

THE JOURNAL OF VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

1 EDITORIAL

2 ABSTRACTS

FEATURE ARTICLES

- 4 Volunteer Administrators' Perceptions of the Importance of and their Current Levels of Competence with Selected Volunteer Management Competencies
R. Dale Safrit, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, North Carolina
Ryan J. Schmiesing, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
- 11 Managing and Being Managed: The Experience of Paid Staff and Volunteers in Health and Social Care Voluntary Groups
Pádraig Mac Neela, National University of Ireland, Galway, Ireland
- 15 Corporate Employee Volunteer Programs: Considering the Interests of Multiple Stakeholders
William A. Brown and Robert F. Ashcraft, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona
- 20 Volunteerism and Community Development: A Comparison of Factors Shaping Volunteer Behavior in Irish and American Communities
Mark A. Brennan, The University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida
- 28 London Nightline—Review of Volunteers 2003-04
Emma Johnston, Guy's, King's and St. Thomas' Medical School, London, England

COMMENTARY

- 35 Untapped Potential: Working with our Corporate and Development Colleagues
Liz Adamschick, Columbus, Ohio
- 38 The Advocacy Arena: Who Shall Lead Us?
Ronald J. Stupak, Bethesda, Maryland
- 42 Next Door to the CEO: Where the Volunteer Administrator Belongs
Nick Levinson, New York, New York



ASSOCIATION FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

The Association for Volunteer Administration, an international membership organization, enhances the competence of its members and strengthens the profession of volunteer resources management. Members include directors of volunteer resources in a wide variety of settings, agency executives, association officers, educators, researchers, consultants, students—anyone who shares a commitment to the effective utilization of volunteers.

Membership in AVA is open to salaried and non-salaried persons in all types of public, nonprofit, and for-profit settings who choose to join with AVA to promote and support effective leadership in volunteerism.

AVA is an association run by its members. Active committees include Professional Credentialing, Ethics, Fund Development, Organizational Relations, Communications, Member Services, and Network Development. Members also plan the annual International Conference on Volunteer Administration, a major event held each year in a different city in the United States or Canada. This conference provides participants the opportunity to share common concerns and to focus on issues of importance to professionalism in volunteer administration.

Two major services that AVA provides, both for its members and for the field at large, are a professional credentialing program and an educational endorsement program. Through the process that recognizes leaders of volunteer programs who demonstrate professional performance standards, AVA furthers respect for and appreciation of the profession of volunteer administration. Similarly, AVA educational endorsement is given to those workshops, courses, conferences, and training events that provide opportunities for professional growth in volunteer resource management.

Finally, AVA produces publications including informational newsletters and booklets and *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*.

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EDITORIAL

*Perception: The art of perceiving; observation, awareness, appreciation, discernment.
Merriam-Webster's Collegiate Dictionary*

Articles in this issue of *The Journal* range from the identification of professional competencies for managers of volunteers to an article that outlines ten fundamental anchors for advocacy leadership. The research explores perceptions of volunteer administrators, paid staff, corporate volunteers, community volunteers, and student volunteers.

The first two articles were presented at the 2004 International Conference For Volunteer Administration (ICVA). Safrit and Schmiesing surveyed volunteer administrators to explore their perceptions of competencies deemed important for professional volunteer administrators. This is part of our ongoing study to identify core competencies for managers of contemporary volunteer programs. The study invited managers of volunteers to rate their personal level of expertise for each competency. Mac Neela, one of two international authors in this issue, studied the diminishing role of volunteers in organizations where state funding increased, leading to greater emphasis on the role of paid staff rather than volunteers to provide quality services, and the resulting volunteer-staff tensions.

Brown and Ashcroft explore the practices of corporate volunteer programs and highlight the importance of demonstrating for corporate partners the impact their employees' service has had in transforming lives and the community. Brennan explored motivations and characteristics of volunteers working in community development in an Irish and a U.S. community. While there were considerable similarities, the study emphasizes the importance of social interaction as a key for advancing volunteer efforts.

The final research article was accepted for ICVA 2004, but the author was unable to travel from London for the conference. Johnson's survey of student volunteers at a telephone hotline provides interesting insights about why students volunteer and what they perceive as personal gains from their volunteer experience.

The three commentaries offer diverse challenges to managers of volunteers. Adamshick discusses the wisdom of and ideas for building strategic partnerships with corporate and development colleagues. Stupak offers specific actions for building advocacy organizations that lead and empower rather than manage and direct workers and volunteers. Levison advocates for executive power for volunteer administrators coupled with strong CEO leadership to overcome staff reluctance and build effective volunteer programs.

Mary V. Merrill
Editor

Feature Articles

- ***Volunteer Administrators' Perceptions of the Importance of and their Current Levels of Competence with Selected Volunteer Management Competencies***
R. Dale Safrit, North Carolina State University, Raleigh, North Carolina
Ryan J. Schmiesing, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio
 The purpose of this research was to investigate volunteer administrators' perceptions of the importance of and their current level of competence with 140 individual volunteer management competencies comprising nine major constructs. The researchers collected data from current AVA members using a mailed survey. Respondents indicated that all nine volunteer management constructs were important to them, yet rated corresponding levels of competence for each construct at lower levels than importance. Specific constructs with the lowest mean scores for current level of competence included "Program evaluation, impact, and accountability," and "Serving as an internal consultant." Both constructs are critical to the continued success of volunteer organizations, as well as the continued growth of the volunteer administration profession.
- ***Managing and Being Managed: The Experience of Paid Staff and Volunteers in Health and Social Care Voluntary Groups***
Pádraig Mac Neela, National University of Ireland, Galway, Ireland
 As they grow and mature, nonprofit organizations in the health and social care sector experience dilemmas regarding the deployment of the volunteer resource. The introduction of (a) paid staff, and (b) commitments to service provision requires a critical examination of the relationship between the organization and the volunteer. Interviews were carried out with 35 volunteers and paid staff. Analysis yielded two key themes: the values framework within which volunteers and paid staff work, and the impact of organizational practices on volunteer experiences. These themes are examined to identify how organizations resolve dilemmas in the management of the volunteer resource.
- ***Corporate Employee Volunteer Programs: Considering the Interests of Multiple Stakeholders***
William A. Brown and Robert F. Ashcraft, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona
 Corporate employee volunteer programs are administered to achieve many objectives, such as improved organizational reputation, employee training, and the serving of community needs. This paper presents research into the practices of corporate volunteer programs in Phoenix, Arizona, and considers how different stakeholder groups influence program activities. Results indicate that program administrators assume primary responsibility for running the programs fairly independent of employees or community members. They desire improved public recognition for their programs, but lack consistent practices to encourage promotion. Primarily the programs are operated to encourage employee participation, and the number of hours donated is the most consistent indicator of success. Implications provide guidance for how nonprofit volunteer coordinators can work with employee volunteer programs.
- ***Volunteerism and Community Development: A Comparison of Factors Shaping Volunteer Behavior in Irish and American Communities***
Mark A. Brennan, The University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida
 Individual volunteer efforts and voluntary organizations serve to meet a wide variety of community needs, and significantly contribute to local quality of life. This is particularly true in the rural communities of Ireland and Pennsylvania. This international comparative study was designed to assess factors shaping volunteerism in both locations. A mixed methods framework was used that included extensive key informant interviews and household survey data. Important differences were noted in the communities studied. In Ireland, sociodemographic characteristics and volunteer motivations largely shaped volunteerism. In America, social interaction variables alone shaped volunteer decisions. In both locations, the social interaction variables were the strongest predictor of voluntary behavior. From these findings, implications for future research and policy are presented.

- ***London Nightline—Review of Volunteers 2003-04***

Emma Johnston, Guy's, King's and St. Thomas' Medical School, London, England

This research investigates what prompts a wide variety of students, studying at different colleges throughout the University of London, to volunteer for London Nightline. Nightline is a registered charity run by students for students, which offers listening, support and information via a telephone helpline. Forty-four percent of the 2003-04 London Nightline volunteers completed a questionnaire asking about all aspects of their experience volunteering. The results indicated that students volunteered for a variety of different reasons, many have changed their future or career plans as a result and that the training and support networks operating within the organisation are appropriate.

- ***Untapped Potential: Working with our Corporate and Development Colleagues***

Liz Adamschick, Columbus, Ohio

Establishing effective collaborative relationships with corporate and non-profit development professionals is essential for the successful volunteer program. Such relationships keep the volunteer program manager in touch with current trends and patterns specific to corporate philanthropy and volunteerism, and offer myriad creative ways of engaging these community resources. The result is a volunteer program that is responsive, contemporary, and better positioned to support the fulfillment of the organization's mission.

- ***The Advocacy Arena: Who Shall Lead Us?***

Ronald J. Stupak, Bethesda, Maryland

Without effective advocacy leaders, our nonprofit organizations will enter the future buffeted by a lack of allies, prodded by brutish economics, and worst of all, cease to be the providers of hope, services, policies, volunteerism, and visions needed by our respective constituents. Therefore, it is Stupak's contention that if one masters the interdependent leadership axioms cited in this article, as well as using some of the highlighted action lessons learned, the ultimate outcome to the external world will be advocacy organizations that are second to none. Furthermore, internally, a shift from managing and directing to leading and empowering will galvanize full-time co-workers and committed volunteers to be proactively and symbolically engaged in organizations that they are proud to support, to own, and to celebrate.

- ***Next Door to the CEO***

Nick Levinson, New York, New York

How effective a volunteer administrator will be depends on what the CEO expects of everyone in the non-profit. One problem is that, despite claims to the contrary, low expectations are the norm. A symptom is that the volunteer administrator usually suffers low rank, only slightly above that of most of the volunteers. The CEO must demand more from paid staff. The volunteer administrator needs executive power to order most staff and managers to add major tasks, and has to offer capable volunteers to meet the new demand.

Volunteer Administrators' Perceptions of the Importance of and their Current Levels of Competence with Selected Volunteer Management Competencies

R. Dale Safrit, North Carolina State University, Raleigh
 Ryan J. Schmiesing, Ohio State University, Columbus

The volunteer administration profession has evolved as contemporary society continues to change. This evolutionary growth has required volunteer administrators to develop new management strategies to meet the current and emerging community needs that may be addressed through volunteerism. As the volunteer administration profession has evolved, so have the interests of managers of volunteers in ensuring that they have the necessary personnel management and technical skills to be successful in their positions (Fisher & Cole, 1993).

Since the early 1970s, authors, researchers, and practitioners have proposed numerous volunteer management models that address competencies necessary for managers to successfully implement and administer volunteer programs. The earliest volunteer management literature presented either highly conceptual or very pragmatic perspectives regarding the components of managing volunteers. Boyce (1971) presented one of the very first comprehensive models of volunteer management that remains a basis for the profession today. His systematic I.S.O.T.U.R.E. approach to volunteer leader development suggested seven subcategories inherent in volunteer management: identification, selection, orientation, training, utilization, recognition, and evaluation.

Using Boyce's conceptual model more than two decades later, Safrit, Smith and Cutler (1994) developed B.L.A.S.T.: Building Leadership and Skills Together, a volunteer management curriculum targeted toward 4-H Youth Development professionals.

