruit volunteers. The scheduling of these overview meetings required having a contact person within the church community who served as a liaison between the project staff and the community. This person took the responsibility for inviting 8 to 10 key people from the church community to the initial meeting. If 5 to 8 volunteers were not recruited for each team during the initial meeting, additional meetings were held.

Seven attempts were made in six church communities to form volunteer teams to implement the program. (The reason for seven attempts at implementation in six church communities was that one community implemented the program twice, in years three and four.) The program achieved success in obtaining eight or more volunteers for all seven advocate teams. The success rates for volunteer recruitment for the seven implementation attempts are shown in Table III.

Table III shows that the project was very successful in this phase in recruiting and forming volunteer teams that would assist in all of the later phases.

Phase III: Volunteer Church Advocate Team Training

The third phase of the church community mobilization strategy involved staff training the volunteer teams. This phase was crucial, given the pivotal role of the volunteers. The training lasted 8 to 10 weeks and included an accelerated version of all program training components to be received by high-risk youths and their families. Familiarity with program content was expected to increase the volunteers' ability to effectively promote the program. The training also looked at personal and community attitudes regarding alcohol and other drug use; helped the volunteers understand youth development and alcohol and other drug use; introduced principles and content of the parent/youth training; allowed the trainers to learn from local representatives how to incorporate local cultural nuances which would be helpful in making the family training culturally relevant within the individual church communities; and, assisted in program planning and management.

The evaluation included an implementation analysis of the volunteer orientation

Table III
Success Rate of Volunteer Church Advocate Team (CAT) Recruitment

Site	Church Community Profile	CAT Recruitment Goal	Number of Volunteers Recruited
1	Urban/African-American/1 church	8	15
2	Suburban/White/1 church	8	10
3	Rural/White/6 churches	8	11
4	Suburban/White/1 church[a]	8	8
5	Rural/White/1 church	8	8
6	Urban/African-American/3 churches	8	18
4a	Suburban/White/1 church[a]	8	8
Total			78

[a]The program was implemented in this church community in years 3 and 4.

training. The analysis relied on volunteers' reports that training prepared them for their role and was implemented as designed. This analysis was conducted because it was assumed that team volunteers had to be receptive to the training, including trainer behaviors, training content, group exercises, and setting. Questionnaire data were obtained from 35 of the 55 volunteers who returned a mailed survey (64% response rate). Based on prior training experience, the program director set at 75% the desired rate of agreement by participants that certain aspects of the trainers' performance and training content were implemented.

Results in Tables IV and V indicate overall satisfaction with the training. Of the group, 97% said they would recommend the training to a friend while 91% said they could use it in everyday life.

All trainings were conducted by two individuals who served as co-trainers. According to Table IV, most of the volunteers agreed that the first of two trainers implemented the 13 training behaviors deemed important. The second trainer successfully implemented seven of nine behaviors.

In addition to their overall reported satisfaction with the training, the volunteers showed a high degree of agreement overall with program staff expectations that desired training behaviors and training setting, content, and methods were implemented (see Table V).

Phase IV: Recruitment of Families

The fourth phase involved developing and implementing a plan for recruiting families into the Creating Lasting Connections program. The program staff developed a generic recruitment strategy that served as a guide for developing the individual plans in the church communities. It was important that the plan be tailored to each particular site because each was, of course, different, and the success of the recruitment plan required the input of the volunteer teams to be effective.

Recruitment tasks and activities were identified and volunteers carried out the tasks based on a time line method. Plans included the following tactics: recruitment scheduled during church social events and celebrations; endorsements from church leaders; information meetings; advertising

Table IV

Percent of Church Advocate Team Volunteers Who Agreed on the Presence of Desirable or Undesirable Behavior of Creating Lasting Connections Trainers

Survey Items	Expected Agreement Rate	Trainer 1	Trainer 2
Spoke clearly	≥75%	94%	97%
Explained things well	≥75	94	91
Held my attention	≥75	91	74
Knew his subject	≥75	94	91
Answers helped me understand	≥75	94	74
Cared about me as a person	≥75	91	89
Enthusiastic about training	≥75	91	86
Instructions hard to follow	≤25	20	23
Too little time for discussion	≤25	3	–
Too little time for questions	≤25	3	–
Used words I did not understand	≤25	3	–
Session too long	≤25	3	–
Talked too much	≤25	6	9

N = 35 (number of volunteers who responded).
– = Missing data.
≥ = Greater than or equal to.
≤ = Less than or equal to.

in bulletins and other media; telephone contacts; personal letters and other mailings; and, face-to-face recruitment.