Other authors recognized that volunteer management approaches had to expand beyond a focus upon the individual volunteer to address organizational systems as well. Developing a volunteer management model based on best practices, Wilson (1976) focused upon the critical practical roles of salaried managers of volunteers, including motivating volunteers; establishing a positive organizational climate for volunteer involvement; planning and evaluating volunteer programs; developing volunteer job descriptions; recruiting, interviewing and placing volunteers; and effective communications. Another pragmatic approach, proposed by MacKenzie and Moore (1993), identified fundamental management principles and practices formatted into worksheets to assist the day-to-day manager of volunteers.

Ellis (1981) identified components of volunteer management by proposing professional, administrative approaches to volunteer management. Navarre (1989) approached volunteer management from a staff manage-

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Ryan J. Schmiesing is an Assistant Professor in the Department of Extension at The Ohio State University, where he provides leadership to volunteer development and expanded youth programs. A former county volunteer administrator, he received his doctorate in Human and Community Resource Development at The Ohio State University. His master's research investigated volunteer risk management policies and procedures utilized by national youth serving organizations.

ment focus in grassroots volunteer organizations. Navarre's focus included the importance of having written job descriptions; recruiting, interviewing, orienting, and training new volunteers; and volunteer supervision, evaluation, and motivation. Approaching volunteer management in a very similar manner, Stepputat (1995) identified ten overarching categories that were necessary for successful volunteer management, including recruitment; screening; orientation and training; placement; supervision and evaluation; recognition; retention; record keeping; evaluation; and advocacy and education. Brudney (1990) identified practical components for public agencies to implement in order to mobilize volunteers for public service in communities.

From a purely conceptual approach, several authors have developed volunteer management models within the context of the United States Cooperative Extension System. Kwarteng, Smith and Miller (1988) identified eight conceptual components to volunteer administration: planning volunteer programs; clarifying volunteer tasks; and the recruitment, orientation, training, support, maintenance, recognition and evaluation of actual volunteers. Penrod's (1991) L.O.O.P. model suggested the following conceptual components of volunteer management: locating and orientating volunteers, operating volunteer programs, and perpetuating volunteer involvement. Most recently, Culp, Deppe, Castillo, and Wells' (1998) G.E.M.S. model built upon and reorganized the earlier works of Penrod and Kwarteng et al. by organizing components of volunteer administration into four primary categories: Generating, Educating, Mobilizing, and Sustaining volunteers.

In recent years, researchers have increased their investigation of the level of importance and perceived competence with selected volunteer management components and sought to further clarify necessary core competencies. Harshfield (1995) investigated the perceived importance of selected volunteer management components in western U.S. schools, while King and Safrit (1998) did likewise for Ohio 4-H Youth Development agents. Collins (2001) conducted a similar study (using the

questionnaire developed by King and Safrit) to investigate Michigan 4-H Youth Development agents' perceptions of the importance of and competence with selected volunteer management components. Again based upon the same instrument, Hange, Seevers, and Van Leeuwen (2002) investigated the perceptions of 4-H agents across the United States regarding competence levels with selected volunteer management functions. Most recently, Boyd (2004) conducted a nationwide Delphi study to identify competencies required by Cooperative Extension professionals managing volunteers in the next decade.

While all of the previously identified volunteer management models and studies have contributed positively to the volunteer administration profession, rigorous research is needed in order to develop a holistic perspective of contemporary volunteer management not restricted to a single geographic region, or specific volunteer organization or program. Such applied research could serve as the foundation for developing a holistic, unifying model of contemporary volunteer management in a profession that continues to change rapidly even today.

PURPOSE AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this descriptive research was to investigate contemporary volunteer administrators' perceptions of the importance of and their current level of competence with selected volunteer management competencies. The researchers used Safrit and Schmiesing's (2004) qualitative research as the basis for identifying 140 individual contemporary volunteer management competencies encompassing nine holistic components (i.e., constructs) of volunteer management organized into three overarching categories. The three categories and nine constructs include Category I: Personal Preparation (three constructs): 1. Personal and Professional Development, 2. Serving as an Internal Consultant, and 3. Program Planning; Category II: Volunteer Engagement (four constructs): 4. Recruitment, 5. Selection, 6. Orientation and Training, and 7. Coaching and Supervision; and Category III: Program Perpetuation (two constructs): 8. Recognition, and 9. Pro-

gram Evaluation, Impact and Accountability.

The population for the study was the 2,057 individual members of the Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) as of July 1, 2004. The population included 1,889 AVA members from the United States, 98 from Canada, and 70 from other countries. The researchers utilized a census and mailed survey to collect data. The survey was organized into two sections. Section I investigated respondents' perceptions of the importance of, and their current competence with, the 140 individual volunteer management competencies. Section II collected data describing respondents' selected personallogical traits including gender, age, race/ethnicity, highest level of formal education attained, years in current position, type of agency/organization in which the respondent works, and current status as a member of a local Directors Of Volunteers In Agencies (DOVIA) professional association.

The researchers piloted the survey with members of the South Carolina Association of Volunteer Administration (SC AVA) to establish the survey's internal consistency as an indicator of reliability. Resulting Cronbach alphas for individual constructs ranged from .73 to .93 for "importance," and .78 to .95 for "competence." Since all values were greater than .70, the researchers determined the survey to be reliable (Stevens, 1992).

The researchers submitted an application to the administrative office of AVA requesting the Association's approval of and support for the study, and the AVA director for marketing and membership supplied the researchers with pre-printed mailing labels for AVA members. The survey, along with a cover letter and self-addressed return envelope (that was postage prepaid for U.S. participants), was mailed to participants August 20 to 23, 2004, with a requested return date of September 1. On September 8, the AVA office manager e-mailed a personalized message to all members encouraging them to participate and respond by September 15. The e-mail resulted in 23 current members contacting the researchers indicating that they had not received a survey packet. (Of the 23, 14 had only recently joined AVA and had not been

included in the original mailing labels.) To facilitate these members' participation in the study, the researchers e-mailed the questionnaire to these individuals as a Word file attachment, requesting that they fax their completed questionnaire to the researchers by the final response deadline. The AVA office manager sent a second and final personalized e-mail reminder to all members on September 10.

As of September 15th, 538 completed questionnaires had been returned (including 14 returned by the U.S. Postal Service marked "undeliverable" and two that were indecipherable) resulting in 522 usable questionnaires and a final response rate of 26% (Wiseman, 2003). The researchers calculated appropriate correlation coefficients comparing responses from early and late respondents and found no statistical differences between the two groups. The researchers surveyed 150 randomly selected non-respondents to compare their responses with those received by the September 15 deadline (Linder & Wingenbach, 2002; Miller & Smith, 1983) and found no statistical differences among early respondents, on-time respondents, and non-respondents for either personallogical traits or the research variables. The researchers analyzed the data using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 12.0, calculating appropriate descriptive statistics to satisfy the research objectives.

FINDINGS

The typical respondent was a white (92%) female (88%) with a mean age of 49.0 years. She had a Bachelors degree (45%) and had been in her current position in a health or mental health organization (24%) for 6.9 years. (An additional 30% of respondents had a Masters degree.) Fifty-eight percent of respondents had been employed five years or less in their current position, while 55% of all respondents indicated they were current members of a local DOVIA professional organization.

Mean scores (Table 1) describing respondents' attitudes regarding the level of importance for the nine volunteer management constructs ranged from 3.31 ("Serving as an

internal consultant”) to 3.51 (for both “Recognition” and “Program planning”). Likewise, mean scores describing respondents’ perceptions of their current level of competence with the nine volunteer management constructs (Table 1) ranged from 2.90 (“Evaluation, impact and accountability”) to 3.30 (“Recognition”).

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

In regards to level of importance, respondents rated each of the nine volunteer management constructs as 3.31 or greater, indicating that the constructs are important in the daily management of volunteers. The nine constructs investigated in the study are comparable to the 14 certification categories identified by AVA (2004) for content of its Certified Volunteer Administrator (CVA) credentialing process as well as the volunteer management constructs identified by King and Safrit (1998); Collins (2001); Hange, Seevers, and VanLeeuwen (2002); and Boyd (2004.)

However, none of the nine constructs was rated by respondents greater than 3.30 in terms of current level of competence. This holistic finding in itself suggests a significant reality gap between “what is” (i.e., current competence) and “what should be” (i.e., level of importance) that provides a framework for professional development opportunities for AVA members. Historically, professional development opportunities and initiatives have been focused upon survival skills needed for individuals new to the field, largely resulting from the enormous and ongoing turnover in the profession. However, regardless of professional tenure or position longevity, continuing professional education programs for volunteer administrators should focus on the nine volunteer management constructs both individually and holistically. Too often, volunteer administration workshops and conferences, DOVIA meeting programs, certification and credentialing initiatives, and formal post-secondary courses are structured to focus upon one or more of the respective individual components while failing to provide a comprehensive, holistic fundamental understanding of the profession.

Four of the five highest rated volunteer management constructs for both level of importance and current level of competence (“Program planning” and “Recognition”: both $x = 3.51$, “Orientation and training”: $x = 3.49$, and “Recruitment”: $x = 3.45$) have each been traditional foundations of the volunteer management profession since its earliest days (Boyce, 1971; Ellis, 1981; Navarre, 1989; Wilson, 1976). These critical constructs are fundamental to the profession, and entail the core knowledge and skills necessary to plan for, locate, engage, and support individuals in meaningful volunteer roles. However, in today’s ever changing social and organizational climates, basic competence in these constructs alone is no longer adequate in creating sustained contemporary systems and communities of volunteers.

In terms of level of importance, the lowest rated construct of “Serving as an internal consultant” ($x = 3.31$) has been emphasized as an integral component of contemporary volunteer management only within the past

TABLE 1
Mean Scores Describing Volunteer Administrators’ Perceptions of the Importance of, and Their Current Level of Competence with, Nine Volunteer Management Constructs (N = 522)

Volunteer Management	Mean (s.d.) Construct	
	Level of Importance	Current Competence With
Personal Preparation		
Personal & professional development	3.48 (.38)	3.14 (.46)
Serving as an internal consultant	3.31 (.40)	2.98 (.48)
Program planning	3.51 (.35)	3.15 (.47)
Volunteer Engagement		
Recruitment	3.45 (.39)	3.08 (.49)
Selection	3.33 (.40)	3.06 (.49)
Orientation & training	3.49 (.42)	3.18 (.51)
Coaching & supervision	3.43 (.38)	3.08 (.47)
Program Perpetuation		
Recognition	3.51 (.33)	3.30 (.44)
Program evaluation, impact & accountability	3.35 (.42)	2.90 (.51)

several years. Bradner (1999) identified "Advocacy" and "Consulting" as new skills for volunteer administrators in the AVA publication, *Portrait of a Profession: Volunteer Administration*. The current AVA Web site (2004) identifies the core content of the current credentialing program for volunteer administrators to become Certified Volunteer Administrators based on an earlier 2004 Practice Analysis copyrighted by AVA. Included in the domain of Professional Principles are three sub-categories: Professional Ethics, Professional Development, and Advocacy. Included within the Advocacy category are specific competencies focused upon advocacy for the volunteer organization and volunteer-based programs.

The second-lowest rated construct of "Selection" ($x = 3.33$) has received increased scrutiny and attention in the past decade. Professionally, volunteer selection as a management component has moved steadily away from a traditional open-door acceptance approach to more highly structured targeted selection processes involving specific selection strategies (Loar, 1994; Patterson, Rypkema, & Tremper, 1994; Schmiesing & Henderson, 2000) and policy development (Graff, 2002). However, the authors suggest that with the ever increasing numbers of new volunteer programs and organizations targeted toward vulnerable populations (e.g., youth, the elderly, and uniquely-abled individuals), volunteer selection as a core competency will continue to evolve and increase in level of importance.

The researchers were not surprised that "Program evaluation, impact, and accountability" received the lowest mean score ($x = 2.90$) for current level of competence. In the past five years the profession of volunteer administration has placed enormous emphasis on the need and methods to evaluate program impacts upon organizational clientele served by volunteers (Rabiner, Scheffler, Koetse, Palermo, Ponzi, Burt, & Hampton, 2003; Rehnberg & DeSpain, 2003; Safrit & Merrill, 1998, 2000; Safrit, Schmiesing, King, Villard, & Wells, 2003; Singletary, Smith, & Hill, 2003). More than ever before in the history of formal volunteerism as well as the profession of volunteer administration,

there is a critical need (some would argue, mandate) for volunteer administrators to be competent in measuring the differences the programs they manage make in clientele's lives, and to communicate those differences to the clientele themselves, program staff and volunteers, organizational decision makers, funders, the general public and professional peers. Indeed, for a volunteer program to be merely assumed successful is no longer acceptable; to be documented successful yet silently effective in sharing a program's successes is no longer adequate. The continued success and existence of individual volunteer programs and their sponsoring agencies, as well as the continued growth and evolution of the volunteer administration profession, depends largely upon each individual volunteer administrator's competence in evaluating the impact of volunteer programs s/he manages, and being accountable for those impacts.

The construct which respondents rated the second lowest in terms of current competence was "Serving as an internal consultant" ($x = 2.98$). As early as 1976, Naylor suggested that "We need professionals, not mere technicians, people with wide and forward vision, to coordinate otherwise unrelated factors into a functioning administrative whole" (p. 48). Almost 20 years later, Stepputat (1995) recognized "... the critical need to increase the numbers of professional volunteer administrators who are able to serve as a link between the needs of an organization or agency and the skills and availability of the volunteers" (p. 158). Almost another decade later, the Association for Volunteer Administration (2004, September) still emphasizes emphatically the critical need for volunteer administrators not only to be adept at managing volunteers, but also to be recognized as advocates and internal resources for volunteer resource management within the overall sponsoring agency. The authors suggest that the single most critical conclusion resulting from this study is the discerned need for effective and focused system-wide professional development initiatives to assist volunteer administrators, both tenured and new to the profession, in understanding, embracing, and

modeling this critical core competency.

Based upon the current study, the researchers have been contacted by leaders of DOVIA groups in the United States, Canada, and Australia requesting to replicate the study with the DOVIA's entire membership, the majority of which are not currently members of AVA. The expanded database would allow the researchers to compare and contrast this study's data with that collected from additional managers of volunteers in diverse cultural contexts. The resulting findings would provide an even stronger and more valid snapshot of the requisite volunteer management competencies required to effectively and efficiently identify, select, support and sustain volunteers in contemporary programs and organizations around the world. The ultimate goal is not merely a unifying model for contemporary volunteer administration, but rather a rededication to the fundamental knowledge, attitudes, skills and aspirations that comprise our profession.

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Managing and Being Managed: The Experience of Paid Staff and Volunteers in Health and Social Care Voluntary Groups

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Health and social care voluntary organizations provide vital services to vulnerable client groups in Ireland (National Committee on Volunteering, 2002). This reflects a feature of the Irish voluntary sector, where service needs have often been identified and responded to by local communities. Since the 1960s, new voluntary organizations have generally been founded by volunteers who share common values or practical needs. Beginning with an all-volunteer effort, many continue to rely on volunteers to provide services or to complement the work of paid staff (Donoghue, Anheier & Salamon, 1999).

Yet Ireland's socioeconomic fabric is changing rapidly. High rates of economic growth in the past decade (the so-called Celtic Tiger economy) have resulted in very large increases in rates of personal consumption and government expenditure (Central Statistics Office, 2004). Changes in external conditions, such as these, can be expected to have an impact on the voluntary sector.

Nonprofit groups face many challenges as they develop through the organizational life cycle. These can be thought of as dilemmas, often associated with increased provision of services and relationships with funders, which potentially disrupt the status quo regarding volunteers' contributions to the organization. This paper explores how managers and volunteers respond to changing circumstances, critically reflecting on the relationship between volunteers and the organizations with which they work.

Psychological models of volunteering assume that volunteers wish to achieve goals through their work, including values expression, improved skills, increased understanding

and self-esteem (Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Volunteer managers face the challenge of providing conditions that enable these goals to be met. Management is challenging in the sometimes "complex and messy" environment of nonprofit organizations (Hudson, 1995, p. 15). Volunteer management, described as "... the most frequently overlooked building block in the infrastructure of volunteer-involving organizations" (Voluntary Sector National Training Organization, 2004, p. iv; Ruddle & Donoghue, 1995), often lacks required resources. In addition, volunteers and paid staff may differ in their views on issues such as regulation, accountability and professionalism (Pearce, 1993).

METHOD

A qualitative research design was used to examine the experiences of volunteers and paid staff in a sample of Irish voluntary groups providing health or social care services. Analysing the views of both groups at the same time is a useful means of understanding both perspectives (Merrell & Williams, 1999). Individual, semi-structured interviews were held with 26 volunteers and 9 paid staff at 8 health and social care nonprofit organizations in Ireland, as part of a broader study of volunteering.

Organizations were chosen on a convenience basis. They represented a cross-section of mental health and crisis intervention and social services organizations, addressing issues such as intellectual disability, homelessness, children living on the street, mental health issues, sexual violence and terminal illness. Organizations varied in their number of volunteers (30 to over 300), paid staff (3 to over

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600), time period since foundation (between 5 and nearly 50 years), and configuration at the local, regional or national level.

Separate interview schedules were drawn up for use with volunteers and paid staff. The median length of interviews was approximately 40 minutes. Audiotapes were transcribed and thematically analysed. Paid staff selected for interview were volunteer coordinators/supervisors (n=5) or senior managers, e.g., Director, CEO (n=4). Two of the organizations were taking part in a research case study, and 8 volunteers were convenience-sampled for interview from each one. The remainder of the volunteers interviewed were randomly selected from respondents to a quantitative survey (n=444).

FINDINGS

Volunteers in the participating organizations fulfilled several roles. They contributed directly to services in 7 of the 8 groups, although in most cases the main human resource consisted of paid staff. Volunteers also made indirect contributions through activities such as fundraising and membership on a volunteer Board of Management. Two primary themes were identified in the interview transcripts, related to organizational values and volunteer management.

Voluntarism and the Professional Organization

Voluntarism was a continuing influence on organizational culture, and described in terms of energy, idealism, drive, and flexibility. Voluntarism was also associated with informality, which contrasted with the professional management language used by some managers (e.g., "We each have a work book and we're working through what's the mission of the committee ... What is the goal? ... Who is the primary customer?")

Managers generally felt that adopting a professional management approach was a rational response to organizational pressures and external events. Increasing size and complexity required professionalism. Service users also expected a more professionalized approach than in the past. State funding was more freely available than previously, but

managers had to adapt to the demands posed by this funding model ("It's an entrepreneurial, from-the-ground-up, voluntary organization. ... It has met the great big juggernaut of State funding.")

These pressures provoked changes in organizational values, such as a greater concern with "maintenance than mission." In the resulting climate, managers could see volunteer input as problematic (e.g., "We can't actually tell people what to do if they are volunteers ... The service can be more unpredictable with volunteers.") The aim of providing more extensive services was often seen as more important than the need to maintain the involvement of volunteers. There were some counterexamples to this trend. Some groups were committed to continued volunteer involvement, despite the restrictions to growth that may be entailed.

The prevailing view in larger organizations was that any reliance on volunteering input would be discontinued as state funding increased. This implies a view in which volunteers make up for shortfalls in resources, rather than a commitment to the volunteer ethos. The advantages of paid workers were emphasised by managers in larger groups (e.g., "When you have staff you have systems in place, there is going to be a good consistency of service ... It will make the organization much more bureaucratic and structured." However, volunteers in direct service work wished to continue in their role, seeing the option of fundraising as unsatisfactory.

Management Practices and Volunteers' Experiences

Volunteers needed to experience rewards in return for their time, expertise or other resources (e.g., "You don't stay with a voluntary organization that long if there is not a reward, ... something in it for you.") A relationship of equity and mutual benefit requires appropriate and supportive management supervision. Appropriate supports and structures could alleviate the pressure of the work itself. The traditional approach to supporting volunteers was generally informal; one volunteer said that "they wouldn't have had any support and they would have just got

kind of burnt-out.” One manager saw structured training as undermining the informality of the volunteer experience, but most took a more formal perspective:

We put together a programme that we’re going to adhere to, say, for three months... concentrate our efforts on *a, b, c* and *d* and then we’re going to come back in three months and evaluate the effectiveness of that.

Acknowledgement and respect within the organization were viewed as important by volunteers, with value attached to comparatively minor symbols of status (“I certainly have felt that as a volunteer you’re perhaps less than valued. ... to the extent that someone once said to me the car park is not for volunteers.”)

Volunteers serving on Boards of Management contributed at a different level to direct care and fundraising volunteers. Volunteer Board members were recruited for their organizational experience, skills and social capital (e.g., “They look for someone with already some existing skills. ... I was head hunted.”) Representation on the management board and other committees allowed volunteers to exercise organizational leadership, and conferred status. This was an important strategic role given reduced volunteer input elsewhere. Working with volunteer Boards had the potential to cause frustration among paid managers. Several Boards took an interest in direct management functions such as recruitment and staff issues in addition to organizational strategy.

DISCUSSION

Volunteering can yield benefits for volunteers, service users and organizations. Volunteers wished to achieve particular goals through their work, as predicted by functional theory (e.g., Omoto & Snyder, 1995). Effective volunteer management supports volunteers in this aim, through appropriate management systems and motivation strategies such as acknowledging volunteers’ contributions.

Examining the study findings in more detail revealed ambivalent attitudes toward volunteering. Paid staff evaluated the volunteer ethos positively, but often associated volunteering input with problems in consistency and quality (a dual attitude among staff). Paid staff often viewed volunteering as in decline, whereas volunteers tended to see it as an essential resource (a dual attitude between different groups in the organization). Some groups had decided to rely mostly on volunteers, but others had moved toward a paid staff workforce (different views between organizations). In general, the need for strengthened internal systems for managing volunteers was apparent in this study, reflecting international findings (e.g., Urban Institute, 2004).