The evaluation of Creating Lasting Connections (Johnson et al., 1995) included a comparison between program staff intentions and volunteers' reports of which family recruitment tactics were useful. This comparison was aimed at determining whether there were discrepancies between program staff expectations and volunteers' reports of what was useful (Table VI).

The program staff encouraged volunteers to use the "personal factor" in recruiting families, and suggested the following order of emphasis for strategies: 1) meet in

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Table V

Percent of Church Advocate Team Volunteers Who Agreed on the Presence of Desirable Training Content, Group Exercises, and Setting Attributes

	Expected Agreement Rate	Actual Agreement Rate
Room adequate	≥75%	94%
Session right length	≥75	74
Information was interesting	≥75	97
Information was helpful	≥75	97
Group exercises important for learning	≥75	86
Knew already, but more likely to use	≥75	54
Alcohol and other drug session was useful to me	≥75	89
Alcohol and other drug session easy to understand	≥75	97
Alcohol and other drug session was interesting	≥75	97
Right number of sessions	≥75	57
Learned much from group exercises	≥75	89
Right number of people in group	≥75	83
Would recommend training to friend	≥75	97
Will be able to use in everyday life	≥75	91
Church Advocate Team training helped to contact/recruit families	≥75	77
Group exercises too hard	≤25	11
Learned more than I wanted to know	≤25	20
Already knew much of presentation	≤25	23
Too many sessions	≤25	6
Too few people in group	≤25	3

N = 35 (number of volunteers who responded).
≥ = Greater than or equal to.　　≤ = Less than or equal to.

Table VI

Description of the Most Successful Recruitment Tactics as Reported by Church Advocate Team Volunteers

Recruiting Processes	Creating Lasting Connections Staff Emphasis	Volunteers' Response
In person at an event/meeting	1	57%
Telephone conversation	2	17
In person after scheduled appointment	3	6
Personal letter	4	17
Other (e.g., brochures/handouts)	5	14

N = 35 (number of volunteers who responded).
1 = Most emphasis, 2 = Next most emphasis, etc.

person at an event or meeting, or schedule an appointment; 2) telephone contact; and 3) send a letter, or other non-personal tactic. The tactics the volunteers reported using most successfully included meeting people at an event or meeting (57%); telephone conversation (17%); personal letter (17%); in person, scheduled appointment (6%); and other, such as brochures or handouts (14%).

There was some incongruence between the recruitment tactics that the program staff expected to be most useful and those volunteers reported using most frequently. Table VI shows that staff expected telephone contact and personal contact through scheduled appointments to have been more frequently reported as successful tactics than actually occurred.

In the outcome evaluation of the community domain (Johnson et al., 1995), researchers hypothesized that the program would successfully engage church communities by using volunteer teams to implement a successful family recruitment strategy. The results showed that volunteer teams in six of the seven church communities successfully recruited the minimum number of 24 families required to implement and evaluate the program. Five of the church communities exceeded this minimum number (see Table VII).

Phase V: Program Retention Activities

After the family recruitment phase, the volunteer teams assisted in a number of important activities related to program retention, including 1) assisting in the scheduling of trainings; 2) refining the strategy for presenting the training in their particular community; 3) scheduling evaluation interviews; 4) preparing linkages for successful self-referrals/interventions to service providers; 5) maintaining contact with families throughout the project; and 6) planning and managing a program "graduation" ceremony.

The volunteers' involvement in these activities was considered essential to the retention of families in the program. For example, volunteers who participated in the parent trainings were responsible for contacting parents who missed a training session. This reinforced the parents' involvement in and commitment to the program because they knew that they were missed when they were absent.

Evidence of the parents' and youths' engagement is shown in Table VIII, which shows program training retention rates. Overall, the program was implemented and completed in six program sites with a 79% average training attendance rate (for 20–25 weeks) across sites. In addition, training retention percentages were 92% for parents and 88% for youth.

Another measure of success in completing Phase V was the extent to which church communities became more empowered as a result of their participation in the project. Deutsch (1994) conducted

Table VII

Success Rate of Family Recruitment

Site	Church Community Profile	Family Goal	Actual Recruitment
1	Urban/African-American/1 church	24	3
2	Suburban/White/1 church	24	39
3	Rural/White/6 churches	24	38
4	Suburban/White/1 church[a]	24	28
5	Rural/White/1 church	24	31
6	Urban/African-American/3 churches	24	26
4a	Suburban/White/1 church[a]	24	24
Total			189

[a]The program was implemented in this church community in years 3 and 4.