All of the nonprofit groups faced dilemmas in the current or planned deployment of volunteers. Responses varied according to an organization’s size and age. Older groups, aiming to provide services on a large scale, planned to use state funding to reduce or eliminate volunteers from direct care. Several smaller groups took a different approach, supporting direct care volunteers through an intensive and systematic management style.

There was little evidence of dialogue between volunteers and managers about these issues, raising the potential for misunderstanding and conflict. A mutually beneficial move forward would be to identify, articulate and work through organizational dilemmas and value conflicts. Several methods are available to assist in this, such as the critical management perspective (Voronov & Coleman, 2003) and the process of organizational analysis (Francescato & Tomai, 2001).

CONCLUSION

The study used a convenience sample of organizations, with further work required to investigate the robustness of the findings across the voluntary sector. Nonetheless, a general need to foster communication was reflected in the lack of strategic discussion and debate on the appropriate role and function of volunteering. As a general principle, volunteers and paid staff thought of volunteering in positive terms. But large organiza-

tions tended to focus on the development of a paid staff workforce, with comparatively little attention given to strengthened volunteer management. The reduction or removal of volunteer input to direct services could result in several losses, some direct (e.g., volunteers as a human resource) and others indirect (e.g., volunteers as a link with local communities). While funding levels may make these losses tolerable at present, it is a risky policy given the uncertainty of the future funding environment.

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Corporate Employee Volunteer Programs: Considering the Interests of Multiple Stakeholders

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Employee volunteer programs are one aspect of a corporation's community involvement and social responsibility initiatives. For many organizations, employee volunteer programs are positioned within broader strategic initiatives that have multiple objectives. These include enhancing the corporate license to operate, improving customer relations and attraction, building a stronger corporate culture, retaining employees, and enhancing the organization's public image and reputation (Dowling, 2001; Rochin & Christoff, 2000; Waddock, Bodwell, & Graves, 2002). Acknowledging these lofty and ambitious goals helps community organizations and volunteer coordinators understand how they might benefit from the opportunities posed by employee volunteer programs.

This paper will consider how different stakeholder groups influence the administration and implementation of employee volunteer programs. Three primary groups or interests are reflected in the potential reasons why corporations operate employee volunteer programs (Snyder & Jimmerson, 1988-89). First are the business interests, such as improved public image and reputation, which might serve to attract customers and potential employees. Second are the employees themselves. Employees have mixed motivations for engaging in corporate volunteer programs: not only do they have pragmatic career objectives such as enhancing opportunities for career advancement and skill building, but they also join these programs as an opportunity to give back to the community. As well, corporations also want to express a commitment to their communities. Nonprofits and community members represent the third constituency group. These three groups have dif-

ferent interests in the employee volunteer programs, and consequently may attempt to exert control over how these programs are operated. The consideration of stakeholder interests will begin to explain how these programs operate and help community volunteer coordinators access these programs more effectively (Brammer & Millington, 2003).

METHODS/PARTICIPANTS

A survey, developed by Benjamin (2001), was distributed to 45 members of the Phoenix area Corporate Volunteer Council. Thirteen individuals participated in the survey. Respondents represented a broad range of industries including health care, manufacturing, and insurance. Nearly 70% of the employee volunteer programs had begun in the period since 1990, while 15% had started prior to 1981. The organizations ranged considerably in size, with 23% (n=3) of the organizations having less than 500 employees, and 23% (n=3) having 5000 or more. Seven of the organizations were national, two were regional, and four were local.

RESULTS

The survey covered a range of questions related to program development, administration, services provided, evaluation strategies, and reporting mechanisms. The analysis will draw upon the three stakeholder perspectives to demonstrate how their interests are represented in corporate employee volunteer programs.

How are the business interests of the corporation reflected in the community volunteer program?

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Business interests are revealed by investigating where the programs are operated, and what administrative controls are used to guide program decisions. Phoenix area organizations are most likely to operate their corporate employee volunteer programs through a communications or public affairs department (46%, n=6) or by the philanthropic staff (n=4, 31%). Over 60% (n=8) of the programs are operated by an individual instead of a committee. When compared to Benjamin's (2001) study, which found that slightly less than half the sample indicated that "employees" provide input into the program, only one respondent in the Phoenix study indicated that employees provide "input into the design of the employee volunteer program."

Seventy-five percent of the respondents indicated that their organization did have a formal policy related to the employee volunteer programs, and most of those with formal policies established program goals and had formal budgets. However, nearly 40% (n=5) of the Phoenix sample operated their programs without an established budget. The lack of a formalized budget reflects an informality that might not be conducive to effective program growth or accountability. Policies and program goals tended to be developed by program administrators and were approved almost exclusively by senior managers with a communications, public relations, or marketing orientation. Employees and nonprofit community members are not extensively incorporated into the goal development or approval process.

Benjamin (2001) found, as we did, that business objectives are not the most salient concern for program administrators when selecting a new program. According to Benjamin, slightly less than half the sample in Chicago indicated that it was very important and even fewer (16%) in the Phoenix sample identified "business objectives" as a significant factor in determining new programs. (See Table 1.)

How are the interests of employees reflected in the employee volunteer program?

When asked about the strongest motivator

for promoting employee volunteerism, the most common response reflected employee interests, such as building skills and employee satisfaction. Secondly, corporate interests such as social responsibility and good business practices were referenced. Community service was identified as a motivation by only two respondents. These results align with the findings in the Chicago study, where over half the respondents indicated that the program was established for employee benefit, secondarily for corporate image or benefit, and lastly for community benefit. When asked about a variety of factors that might be important to consider when developing project sites, the two highest-rated concerns were related to employees. (See Table 1.) Almost 70% of the respondents indicated that employee preferences were very important.

TABLE 1
Importance of Various Factors in Selecting Volunteer Opportunities

How important is	M	SD
Day and time of activity	5.83	1.75
Employee preference	5.78	1.77
Community need	5.67	1.23
Agency need	5.67	1.16
Location	5.18	1.25
Business objective	5.00	1.60
Type of task	4.92	2.10

Note: n=12; indicated on a scale of 1-7 with 7 being very important; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation

Program budgets also reveal that these programs were primarily run to support employees. For instance, nearly all programs budgeted resources for recognition events, which were offered by three-quarters of the programs in this study, and gift items for employees. Half the programs included internal marketing as part of their budgeted expenses but only 25% specified that they had funding for external marketing. Similarly, the types of programs offered were predominately designed to engage employees and their families at pre-selected volunteer opportunities. Nearly all the programs solicited employee feedback about their volunteer experience and the most common method was online or e-mail surveys.

Nearly everyone indicated that accomplishments for the program are documented through the number of employees who engaged in the service activities, the number of hours served, and the number of projects accomplished. Similarly, when respondents were asked to tell about program accomplishments, they were most likely to discuss how employees had benefited. For instance, "employees get a sense of accomplishment," "it increases their awareness of community issues," and "it improved relations among employees." These ideas resurface when viewing what respondents considered as important results. Ranked within the top four were enhancing employee morale and fostering teamwork. (See Table 2.)

How are the interests of the community reflected in the employee volunteer program?

When asked to specify why their company started the employee volunteer program, respondents specified 20 different rationales. The most common explanation, expressed by eight individuals, related to the community, such as "It is important to give back to the community." Employee benefits such as team building and building morale were specified in six of the comments. Three comments reflected potential business rationales, for instance, one individual stated it "increases

our visibility." When asked about what results are important for the program, community-related results were consistently ranked the highest, (see Table 2), for instance, helping needy people and nonprofits were ranked second and third. Unfortunately, only about 40% of the programs actually sought feedback from agencies, and even fewer reported to community agencies about program results.

CONCLUSION/DISCUSSION

According to these results, the Phoenix area corporate employee volunteer programs were run primarily by program administrators, in conjunction with selected senior managers. The programs tended to emphasize employee interests and increased public relations as benefits from the volunteer activities. The informal and relatively new nature of some of these programs (three had indicated they were relatively new), limited their ability to achieve these benefits. In addition, it is not clear that systematic measures, or reporting, reinforced any of the desired objectives, since the vast majority of these programs only account for hours served and employee attitudes. Only a little over a third of the programs actually have a process to measure results or develop formal reports of their programs. Most appear to communicate results more informally one-on-one with direct

TABLE 2
Importance of Possible Results

How important is (are)	Rank	M	SD
Community/Nonprofit Centered Results		5.79	1.12
Helping needy people in community	2	5.92	1.17
Assisting nonprofits	3	5.83	1.19
Solving community problems	4	5.75	1.14
Building relationships with nonprofit	5	5.67	1.50
Employee Centered Results		5.48	1.50
Bolstering employee morale	2	5.92	1.68
Experiencing teamwork among employees	2	5.92	1.24
Enhancing employee self-confidence	6	5.33	1.56
Developing employees' individual skills	9	4.75	2.10
Business Centered Results		5.44	1.45
Creating positive publicity for company	1	6.08	1.00
Reinforcing corporate culture	5	5.67	2.10
Encouraging company cohesiveness	7	5.08	2.07
Increasing exposure to potential customers	8	4.92	1.73

N = 12, indicated on a scale of 1-7 with 7 being very important; M = Mean; SD = Standard Deviation

supervisors and in general meetings. They do not necessarily integrate with the charitable giving of the organization in that only four of the programs operate in conjunction with the offices of corporate philanthropy. Predominantly, the programs operate to meet the interests and desires of employees, and it is employee involvement that constitutes success for these programs; yet, respondents clearly desired additional outcomes such as improved public relations and community assistance. They do not, however, have resources allocated or structures in place to ensure these additional objectives are obtained.

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOLUNTEER COORDINATORS

What does this imply for community volunteer coordinators who desire to benefit from corporate volunteers? Recognizing that these programs are focused on employees will help nonprofit professionals consider how different volunteer opportunities might encourage collegiality and teamwork skills for company employees. For instance, can employees work together on projects? Are there opportunities for them to discuss and reflect on the volunteer experience subsequent to conducting their volunteer work? To what extent can employees design and run the volunteer experience? Nonprofits should consider how they can extend the volunteer experience to include pre-event planning and post-event reflection. In addition, nonprofit agencies should assist in determining the extent to which employee benefits are achieved. For instance, surveys of volunteer satisfaction should consider not only how much volunteers enjoyed the experience, but also how it helped build relationships with peers at work. In addition, volunteer coordinators should consider how the values of their nonprofit organization align with the expressed values of the corporation. Seeking employee volunteers from corporations with similar work values and cultures provides an opportunity to reinforce the values that are important to the corporation and the nonprofit (Puffer & Meindl, 1995).

Corporations want to know that they

make a difference through employee volunteer programs. Nonprofits should measure the benefit of volunteer time and demonstrate how lives were changed as a result. This information should be prepared and shared with corporate volunteer coordinators in making the case that the organization would benefit from corporate volunteers: not only that individual lives were changed as a result of the nonprofit's work but how volunteers are a part of achieving those outcomes. The corporation cannot understand the impact of the volunteer service unless the nonprofit reports those benefits. This is aligned with the public relations/business interests of the organization. If corporate volunteer coordinators can only announce in a press release how many people volunteered, that might or might not be impressive; but, if they can also present the benefits received by the community as a result of those hours—how much better. For instance, a few of the programs were able to talk about how, as a result of their corporate employee volunteer programs, children's academic scores improved. It is up to the nonprofit to demonstrate how the volunteer labor has played a part in transforming lives and the community.

These results are drawn from a relatively small sample of corporate volunteer programs in the Phoenix metropolitan area. These programs do represent a large number of employee volunteers in the area, but they are not necessarily representative of the entire population; hence, direct inferences from these results should be cautiously extrapolated. In conjunction with the Chicago area study, however, the implications of stakeholder influences and control can be used to guide how specific corporations might or might not respond to volunteer opportunities. Volunteer coordinators can use the framework of stakeholder relationships to determine who runs corporate volunteer programs in different organizations, and how the interests of those stakeholders might influence the objectives and purposes of those programs. Understanding those multiple influences helps frame the case of a volunteer coordinator hoping to access corporate volunteers.

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Volunteerism and Community Development: A Comparison of Factors Shaping Volunteer Behavior in Irish and American Communities

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INTRODUCTION

A need exists for program and policy interests in America and other industrialized nations to better understand the impact of volunteers in the rural and community development process (Brown & Swanson, 2003; Commins, Hamrick, Jansen, Murphy & Stenberg, 2000). Volunteers fill gaps in meeting social, economic, and community needs, and provide opportunities for individual self-fulfillment in places that often have limited capacities to meet such needs. Voluntary action is vital to protecting, retaining, and maintaining rural communities (Luloff & Bridger, 2003; Wilkinson, 1991). Similarly, as increased dependence on the voluntary sector occurs, it is important that we identify the factors contributing to participation in related activities. To facilitate this understanding, a central research question is presented: What conditions shape voluntary action and do these conditions differ in Irish and American communities?

The communities of Pennsylvania and Ireland are well suited for comparison (Commins et al., 2000). Both areas have large rural populations, important natural resource bases, and have experienced extensive attempts at development by extra-local forces. Likewise both have had troubled rural economies characterized by consistent declines in agriculture and major extractive industries. Most important, both locations have seen a consistent trend of devolution where rural residents and, in particular, volunteers, have taken on an increased role in providing services and related functions. Some have suggested that the voluntary efforts of residents are necessary conditions for mitigating the negative forces impacting

communities and enhancing the positive factors associated with social well-being (Luloff & Bridger, 2003; Luloff & Swanson, 1995).

To explore volunteerism and its connection to community development, an interactional perspective is presented. Following this perspective, people sharing a common territory interact with one another over place-relevant matters (Wilkinson, 1991). Voluntary action evolves out of these interactions and sets the stage for purposive efforts designed to meet common needs. Community development is therefore a process of building relationships that increase the adaptive capacity of people who share a common locality (Luloff & Swanson, 1995; Wilkinson, 1991). These capacities reflect the ability of local people to voluntarily organize, manage, utilize, and enhance those resources available to them in addressing local needs.

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Volunteers and their contributions are central to the development of community. To better identify volunteerism's role in the community development process, an understanding of community, voluntary action, and the factors shaping volunteerism are needed.

Community, Voluntary Efforts, and Interaction

Many usages are associated with the concept of community. Sociological definitions tend to emphasize locality, structural components, and personal bonds that derive from a shared territory. Community is, however, much more than a geographic location. It is a social and psychological entity that represents a place, its people, and their interaction (Luloff & Bridger, 2003; Wilkinson, 1991).

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In this setting, voluntary action and social participation are viewed as quintessential to the development of community.

From an interactional perspective, the community is a dynamic field of interaction rather than a rigid system (Brown & Swanson, 2003; Luloff & Bridger, 2003). This process reflects the building of relationships among diverse groups of residents in pursuit of common community interests (Luloff & Bridger, 2003; Wilkinson, 1991). Through voluntary efforts, individuals interact with one another, and begin to mutually understand common needs (Luloff & Swanson, 1995). From this interaction, voluntary efforts to improve the social, cultural, and psychological needs of local people emerge.

Ultimately, the development of community is an active process involving diverse segments of the locality. The key component to this process is found in the creation and maintenance of channels of interaction and communication among diverse local groups that otherwise are directed toward more limited interests (Luloff & Bridger, 2003). Where these relationships can be established and maintained, increases in local adaptive capacity materialize. Through this process and through active volunteer efforts, community can emerge.

Factors Shaping Volunteerism

Recent research suggests that giving and volunteering have reached record highs in the last decade (Independent Sector, 2001). This behavior is shaped by a variety of factors. For example, sociodemographic variables have been linked to volunteerism and social participation. Most research indicates that older females, with higher levels of education, higher incomes, who are married, and have an overall higher socioeconomic status are more likely to participate in formal volunteer efforts (Cook, 1993; Cox, 2000; Smith, 1994).

Alternately, other research sees individuals of lower socioeconomic status as sometimes being involved in informal volunteerism. Smith (1994) suggests that such individuals may view voluntary activities as routine social support behaviors (common courtesy, neigh-

borliness), and not as formal volunteer activities. Household size is also seen as being important, reflecting the importance of interaction between family members and the outside world in fostering opportunities for volunteerism (Independent Sector, 2001).

Volunteerism can also be the result of more practical conditions, such as a need to develop job contacts and enhance existing skills. In geographic areas where employment opportunities are limited, voluntary activities can offer a valuable alternative to paid employment (Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992; Clary, Snyder, Copeland, & French, 1994; Independent Sector, 2001).

Individuals also volunteer for self-actualization (recognition, raising self-esteem) and social responsibility (setting an example, public duty) (Clary et al., 1994; Cook, 1993; Independent Sector, 2001). Finally, volunteerism is facilitated by participation in community-based groups. Interaction between social groups promotes awareness of needs and helps identify volunteer opportunities (Luloff & Swanson, 1995; Wilkinson, 1991).

Overall, a variety of characteristics are seen as shaping volunteer behavior. Included are traditional factors (motivations and sociodemographics), but also the extent to which people interact with each other. Such conditions speak to the need for administrators to closely consider the unique local context in which these emerge and shape volunteer activity.

METHODOLOGY

Multiple research sites in Ireland and Pennsylvania and a mixed-methods research design were used to explore factors shaping volunteerism. Individual community residents served as the units of analysis. Their attitudes and opinions were used to determine levels of voluntary action, and factors that contributed to it. From these, generalizations to the wider community were drawn.

Communities were identified for study based on a typology of geographic location (rural) and volunteer conditions (active volunteers). Killala, Ireland and Bedford, Pennsylvania were selected and matched for analysis. Both are situated in rural areas with a

limited urban presence, have low population densities, and are characterized by population changes over the last decade due to in- and out-migration. The communities are similar with large farms, natural resource extractive industries, and limited manufacturing. The economies of Killala and Bedford are stable, but often threatened by changes in market demands and declines in local manufacturing industries.

In the two communities 24 key informant interviews were conducted. Key informants are individuals who, as a result of their knowledge, experience, or social status can provide insights and access to information valuable in understanding the issues, problems, and needs of a community. These individuals consisted of public officials, activists, residents, religious representatives, local business members, and community development agents.

Among the positive conditions noted in the interviews were increased tourism to the areas, improvements to environmental quality, and the success of locally-based community improvement efforts. Concern was also voiced over declining economic conditions, infrastructure needs, outside development, and out-migration of younger residents. In both locations respondents indicated an active interest in enhancing locally based decision making.

These interviews helped guide the development of survey items and also facilitated the identification of appropriate existing measures to include in the questionnaire. The latter were reliably used in previous research (Claude, Bridger, & Luloff, 2000; Jacob, Bourke, & Luloff 1997; Luloff, et al., 1995).

Subsequent to the key informant interviews, a household survey of the local population was conducted to assess the relationship between local characteristics and volunteerism. In Killala, survey collection took place between March and June 2003 using a drop-off/pick-up methodology (Melby, Bourke, Luloff, Liao, Theodori, & Krannich, 2000). In Bedford, data was gathered between June and August 1995 through a mail survey (Luloff et al., 1995). Responses did not differ significantly between the two data collection

methodologies or time periods.

While several years existed between the survey data collection periods, the data is comparable. Sociocultural changes that took place between the two time periods were assessed during the key informant interviews. None were seen as dramatically changing the context in which local volunteerism emerged. Further, in both datasets, the same site selection criteria, similar data collection methods, and identical question formats were used.

A total of 407 Killala and 800 Bedford households were randomly selected. In Killala, 255 completed questionnaires were obtained (response rate of 65%—excluding undeliverables). In Bedford, 343 completed questionnaires were obtained (54% response rate). These samples and response rates were sufficient to limit sampling error and be statistically representative of the population at a .05 level (Isaac & Michael, 1997).

A variety of characteristics including sociodemographics, volunteer motivation factors, and measures of social interaction were assessed in the questionnaire. Participation in voluntary action was measured by several questions: Do you belong to any local club, group or organization? Approximately how many clubs, groups or organizations do you belong to? How many hours a month do you spend in organized activities with other members of this community? How would you describe your level of involvement in local activities, events, or organizations? These variables were combined into a composite scale (Cronbach's Alpha= .81).

Sociodemographic variables included age, gender, household size, educational attainment, marital status, employment status, and income. Volunteer motivation items assessed the importance of monetary compensation, recognition, setting an example, the need for new ideas, the need for better services, dissatisfaction with local decision making, contribution of skills, enjoyment of local politics, the need for less spending, getting acquainted with people, public duty, being asked by local leaders, and being urged by friends.

Assessments of frequency of interaction include, How often do you meet with the following: family, close friends, acquaintances,

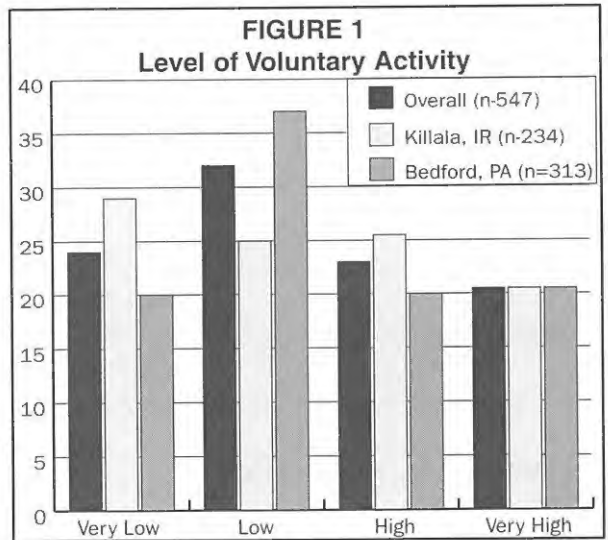
neighbors.” Interaction was also measured by asking respondents if they interacted with others in nonrequired group activities. These variables were analyzed individually and also combined into a composite scale (Cronbach’s Alpha = .73).

ANALYSIS OF DATA

Sociodemographic characteristics were first assessed. Compared across communities, Bedford respondents showed a slightly higher proportion of males, lived in their community longer, had higher levels of education, smaller households, and had higher incomes than did the Killala respondents. Participation in voluntary actions was compared next.