Table VIII

Training Retention Percentages for the Creating Lasting Connections Program by Church Community Site

Site	Parents				Youth			
	Entered Training	Completed Training	Completed Follow-up	Retention %	Entered Training	Completed Training	Completed Follow-up	Retention %
1	20	20	19	95%	24	21	20	83%
2	19	19	19	100	24	24	24	100
3	17	15	15	88	19	17	17	89
4	17	17	17	100	24	22	22	92
4[a]	15	13	13	87	19	17	17	89
5	16	13	13	81	22	17	17	77

Numbers represent the training group only.
[a]The program was implemented in this church community in years 3 and 4.

an ethnographic analysis of the volunteer teams which included measurement of empowerment and participation. Empowerment in this analysis was defined as volunteers gaining the ability to influence the church community through the recruitment and support of families involved in the program. This definition is consistent with Rappaport's (1987) concept of empowerment as conveying both a sense of personal control or influence and a concern with actual social influence. In addition to empowerment, the ethnographer also focused on the degree of participation by the volunteers.

Church community empowerment and participation scales were developed based on preliminary interviews to formulate an idea of how the different church communities had progressed. The scale was further revised toward the end of the research after more interviews had been conducted and, in some sites, after more activities had occurred. Table IX shows how the levels of observed empowerment and participation changed from during the project to after the project was completed. Church communities began the program with different levels of enthusiasm. Some also had greater levels of experience in receiving educational and training services (this relates back to the readiness scores used in the site selection phase). Other church communities took more time to learn and achieve success. However, the team volunteers in almost all communities felt a positive effect in triggering involvement of families in their communities (Deutsch, 1994).

Table IX

Ratings of Empowerment and Participation of the Volunteer Church Advocate Teams During and After Completing the Creating Lasting Connections Project by Church Communities

Church Community	During		After	
	E	P	E	P
1	2.5	2.5	3	2.5
2	3.5	3	1	2
3	2.5	3	3.5	3.5
4	3	3	4	4
5	2.5	2.5	4	4

Only church communities that successfully implemented the experimental design are included.
E = empowerment.
P = participation.
Rating of 0–1 = low, 2–3 = moderate, 4= high empowerment or participation.

Table IX shows that one church community did not sustain its earlier level of empowerment and participation after the Creating Lasting Connections program. Program staff noted two possible explanations for this finding: First, this community site was comprised of six church congregations that formed a coalition to implement the program. Given this, empowerment and participation may have been harder to sustain without a formal mechanism for communicating and disseminating information after the project ended. A second explanation may have been that the volunteer team leader, who played a pivotal role in building and maintaining the coalition during the first nine months of the project, was transferred out of the state, and no one stepped in as team leader for the remaining three months.

SUMMARY AND SIGNIFICANT LEARNINGS

The definition of community used in the Creating Lasting Connections project centered on mutual support and shared activities and interests, rather than on geographic boundaries. Church communities were selected as sites for implementing the program because they had existing support systems and were communities in which people came together around shared activities and interests. The program attempted to mobilize and engage these communities through the training of local volunteers to act as advocates for prevention programming. Thus, the strategy for mobilizing the communities centered around increasing the empowerment and participation of community volunteer advocates.

The following significant learnings are derived from the project's community mobilization strategy and correspond to the major phases described above.

Phase I: Church Community Selection
• Defining community in social rather than geographical terms creates a foundation from which a successful church

community mobilization strategy can be launched.
• Staff assessments of church community suitability for program implementation can be good indicators of subsequent success in implementation.

Phase II: Volunteer Church Advocate Team Formation and Orientation
• Engaging local church community volunteer advocates in program implementation creates an important linkage between the service organization and the target population.

Phase III: Volunteer Church Advocate Team Training
• Comprehensive community advocate team training is needed to prepare the volunteer advocates for their role in the implementation process.
• Local community volunteer advocates can educate program staff about local cultural nuances, which can help make subsequent trainings more culturally relevant to the communities involved.

Phase IV: Recruitment of Families
• Creating a family recruitment strategy that is flexible and adaptable to a local site's needs and differences is an important element in recruitment success.
• Using local community volunteer advocates to assist in the planning and implementation of a family recruitment plan increases the likelihood of successful recruitment.

Phase V: Program Retention Activities
• Involving the local community volunteer advocates in a variety of retention activities is essential in maintaining family and youth participation throughout a comprehensive 20-25 week prevention program.
• Involving local communities (churches) in a comprehensive community mobilization strategy increases community volunteer advocates' feelings of empowerment to advocate for and create a supportive environment for prevention efforts.

ENDNOTES

[1]"Resiliency" (or protective) factors are factors that help many youths, even those living in high risk environments, avoid alcohol and other drug problems.

[2]"Domain" is a term often used in prevention to refer to a sphere of influence in the behavior of children and youth. Typically, a number of domains are identified as having influences on youth, including family, school, peer group, neighborhood, and the larger society.

AUTHORS' NOTE

The results of the larger evaluation of the Creating Lasting Connections program have been published in the *Journal of Adolescent Research*, Vol. 11 No. 1, January 1996, 36–37 (Sage Publications, Inc.).

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ABSTRACT

Bonaventure House in Chicago is one of two adult licensed supportive residences in the State of Illinois for people living with AIDS. Residents have access to medical case management, pastoral care, social workers/counselors, and recovery programs for substance addiction. Over 120 volunteers provide practical and supportive services for the residents. This article reports on management procedures and challenges faced by the Bonaventure House volunteer program.

A Volunteer Program at a Supportive Residence for People with AIDS

Noel Gilligan, M.Div., M.P.S.

The Alexian Brothers' Bonaventure House is a licensed supportive residence for 30 men and women living with AIDS. Bonaventure House is located in Chicago's Lakeview section, a portion of which is a home neighborhood for Chicago's gay community. Since the House opened its doors in 1989, it has provided housing, medical case management, supportive services, substance abuse recovery programs, and pastoral care to more than 260 residents. Requirement for residency is a confirmed diagnosis of AIDS. Bonaventure House admits people without regard to race, color, gender, ethnic origin, religious belief, physical handicap, sexual orientation, or income. The House is funded by a mixture of federal and corporate grants and by private donations.

Bonaventure House depends upon the support of more than 120 active volunteers who work an average of 1,200 hours per month. Volunteers provide supportive company for residents, coordinate recreational activities, and help with dining services, building maintenance and financial development. Because they play such an important role in the facility, the volunteers as a matter of policy are substantially represented on various committees within the organization. Each member of the board of directors also volunteers his/her time in direct service to Bonaventure House. A volunteer advisory council meets quarterly with staff to share concerns and to plan social activities and training sessions.

WHY VOLUNTEERS CHOOSE BONAVENTURE HOUSE

People choose to volunteer at Bonaventure House for a variety of reasons, but some of their motivations also are found among volunteers at other AIDS Service Organizations (ASOs). Many feel that volunteer work enhances their sense of community and belonging, they feel good helping others, or they have felt the impact of AIDS personally. They may have lost partners, family members, colleagues, neighbors, and friends to the disease. For them, volunteering is an important way to keep the memory of a loved one alive.

Other volunteers see their work at Bonaventure House as an important expression of their spirituality and faith. The fact that the House is owned and operated by the Alexian Brothers of America, a

Noel Gilligan, M.Div., M.P.S., has been volunteer coordinator at Alexian Brothers Bonaventure House since July 1995. Before that he was a volunteer at the House. He has a background in high-school and adult education and holds a master's degree in pastoral studies from Loyola University, Chicago. He has worked in volunteer administration in various health-care ministries in the Archdiocese of Chicago where he completed clinical pastoral education certification at St. Francis Hospital of Evanston, Illinois. His current educational goals include a master's degree in human resource management and certification in volunteer administration.

health care ministry within the Roman Catholic Church, attracts volunteers who want to donate their time and talents on behalf of their own church community. One such example is "Club Seven," a group of seven women from St. Sabina's Church, an African-American parish on Chicago's South Side, who prepare dinner for the residents on a regular basis.

Volunteers also are attracted by the search for meaningful activity in their lives. Many have careers that offer little or no occasion for social service work. Consequently, they find the volunteer experience at Bonaventure House a refreshing opportunity to do social service/community work. They find intense personal satisfaction in volunteering and often use the phrase "meaningful work" when describing their volunteer experience to the professional staff.

For the most part, the volunteer corps at Bonaventure House identifies strongly with its mission, which is to "enhance the quality of life for people living with AIDS while offering them the opportunity for assisted living within a comprehensive, supportive environment, maintaining their dignity without regard to race, gender, sexual orientation, religious beliefs, physical challenges, or income." This shared mission between the volunteers and the organization is critical to the success of the Bonaventure House volunteer program.

THE POPULATION OF BONAVENTURE HOUSE

When Bonaventure House first opened, the resident population consisted of gay white males. Over the years, changes in AIDS demographics brought a corresponding change to the Bonaventure House resident community. While the majority of clients are male, now there are female residents. This gender mix adds to the variety and diversity of the House. Over 50 percent of clients are African- or Hispanic-American. Some of the residents are parents, and family visits are an important part of the day-to-day activities at

the House. The changing demographics of the AIDS population have brought experiential diversity to the volunteer program.