Comparison of Voluntary Action

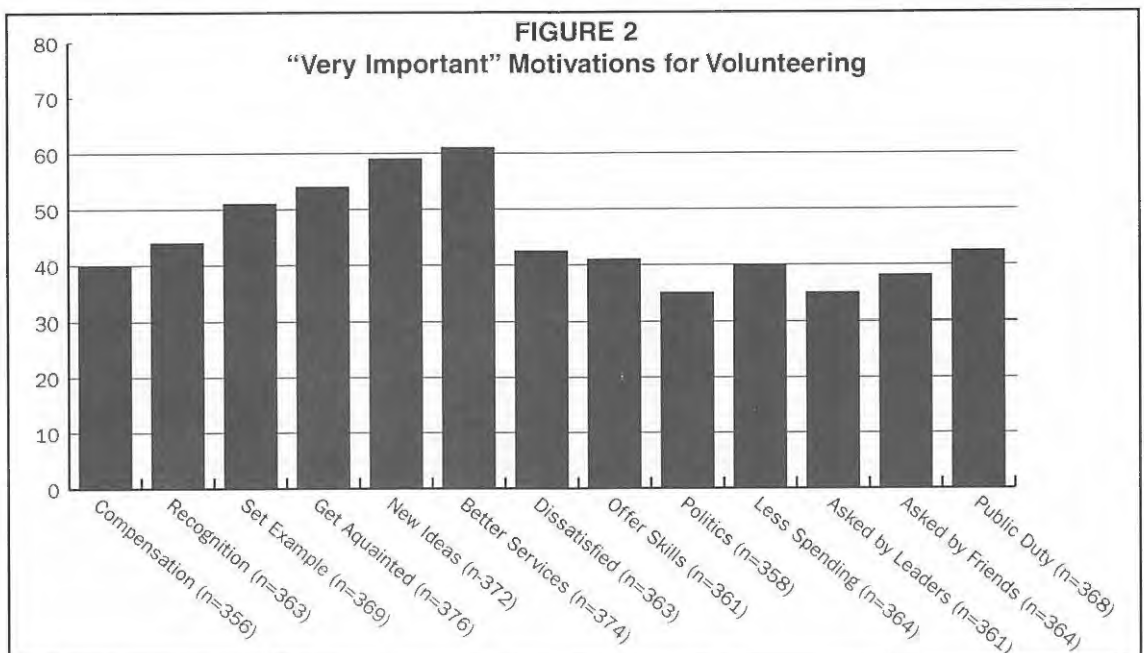
Half of all respondents belonged to local groups or voluntary organizations. Most of the respondents belonged to one or two groups (30%) and the majority (64%) contributed four hours or less per month to local groups. Sixty percent reported their level of involvement in the community as being “not very” or “not at all active.” These four variables were included in the composite score reflecting voluntary action. Using this scale, 56% of respondents were categorized as exhibiting either low or somewhat low levels of voluntary action (Figure 1).



Volunteerism was next compared across nations. Belonging to local groups, and the number of groups belonged to, did not statistically differ between the two sites. However, Bedford respondents contributed more hours per month and were more likely to view themselves as being very active in their communities than were Killala respondents. All of these influenced scores for American respondents on the voluntary action scale.

Sociodemographic Correlates of Volunteerism

Several of the sociodemographic variables were significantly correlated to level of voluntary action. Included were household size,



educational attainment, length of residence, and income. All were positively related, indicating that as they increased, so too did volunteerism. The significance of these variables differed greatly by community, however.

In Bedford, only educational attainment was significantly related to voluntary action, with more educated respondents being more active (Appendix 1). However, in Killala a variety of sociodemographics were important (age, marital status, household size, length of residence, employment status, and income).

Motivational Factor Correlates of Volunteerism

Several motivations for volunteerism were statistically significant. Included were volunteering because a need existed: for better local services (62%), new ideas (59%), as a way to get acquainted (53%), and to set an example for others (51%) (Figure 2).

In Bedford, an enjoyment of local politics was the only condition correlated with voluntary action; in Killala, setting an example, getting acquainted, dissatisfaction with local conditions, the need for new ideas, better services, and having valuable skills to contribute were significantly related (Appendix 1). Also important in Killala were an enjoyment of local politics, a need for less spending, being asked by local leaders or asked by friends, and the sense of public duty.

Social Interaction Correlates of Volunteerism

One third of the respondents reported interacting with others in nonrequired group activities outside of work. Respondents also reported interacting once or more per week with family (77%), friends (54%), neighbors (54%), and acquaintances (28%). Taken together as a com-

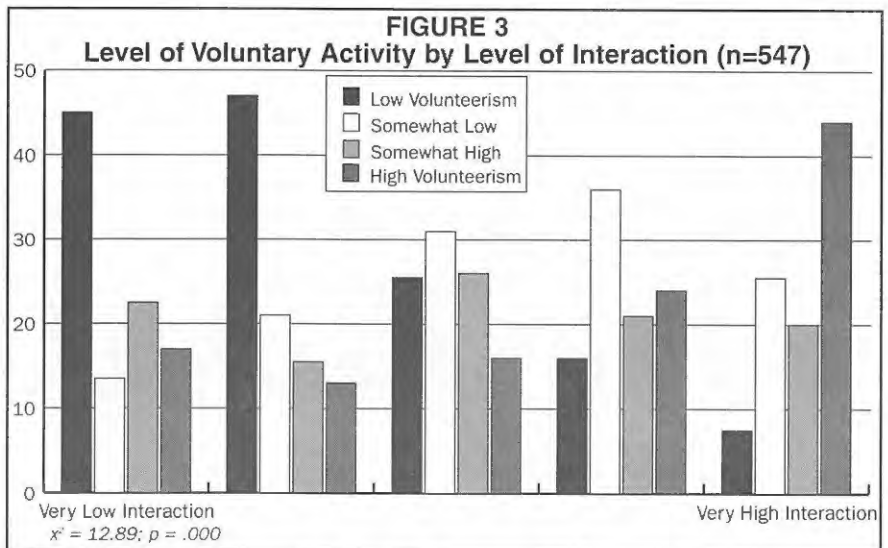
posite score, respondents who interacted more frequently with others were more likely to take part in voluntary activities (Figure 3).

All five interaction variables were statistically correlated to participation in voluntary activity (Appendix 1). These measures of social interaction were among the highest correlations of volunteer behavior. Compared across communities, Killala reflected this overall picture. However, in Bedford, only interacting in nonrequired group activity and frequency of interaction with acquaintances were significant.

IMPLICATIONS FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION AND CONCLUSION

The utilization of volunteers, and the services that they provide, continue to be of vital importance to community development efforts in Pennsylvania and Ireland. This study was based on the premise that through volunteering, local residents have the capacity to enhance local community well-being. It reflects input from 24 key informants and 598 residents in Ireland and Pennsylvania who participated in a survey assessing development and volunteer issues facing their communities.

As seen in previous research, a variety of factors shaped volunteerism in both locations. Equally important, the value of these characteristics varied greatly across communities. This, in part, highlights the need to closely consider the unique context of local life that shapes the impact of these variables and ul-



mately volunteerism. In Killala, sociodemographic characteristics, volunteer motivations, and levels of interaction all played an important role. In Bedford, social interaction variables alone largely shaped volunteer decisions. However, in both communities, it was the social interaction variables that showed the strongest correlations to voluntary behavior. Such findings support those of previous research (Goudy, 1990; Luloff et al., 1995).

Volunteer administrators would do well to focus on social interaction as a key to advancing volunteer efforts. This interaction provides an environment where awareness of community needs increases, social networks evolve, and opportunities for volunteerism are presented. Interaction with family and friends also increases awareness of issues with strong emotional ties that impact relatives, siblings, and children. Alternately, increased interactions with neighbors and acquaintances are likely to represent broad community needs and areas for contributing to local well-being (Granovetter, 1973).

Applied uses of these findings could take the form of linking volunteer activities with local social groups, clubs, and organizations in which residents freely participate. To benefit from the interaction with family and friends, volunteer programs could coordinate with educational groups, sports clubs, social/civic groups, and religious organizations. Similarly, to capitalize on interaction with acquaintances and neighbors, volunteer efforts could be linked with local business/professional associations, neighborhood groups, religious organizations/events, and homeowner associations. Such organizations could be made aware of community needs and encouraged to have outreach programs that partner with ongoing voluntary activities. By coordinating efforts between groups, greater impact can be made in meeting local needs and contributing to local well-being.

In addition to the social interaction variables, the impact of sociodemographics and volunteer motivation factors were unique in each community. By focusing on these in the context of local life, customized advances can be made to local volunteer efforts.

While the significant sociodemographic

characteristics support previous research, these variables should serve as an indicator of who is involved in the community and who is not. It is possible that those identified as being active may volunteer because of self-interest, whereas those who are not active may be discouraged to volunteer out of social exclusion conditions (income level, employment status). Administrators can use these sociodemographics to remain cognizant of such conditions. In this research, such local context can be seen. In Killala, for example, various sociodemographic indicators contributed to volunteerism, while in Bedford such factors were largely unrelated. Equally important, those significant in Killala reflect the importance of interaction. There, factors such as length of residence, household size, and marital status all shape the amount and substance of interaction with other community members.

Similarly, the significant volunteer motivation variables present opportunities for volunteer administration. These variables can also be seen as being shaped by local context. In Killala many of these were significant, while in Bedford only one was important. Generally, significant variables represented social responsibility and personal conditions. In Killala, this was likely the result of the social and cultural factors present. There, volunteerism served as a social support function, as well as a means for personal and professional growth. In Bedford, local conditions dictated that such factors were less important in shaping volunteerism.

Applied efforts could include promoting volunteerism as a venue for civic engagement and social participation that directly contributes to local quality of life. Recruitment efforts could stress that local volunteers make a difference and play important roles in providing services, skills, and new ideas. Similarly, volunteer recruitment could stress that local people have a duty, responsibility, and clearly defined role in contributing to their communities. Capitalizing on more personal conditions, recruitment drives could include public and personal calls for volunteers from local officials, encouragement of friend/family volunteer partnership opportunities, and efforts to publicly highlight the benefits that

volunteering brings to personal and community well-being.

CONCLUSION

In many ways, the attitudes, beliefs, actions, and opinions of residents in the American and Irish communities were similar despite vast historical, cultural, and social differences. While differences were noted in the areas of sociodemographic characteristics and volunteer motivational factors, it was social interaction that most directly correlated with volunteer behaviors in both nations. Volunteer administrators and program managers would do well to focus on the importance of such interaction in their recruitment and management efforts. By incorporating both the research findings presented here, and the unique local context present in our communities, administrators can develop more effective and focused volunteer efforts. From these, significant contributions to community development and social well-being can be made.