The changing client population has caused a reassessment of the volunteer corps. Although there are increasing numbers of minority volunteers, they are not as representative of the resident/client population as they could be. The policies and activities of the House are evolving in response to these demographic changes.

FIRST CONTACT: VOLUNTEER RECRUITMENT

Bonaventure House attracts many volunteers both from its immediate neighborhood and from the larger Chicago metropolitan area. Prospective volunteers first hear about Bonaventure House from a variety of sources. Advertising in the local press and in church bulletins has proven to be very effective. Active Bonaventure House volunteers attend local volunteer fairs and are encouraged to invite an interested friend, colleague, relative, or neighbor to visit the House and experience the volunteer program in action. This kind of personal connection is the House's most successful recruiting technique.

The volunteer coordinator visits local college campuses to speak to student groups and campus ministers about volunteer opportunities. Networking with college groups has been effective in recruiting student interns in the field of social work, pastoral care, and food service. Sometimes unsolicited referrals are made after local news media report on events at Bonaventure House.

When potential volunteers first come to Bonaventure House, they complete an application for volunteer services and receive position descriptions and information about the House and the services offered to residents.

INTAKE INTERVIEW

After completing an application form, the prospective volunteer is scheduled for an intake interview. The interview is always held at the House and provides an

opportunity for the prospective volunteer to meet other volunteers, staff, and residents and to ask questions about the volunteer program. The intake interview is an important assessment of suitability. It allows the volunteer to express interest in specific tasks that can be written up in a personally tailored position description. It also allows the volunteer coordinator an opportunity to gauge the suitability of the volunteer for specific jobs.

In the course of the interview, the candidate's ability to work with people from diverse cultural backgrounds is explored. Sexual orientation and substance addiction issues among the resident community also are discussed at this time. As was noted earlier, a considerable number of Bonaventure House volunteers recently have experienced bereavement as a result of losing someone to AIDS. Those who are recently bereaved are asked to wait for a period of six months before joining the volunteer program so they will have an opportunity to adjust better to their own loss. A record is kept of all referrals and interviews so that, if appropriate, contact can be reestablished in the future.

Sometimes prospective volunteers need to be told they cannot volunteer. They may not have the skills needed or they may be volunteering for reasons that are unacceptable. Since the focus at the House is on living and on maximizing the independence of residents, those who want to be bedside visitors for the dying would not be suitable for this program.

VOLUNTEER TRAINING

Volunteer training is 12 hours with a four-hour orientation session and an eight-hour training day. The orientation and training explain the origin and mission of the organization, and familiarize new volunteers with the facility, safety procedures, telephone protocol, infection control, boundary and sensitivity issues, client confidentiality, substance abuse, and the recovery program. In a session known as AIDS 101 volunteers are given up-to-date information about the AIDS virus, its treatments

and side-effects. There is also an opportunity for volunteers to meet some of the residents through a resident panel: A group of House residents who are willing to share their stories with the new volunteers and provide insights into community living at Bonaventure House.

The training is highly interactive. It encompasses discussion, question-and-answer sessions, and the use of a wide range of training methods, including video, overhead projection, flipchart, board and marker, handouts, role-play exercises, and simulations. Trainers are accredited professionals with a background in adult education as well as in AIDS service. Because of its work in training, Bonaventure House helped to found the volunteer training consortium at the Midwest AIDS Training and Education Center (MATEC) at the University of Illinois at Chicago.

In addition to orientation and training, volunteers are offered quarterly inservice training. Inservices cover topics such as substance abuse, tuberculosis, mental health awareness, pastoral care, and grief issues. Scheduling orientation, training, and inservices poses a major challenge. They always have been held on Sundays, but not all prospective volunteers are available on that day. Since trainers are not always available weekday evenings or Saturdays, scheduling poses a major problem. A challenge for the volunteer coordinator right now is to develop flexible training schedules that work for both volunteers and staff.

TOOLS FOR THE JOB AND SUPPORT SYSTEMS

The Bonaventure House volunteer manual contains information about the facility and all policies and procedures which allow volunteers to use their time constructively and beneficially. The manual contains a code of ethics for volunteers that emphasizes maintaining personal boundaries so that both the volunteers and the House residents have a safe working environment where the dignity and the independence of the residents are ac-

knowledged. Because Bonaventure House is a residential community, volunteers are encouraged to be available to the Bonaventure community as a whole, rather than spend all of their time with particular individuals.

A challenge facing volunteer administrators at ASOs is the delivery of adequate support systems to volunteers especially when a client dies. Effective support systems greatly enable volunteers to cope with multiple losses. Many ASOs ask volunteers to help provide one-on-one care for individual clients through a "buddy" system. In contrast, Bonaventure House encourages volunteers to interact with all 30 of its residents. Repeated bereavements can be deeply wounding. To mitigate this problem, volunteers are encouraged to establish friendly relationships which help the residents but without the kind of intense, interpersonal involvement that characterizes close friendship. Striving for objectivity and dispassion does not diminish the quality of volunteer service, but offers volunteers guidelines as they interact with residents in order to keep relationships functioning smoothly. The end result of using this model is to help reduce burn-out while promoting volunteer retention. However, burn-out is a reality at Bonaventure House, and turnover among volunteers can be high.

All volunteers attend monthly support group meetings. These meetings are mandatory during a volunteer's first six months. To further integrate them into the facility, volunteers are encouraged to call weekly on a special hotline for updates about the resident community. Details about hospitalizations, new residents, and in-house activities are made available through the hotline. A monthly newsletter is mailed to all volunteers. An audio cassette, recorded weekly by the volunteer coordinator, presents updates on work projects, house needs, and news about the community important for volunteers to know. Volunteers are required to listen to this recording at the start of their shifts. The volunteer coordinator, staff members,

and supervisors always are available to volunteers should they need advice or help during their shifts. Ideally, a "phone-tree" makes it possible for all volunteers to be informed of a resident's death. Although the phone-tree does not function as well as it should, the fact that staff at least *tries* to contact volunteers at the time of a resident's death is perceived positively by most of the volunteers. Volunteers are welcome to attend memorial services and other rituals held at the House whenever a resident dies.

MENTORING PROGRAM

During their first shifts at the House, veteran volunteers offer assistance to new volunteers. Veterans also allow new volunteers the opportunity to contact them outside the House should they have any questions or concerns. This mentoring program is essential in helping the new volunteer feel welcome and encouraged during her/his initial exposure to the work done at the House. Meeting people for the first time and matching names with faces is as stressful at Bonaventure House as it is in any new environment. The presence of a mentor who guides and encourages is appreciated. Mentors telephone new volunteers after a particularly busy time or "crisis moment" to find out how they are coping and whether they can be helpful in any way.

RECOGNITION

Volunteer recognition at Bonaventure House is both formal and informal. Informal recognition includes holiday greeting cards for volunteers, notes of appreciation, telephone calls and personal thank-you's, as well as individual profiles in the newsletter and acknowledgment and congratulations given to each volunteer on the anniversary date of their volunteer service. Formal recognition events are held twice a year. In spring there is an awards brunch at a local restaurant. The annual volunteer picnic is held at the end of the summer. On these occasions certifi-

cates and modest gifts are presented to volunteers who have been with the agency for more than one year. Plaques are placed in a prominent location at Bonaventure House to honor those who have completed one year of service as well as those who have completed five years. A small group of volunteers has remained at the House since it opened in 1989, showing their commitment to the program.

SUPERVISION AND EVALUATION

While the model of supervision is understood as a support system for volunteers, it also promotes excellence in the volunteer workforce. Through appropriate supervision, volunteers are made aware that their work is just as important as that of the professional staff. In order to become a volunteer one must go through the same procedures as would an applicant for a paid position. The process allows volunteers to be matched with tasks and placed on projects at which they can excel, and provides on-going assistance so that their volunteer experience at Bonaventure House remains rewarding and beneficial.

The Bonaventure House volunteer program is evaluated annually by its volunteers. Volunteers are evaluated not only by their supervisors, but by their own self-assessment. This feedback makes it possible for Bonaventure House staff, and especially its volunteer coordinator, to adapt the volunteer program to the changing needs of the Bonaventure House resident community and its volunteers. For example, when volunteers expressed a desire to help with recreational activities one weekday evening a week, Bingo games were developed complete with prizes for lucky participants. Other projects that grew out of volunteer feedback include plants/gardening, board games, book clubs, movie groups, massage therapy, and music/art therapy. As volunteers express an interest in becoming involved in developing special projects, Bonaventure House encourages them as long as the project is within budget.

BUDGET

The Polk Bros. Foundation supports the Bonaventure House volunteer program. This Chicago-based foundation funds organizations in the community that have a significant volunteer component. The foundation pays the salary and professional fees of the volunteer coordinator at the House, underwrites advertising for volunteers, and reimburses the costs of photocopying and mailing the monthly volunteer newsletter. Their sponsorship also supports appreciation events such as the annual awards dinner/brunch and volunteer picnic, and helps meet the expense of training materials and volunteer education.