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**Appendix 1:
Bivariate Analysis of Factors Shaping Voluntary Action by Location**

	Bedford, PA (n=343)		Killala, Ireland (n=255)		Overall (n=598)	
	Voluntary Action Correlation	Chi-Square	Voluntary Action Correlation	Chi-Square	Voluntary Action Correlation	Chi-Square
Social Interaction¹						
How Often Meet Family	.01	14.74	.23**	45.10**	.12**	32.53**
How Often Meet Friends	.01	15.11	.32**	52.68	.15**	43.55**
How Often Meet Acquaintances	.21**	26.98*	.19**	44.97**	.20**	51.38**
How Often Meet Neighbors	.11*	18.75*	.16*	58.58**	.14**	55.17**
Interacting in Non Required Activities (Yes/No)	.41**	26.14**	.79**	153.14**	.62**	152.19**
Sociodemographic Characteristics						
Length of Residence (In Years)	.01	6.08	.42**	59.66**	.26**	61.64**
Education Level (1-Less than High School to 5-Graduate Degree)	.18**	20.56*	-.05	13.85	.11**	20.96*
Age (in Years)	-.02	8.92	.23**	31.94	.08	15.85
Marital Status (Never Married, Married, Divorced, Widowed)	.01	7.66	.04	54.50**	.03	52.94**
Household Size (Number of Residents)	.07	6.17	.33**	37.05**	.19**	25.93**
Employment Status (Employed, Homemaker, Unemployed, Retired)	.05	10.24	-.18**	41.66**	-.03	43.87**
Income (1- Less than \$10,000 to 6 - \$50,000 or More)	.08	31.85*	.21**	34.74**	.12**	57.01**
Gender (Females=0, Males=1)	.05	.87	-.09	3.78	-.01	0.27
Volunteer Motivations²						
Monetary Compensation	.05	6.16	-.01	6.01	-.02	8.91
Recognition and Prestige	.17	8.33	.10	4.53	.07	8.48
Setting Example	.03	4.47	.29**	22.39**	.19**	15.43*
Getting Acquainted	.00	6.17	.24**	25.65**	.13*	8.12
Need for New Ideas	.77	5.03	.24**	18.88*	.14**	10.29
Need for Better Services	-.09	4.23	.14*	22.70**	.12*	6.97
Dissatisfaction	-.14	8.13	.14*	7.98	.02	2.97
Having Professional Skills	.04	9.68	.15*	8.85	.10	6.34
Enjoying Politics	.20*	11.85	.25**	19.93**	.19**	16.35**
Need for Less Spending	-.07	1.19	.22**	14.41*	.12*	7.08
Being Asked by Leaders	-.06	1.99	.29**	22.23**	.15**	10.89
Being Urged by Friends	.12	5.41	.25**	17.10**	.19**	14.68*
Public Duty	-.02	4.57	.28**	25.51**	.17**	12.07

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

¹Response options for each were: 1) Never, 2) A few times a year, 3) Once a month, 4) A few times a month, 5) Once a week, and 6) More than once a week.

²Response options for each were: 1) Not at all important, 2) Important, and 3) Very important

London Nightline—Review of Volunteers 2003-04

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INTRODUCTION

Nightline is a telephone helpline that offers a listening, support, and information service, and is provided by students for students. There are over 1600 volunteers around the UK working for more than 50 different Nightlines, all supported by the umbrella-body, National Nightline (<http://www.nightline.niss.ac.uk/>)

London Nightline is a registered charity and was set up in West London in 1971; it currently has 75 volunteers from all over London (<http://www.nightline.org.uk/>). The telephone lines are open every night of term from 6pm-8am, when the traditional college welfare services are closed. In the academic year 2001-02 the helpline took over 2300 calls and volunteers gave up an average 140 hours each to operate the lines (London Nightline, 2001-02).

PURPOSE OF THE PAPER

As a London Nightline volunteer myself, I was interested to investigate what prompts students to volunteer, how they benefit from the experience, and how they view the training and support networks within the organisation. To carry out this research I designed a questionnaire that was distributed to all volunteers in May 2004 to evaluate their volunteering experience.

METHODOLOGY

The review questionnaire was designed with the help and ideas of the Nightline coordinator. It was necessary for us to cover all aspects of the volunteering experience, ranging from the support system within the organisation to the social events and the training program. This allowed us to evaluate the whole organisation with a view to implementing changes the following academic year.

The questionnaire had 30 questions, each

with a space allowing the volunteers to write as little or as much as they wished. This increased the time needed to fill in the survey but didn't limit the volunteers to what they could put down. This encouraged the students to make open suggestions on how Nightline could be improved or comment on how they really felt on the evening of their first duty.

Eighty questionnaires were sent out to Nightline volunteers by post and e-mail, with a return deadline of three weeks after distribution. Of those sent out, 35 questionnaires were returned; this is a 44% response rate. The questionnaire took an average of 45 minutes to fill in and was unavoidably circulated during the main exam time; I believe these are the reasons behind the poor response and small sample size.

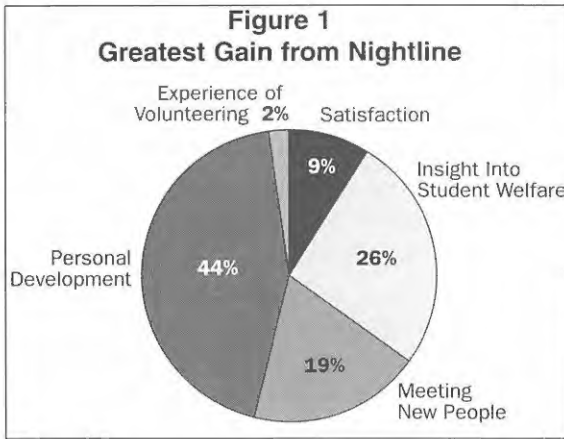
When analysing the results, answers involving figures (for example, how many duties have you done) were tabulated and graphically represented. Many of the other questions (for example, will you be volunteering for Nightline next year and why) involved a yes/no/don't know response and some free text. The yes/no/don't knows were tabulated and graphically represented. The reasons were analysed and those with similar answers (for example, graduating next year or moving away from London) were combined and these results were tabulated. The time constraints of the questionnaire didn't allow for the use of statistical analysis.

RESULTS

Volunteering

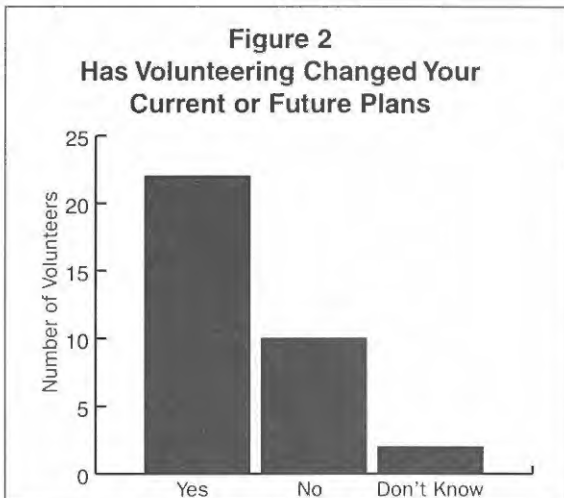
When asked why they volunteered for Nightline, 47% of the students said they want to give something back to the community by helping other students. As well, 26% are volunteering for personal development; this may include improving communication

Emma Johnston has been a volunteer for London Nightline for four years. During this time she has led support groups, been involved in the training of new volunteers and held the Executive Committee position for National Nightline. She has found her volunteering experience highly rewarding and invaluable for her future work within the medical profession.



skills or gaining a greater insight into the problems facing students today. Ten percent want to meet new people, and a further 10% have been through a personal crisis and want to help others through difficult times in their lives. The final 7% are interested in a career in a similar field, so volunteering for Nightline will enhance their curriculum vitae and be an invaluable experience.

The students were asked what the greatest gain was from being a volunteer (Figure 1). In many cases the students gained the skills or experience associated with their main reasons for joining Nightline. Referring to what they had gained, 44% of volunteers cited personal development, for example, improved listening skills or confidence; 26% said an insight into student welfare; 19% mentioned meeting new people; 9% said satisfaction from working on the helpline; and the remaining 2% cited the experience of volunteering.



Many volunteers gained either personal development or a greater insight into student welfare; this may influence a student's thoughts for the future. Of the volunteers, 63% said they had changed their current or future plans as a direct result of volunteering for Nightline (Figure 2). Of those, 75% wish to do further volunteering in this field, 18% wish to pursue a job involved with student welfare, and the remaining 7% would like to study for related qualifications.

In addition, 55% of the volunteers questioned already carry out other volunteering work; examples include working with the homeless, community sports work, and mentoring young offenders.

When asked about the commitment required to be a Nightline volunteer, 100% of the students said it was appropriate. In fact, 62% said the requirement is not only achievable but it doesn't interfere with other commitments, 26% said the commitment was enough for the volunteer to feel involved but not excessive, and the remaining 12% said that it allowed the volunteer the opportunity to get more involved if they wanted, for example holding a position on the Executive Committee.

Training

Training is one of the most important parts of Nightline. It is essential that volunteers are well prepared to take calls, and are given adequate practice. New volunteers are recruited to London Nightline at the beginning of each academic year. They attend three evenings of basic training, which are assessed. Training involves learning the main principles of Nightline, gaining experience in dealing with calls, and engaging in role-playing (London Nightline, 2003-04). Successful candidates then undergo a further weekend of training before taking calls from the helpline.

Of the volunteers questioned, 97% said they felt they had received enough training. The success of the training is reflected in how prepared the new volunteers feel to take their first call. Thirty-eight percent said they were fully prepared: the reasons given were excellent training, previous experience volunteer-

Figure 3
Why Volunteers Were Fully Prepared



ing for helplines, and good support within the organisation (Figure 3).

The remaining 62% felt they weren't prepared. Of these, 77% needed first hand experience in hearing and taking calls before they felt completely confident; 17% were nervous about taking their first call, which interfered with how well prepared they were; and for the remaining 6% English is not their first language, which is an extra pressure especially when first volunteering.

Support Groups

Within a telephone helpline organisation, it is important that there are good support networks in place for the volunteers. London Nightline has many ways by which the members can receive support and debrief from calls. One of the main methods is the use of support groups. These meetings occur twice a term throughout the academic year: students get together in groups of 10 to 12 with a facilitator, to discuss their experiences and

how they are coping with volunteering. Support groups are compulsory, but it is important that students want to come to the meetings and find them useful.

Of the students questioned, 41% said support groups are useful to learn information about Nightline and different ways of dealing with calls (Figure 4); 29% said they valued the support that was offered by the group; 24% said that support groups offered a means of socialising and getting to know more volunteers; and the final 6% found support groups to be a good opportunity for submitting ideas.

Further Involvement in Nightline

Of the volunteers asked, 43% wanted to volunteer for Nightline for another year. Of these students, 88% wanted to continue because they have enjoyed the experience (Figure 5), 6% want to pass on their knowledge to new volunteers, and the remaining 6% want to contribute further to the organisation. Of the 57% of students who said they weren't going to volunteer for a further year, their reasons included not knowing their timetable for the coming year, leaving London or graduating, and other commitments.