CONCLUSION: THE FUTURE OF AIDS VOLUNTEERISM

This article has spoken of the successful elements of the volunteer program at Bonaventure House, but what are the obstacles and challenges?

A major problem is volunteer retention. Through informal feedback it is believed that many of its volunteers enjoy volunteering and feel appreciated for the work they do, but the number who drop out of the program is high. There is a need to focus more energy and time on retaining currently active volunteers. It has been taken for granted that because Bonaventure House is an ASO, volunteer turnover will be high. This assumption needs to be challenged.

Another obstacle is funding. Despite the generosity of sponsors, they cannot be expected to donate year after year. As non-profit organizations seek more funding from fewer donors, Bonaventure House must find less expensive but no less creative ways of funding the volunteer program.

A final challenge is staff relations. Staff should never expect volunteers to *do* their work, but instead expect *assistance*. Not only must volunteers be educated, trained, and supported, but also staff so they both can work effectively and collaboratively.

As was mentioned at the beginning of this article, training volunteers to work

with experiential diversity can be difficult. Bonaventure House has always had a culturally diverse client population, work force, and volunteer corps. Now that the client demographics are changing, there are great differences between the experiences of our clients and the experiences of our volunteers. Bonaventure House now provides housing and supportive services for people who have serious addiction problems and a history of chronic drug use. How can volunteers be better prepared for working with this population? How can training be improved to prepare volunteers for experiential diversity? These are challenging questions for the present and the future.

Recent improvements in AIDS treatment mean a greater life expectancy for people with AIDS. More people of color are impacted by the AIDS virus. The volunteer program at Bonaventure House and at other ASOs will need to evolve to address these two facts. Such an evolution will require an even more diverse volunteer corps trained to keep up with new treatments and their long-term effects. Even greater emphasis will have to be placed on on-going volunteer training and inservice enrichment. Sharing resources and knowledge with other care providers in the community would greatly enhance training.

Bonaventure House looks forward to the challenges ahead. One goal for the volunteer program is to become an increasingly stable anchor in the midst of change.

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The Journal welcomes letters from readers. Letters should be as brief as possible and must include writer's name, address, and telephone number. Those selected may be edited for length and clarity.

Mandated vs. Voluntary Service

To the Editor:

I am responding to Susan Ellis's suggestion in *Volunteerism-Specific Values: A Proposal for Discussion* (Winter 1996) that we "engage in serious thinking about the values of our profession."

I have a problem accepting volunteerism as "community service" when it is mandated by disciplinary orders from courts or is required for graduation by schools. Perhaps for some this "forced action" will become a genuine learning experience, but its association with volunteerism is degrading to an ethical philosophy that upholds the standards of true volunteerism.

Mandatory volunteerism is a requirement and/or retributive punishment. It should be referred to as mandatory community service to be carried out without pay at established agencies. It should not be considered an act of volunteerism.

As administrators of volunteer programs, I think we should communicate our feelings to our courts and schools when applying the ethical decision-making process. I would appreciate hearing how Susan Ellis feels about this issue.

Lucy A. McGowan, C.V.A.
Coordinator/Volunteer Services
Lake Oswego Public Library
Lake Oswego, Oregon

The author replies:

You raise a subject that has many ramifications and is hard to deal with quickly in a letter. However, as you are probably aware, many people have been debating this whole question now for several years.

Since you ask my own opinion about the question, let me tell you that I believe there is a big difference as to why people begin doing vol-unteer work and why they remain in volunteer work. It is true that badly run community service programs for students or for court-referred people do not do any favors to the volunteer community nor to the participants. But programs that allow such servers to have some choice as to where they fulfill their hours and how they do so are a new avenue for introducing a wider range of people to the possibilities of service. Early indications are definitely showing that many people who begin to do service because they were "made to," end up remaining in service for a long time after their preliminary hours and requirements are completed.

I also am not terribly distressed with making students do service. We make students do many things, including taking physical education and algebra. Not to be foolish about it, but if we can make decisions about what young people should learn, why not add active citizenship into the mix? Again, I believe that the potential danger of the whole idea is that the people running these programs at the local level may do a very bad job of it. This might include having only a few options available, allowing students to do busy work, etc. But a program that truly allows students to grow and learn while they serve is surely a useful form of education. I might also add that it may have the amazing side benefit of introducing boys to direct service work in a way that allows them to maintain the tradition when they become men.

I do believe that probably we should be trying to articulate what our professional values are in relation to mandated services versus truly voluntary service. I encourage others to give thought to this issue as well so that we can continue the dialogue on what our collective values should be in this area.

Susan J. Ellis
President
ENERGIZE, Inc.
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

THE JOURNAL
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VOLUNTEER
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GUIDELINES FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS

I. CONTENT

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

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

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

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

voluntarism: refers to anything voluntary in society, including religion; basically refers to *voluntary agencies* (with volunteer boards and private funding) that do not always involve volunteers.

If this distinction is still unclear, feel free to inquire further and we will attempt to categorize your article for you.

II. PROCEDURE

A. Author must send four (4) copies of the manuscript for review.

B. Manuscripts may be submitted at any time during the year. THE JOURNAL is published quarterly: *fall, winter, spring* and *summer.*

C. In addition to the four copies of the manuscript, author must send the following:

1. a one-paragraph biography of not more than 100 words, highlighting the author's background in volunteerism;

2. a cover letter authorizing THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION to publish the submitted article, if found acceptable;

3. an abstract of not more than 150 words;

4. mailing address(es) and telephone number(s) for each author credited;

5. indication of affiliation with AVA or other professional organization(s). This information has no impact on the blind review process and is used for publicity and statistical purposes only.

D. Articles will be reviewed by a panel of editorial reviewers. The author's name will be removed prior to review to ensure full impartiality.

1. Author will be notified in advance of publication of acceptance of the article. THE JOURNAL retains the right to edit all manuscripts for mechanics and consistency. Any need for extensive editing will be discussed with the author in advance. Published manuscripts will not be returned and will not be kept on file more than one year from publication.

2. If a manuscript is returned for revisions and the author subsequently rewrites the article, the second submission will be re-entered into the regular review process as a new article.

3. Authors will be asked to submit the final version of a publishable article on a 3½" high-density disk formatted in WordPerfect 5.2 for Windows.

E. Authors of published articles will receive two complimentary copies of the issue of THE JOURNAL carrying their article.

F. Copyright for all published articles is retained by the Association for Volunteer Administration and should be referenced when appropriate. Exceptions will be allowed only by prior arrangement with the editor-in-chief.

III. STYLE

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

B. Manuscripts should be typed, double-spaced, on 8½" x 11" paper.

C. Manuscripts should be submitted with a title page containing title and author and *which can be removed* for the blind review process. Author's name should not appear on the text pages, but the article title may be repeated (or a key word used) at the top of each text page.

D. Endnotes and acknowledgments should appear at the end of the manuscript, followed by references and/or a bibliography completed in an accepted form and style.

E. Author is advised to use non-sexist language. Pluralize or use "he/she."

F. *The Journal* prefers authors use language accessible to the lay reader.

G. First person articles may be acceptable, especially if the content of the article draws heavily upon the experiences of the author.

H. Author is encouraged to use interior headings to aid the reader in keeping up with a lengthy article. This means breaking up the text at logical intervals with introductory titles. Refer to issues of THE JOURNAL for sample headings.

I. Illustrations (photographs, artwork) will be used only in rare instances in which the illustrations are integral to the content of the article. Generally such artwork will not be accepted.

J. Figures and charts should be submitted only when absolutely necessary to the text of the manuscript.

K. General format for THE JOURNAL is in accordance with the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (4th ed.), American Psychological Association, Washington, DC, 1995.

IV. GUIDE TO PUBLISHING A TRAINING DESIGN

When submitting a training design for publication in *The Journal*, please structure your material in the following way:

ABSTRACT
TITLE OR NAME OF ACTIVITY
GROUP TYPE AND SIZE: This should be variable so that as many groups as possible can use the design. Optimum group size can be emphasized or ways to adapt the design to various group sizes can be described.
LEARNING OBJECTIVES: One or more sentences specifying the objectives of the activity.
TIME REQUIRED: Approximate time frame.
MATERIALS: List all materials including props, handouts, flip charts, magic markers, and audio-visual equipment.
PHYSICAL SETTING: Room size, furniture arrangement, number of rooms, etc.
PROCESS: Describe *in detail* the progression of the activity, including sequencing of time periods. Use numbered steps or narrative, but clarify the role of the trainer at each step. Specify instructions to be given to trainees. Include a complete script of lecturettes plus details of the *processing* of the activity, evaluation, and application. If there are handouts, include these as appendix items.
VARIATIONS: If other ways of conducting the design are applicable, describe briefly.

If possible, include references showing other available resources.

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION welcomes your interest in our publication. We are ready and willing to work collaboratively with authors to produce the best possible articles. If your work is not accepted on the first try, we encourage you to rewrite your manuscript and resubmit.

Further questions may be directed in writing to the editor-in-chief at the Association for Volunteer Administration or via E-mail (avajournal@aol.com).

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