It is possible to get more involved in Nightline by taking a position on the Executive Committee or becoming a support group leader. Of the volunteers, 57% want to or already do hold a position of responsibility within the organisation; reasons for this include students wanting to get more

Figure 4
Why Support Group Meetings Are Useful

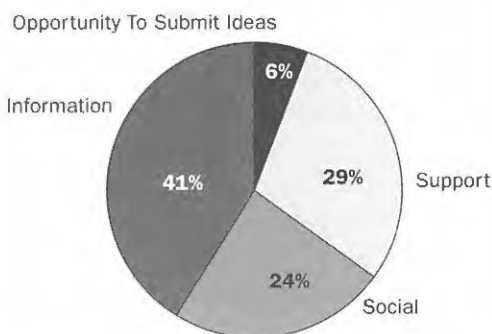


Figure 5
Why Volunteers Will Continue



involved (47%), wanting to help other volunteers (26%), enjoying the responsibility (17%), or having had previous experience (9%).

CONCLUSION

In conclusion, research was carried out by means of a questionnaire to look into University of London students who volunteer for the telephone helpline, London Nightline. The results represent a small proportion (44%) of the volunteers. The volunteers were asked about all aspects of their experience volunteering, including why they volunteered, what they have gained from Nightline, and how they view the training and support systems within the organisation.

Students volunteer for a variety of reasons, including to help other people after personal crisis and to put something back into the community. On the whole the greatest thing gained from volunteering is personal development, for example, increased confidence and better communication skills. This has resulted in 63% of the volunteers changing their future or career plans, which may involve doing more volunteering, pursuing a job in this area, or studying for additional qualifications.

Of the volunteers surveyed, 97% said they had received enough training before taking calls but only 38% felt they were fully prepared. This shows that training is successful but students feel they need first hand experience in hearing and taking calls as volunteers before they are completely confident. When asked about support within the organisation, the majority of students found support groups useful: they gained support, information, and an opportunity to socialise and submit ideas.

Students have enjoyed the experience of volunteering for Nightline: nearly half want to volunteer again next year, and over half of those asked would like to hold a position of responsibility within Nightline. This will enable them to develop a wider variety of skills.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PROFESSION

The Nightline review indicates that one of the reasons students volunteer and the main benefit they get out of volunteering is personal development. This factor can be used to help recruit volunteers to all organisations. Improving communication skills and increasing confidence are advantages in any career or personal situation.

Of the students surveyed, 63% adjusted their future plans as a result of volunteering. When organisations are recruiting for volunteers, this is an important point they need to emphasize: not only is the experience positive for those wanting to go into the field, it also broadens the horizons and offers additional opportunities for many others.

One of the reasons that Nightline volunteers are staying in the organisation for another year is to pass on their knowledge to new volunteers or to get more involved in training, support groups, etc. If volunteers are given this opportunity in all organisations, it increases the likelihood that they will remain active.

Training is important in all groups. The Nightline review indicated that volunteers were very anxious before their first duty despite thoughts that training was good. This suggests that volunteers need first hand experience, for example, sitting with senior volunteers before answering the phone themselves. This is a training method that could be useful in many different programs.

It is important organisations acknowledge that often one of the primary reasons volunteers join is to meet new people. This can be used as a method to recruit volunteers as well as to retain volunteers. Weekends away or group meetings throughout the year have proved very beneficial for Nightline: they offer volunteers the opportunity to renew their training and socialise with other students.

This research has been an excellent opportunity both personally and for London Nightline to evaluate the experience that volunteering for Nightline gives students, and

the success of the training and support systems. The information will be used to improve Nightline for volunteers in future years.

With many thanks to my supervisor Dr. Ann Wylie, past and present co-ordinators of London Nightline, Sophie Allchin and Fiona McLeod, and all the volunteers of London Nightline.

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APPENDIX
Sample Questionnaire
Nightline Review 2003/04

VOLUNTEERING

1. How many years have you been a Nightline volunteer?
2. Will you be volunteering for Nightline next year? Why?
3. How many duties have you done?
4. Would you like to have done more or less duties, or about the same amount?
5. Do you feel that the commitment required to be a Nightline volunteer is appropriate? Please explain your answer.

SOCIAL EVENTS

6. Have you attended any of the social events or extra training, for example, the Lee Valley weekend? Why/Why not?
7. How do you think our social events could be improved? How frequently? Activity ideas?

INVOLVEMENT IN NIGHTLINE

8. Are you or do you wish to become a support group leader, training facilitator, or hold a position on the Executive Committee? Why?
9. Do you feel you have been fully involved in Nightline this year, e.g., doing enough duties, going to training?
10. What are the best parts about being a Nightline volunteer?
11. What are the worst parts about being a Nightline volunteer?
12. What is the greatest thing you have gained from volunteering for Nightline?
13. Has volunteering changed your current or future plans? For example, have you altered your career path or decided to volunteer for the Samaritans, etc., upon graduation? Please give details.
14. Has volunteering for Nightline changed your opinion of telephone help lines?

SUPPORT GROUP MEETINGS

15. Have you attended all of your support group meetings? If not, why not?
16. Do you feel support group meetings are useful?
17. How frequently do you feel support group meetings should be held?
18. What do you think should be discussed at support group meetings?
19. How could we improve support group meetings?

TRAINING

20. What were the best bits about training?
21. What were the worst bits about training?
22. Did you feel fully prepared for your first duty after training? Why?
23. Have there been any calls that you have felt unprepared to deal with? Please give details.
24. Do you feel you have received enough training this year?
25. Would you like to receive further training throughout the year?
26. How could training be improved for next year?

GENERAL

27. What do you think of the Three Rings rota system?
28. Have you accessed the Nightline MSN group, National Nightline web site or Bulletin Board? If you did, what did you think? If not, why not?
29. How do you feel Nightline could be improved for next year?
30. Any other comments?

Thank you

Untapped Potential: Working with our Corporate and Development Colleagues

Liz Adamschick, Columbus, Ohio

At a recent professional network meeting, my colleagues and I had the privilege of hearing from a panel comprised of some of our for-profit counterparts, the volunteer program management professionals who advocate for volunteerism from within a corporate structure. The message was both familiar and fresh, and as I sat with my colleagues, listening to some of the different ways for-profit companies invite and encourage their associates to get involved in the community, I felt a persistent question hammer in my head amidst the discussion—are we, as professionals on the nonprofit side of the relationship, incorporating different and more effective strategies to tap the corporate vein for volunteer prospects?

I fear that sometimes we tend to interpret and apply too simplistically the results from Independent Sector surveys about volunteerism that state the main reason people volunteer is because they are asked. If we e-mail a large corporate distribution list, collect signatures at a corporate volunteer interest fair, and distribute our brochures, we've "made the ask," and will certainly be happy with whatever we get back. Recruitment is a competitive playing field at times, and while we understand that no nonprofit can be a "one size fits all" volunteer opportunity oasis, we still tend to employ recruitment methods that resemble a cattle drive round-up, instead of

the carefully planned, targeted invitation to participate in a mission that has direct impact on the communities we serve.

Consider this a call to strategic action, informed by our corporate colleagues who are immersed in an environment that sees volunteerism through different eyes.

It should come as no surprise that businesses are as bottom-line conscious as they've ever been, and perhaps more so, as economic realities change both rapidly and frequently. Part of this attention to solvency manifests itself in corporate volunteer programs that strive to make the best use of an employee's time, as well as create viable opportunities for name-brand recognition. Influenced by issues of time and money, corporations select social concerns to which they can devote their own limited resources and with which they can align their most fundamental values. Cause-focused corporate community involvement is nothing new. But how are we to communicate with it? To what degree do we allow cause-focused corporate volunteerism to creatively and effectively impact the ways in which we structure our volunteer programs? It certainly includes the element of recruitment, but, done well, also soars beyond it.

If you want to raise my professional hackles, tell me that volunteer management and administration is really just HR for volunteer staff. Of course, we do have much in com-

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A graduate of Walsh University in Canton, Ohio, with a degree in Theology and Philosophy, Liz has facilitated sessions at local and national conferences on topics such as organizational readiness, developing effective application and screening processes, positioning the profession, and volunteer retention.

mon with this field, but it's not an exact mirror image of our work, distinguished only by a difference in pay categories for the human resources we engage. As a profession, we are collectively long overdue to consider forging collaborative bonds with another profession, with whom we have more in common than we realize—our colleagues in development and fundraising. From a resource development perspective, this is clearly a goldmine of shareable disciplines, common ground among our work, and the shining prospect of approaching the for-profit sector with an invitation to maximize their involvement and their impact on our respective organizations' missions. Equated simply, Money + People = Organizational Success. Again, not a new concept.

As volunteer program management professionals, we stand poised on the brink of new relationship possibilities with our colleagues in development. These are the individuals who interface regularly with various corporations' values, and the expression of these values through different support mechanisms: foundations, employee volunteer programs, and sponsorships of nonprofit events and programs. These are the people who know which companies have financially supported our mission, but may not have been invited to make their support more comprehensive through volunteer involvement. At the very least, even a periodic conversation with the colleague "down the hall" would yield a rich harvest of information to enhance a recruitment campaign, let alone result in creative new options for engaging those businesses not yet on board with our agency's work. Which of our agency's donors is also a volunteer? If we don't have the advantage (and of course, the challenge) of sharing a database to track this, how will we know? And how will we attempt to find out? Isn't this a discussion worth initiating? We care about the same basic principles here: recruitment, retention, recordkeeping, recognition. Imagine what regular conversations would do for our respective areas of influence in the community.

We also stand poised on the brink of new relationship possibilities with corporate vol-

unteer program managers. We each bring different perspectives on volunteer trends and best practices, and different "snapshots" of how the community chooses to engage in volunteer efforts. The vice president of community resource development in a corporation may not know how many of her associates give of their time regularly to our organization, and would find this information an asset to helping the company tell its story to its stakeholders. We may have a volunteer position that would lend itself beautifully to a corporate leadership development/skill-building program, but lack the relationship with a company or business through which to offer it.

At the panel presentation I attended, I was thrilled to hear that one company regularly surveyed its employees to find out what causes they'd like to support, and how they preferred to give of their time (episodic? inclusive of family members? short-term?). Needless to say, the company was and continues to be responsive to its associates, and a wise volunteer program manager would pay close attention to these survey results. Through a stronger, more collaborative relationship with our development colleagues, we can gain a firmer grasp of corporate philanthropy, and put the elements of good volunteer administration into a broader context.

It is also essential for us as professionals to see beyond the mirage of numbers that prospective corporate volunteers bring to our short-term recruitment campaigns. It's one thing (and certainly, a helpful thing) to know the number of prospective employees that may respond to our invitation, as well as the company's requirements for employee volunteer recruitment (30 days' notice, review by an in-house community service committee, etc.). It's another matter entirely to craft the volunteer staffing component of an agency program to meet the professional development goals and objectives of a corporate leadership training program. Another panel member discussed at length her company's diversified employee volunteer program, and described the skill development component as one of the most successful examples of a healthy and productive nonprofit/corporate

relationship. The message here is clear—corporations are looking for far more developed and sophisticated volunteer programs for their associates than the fundraising, event-staffing opportunities currently pitched to them. Are we prepared to meet this need with our current volunteer program structure? If not, with whom do we need to collaborate to grow in this direction?

Occasionally, I hear echoes of time poverty (a phrase and phenomenon accurately introduced to our profession by Nora Silver of The Volunteerism Project) among my colleagues that I find disheartening at best, and whiny at worst. Developing volunteer programs that are more sophisticated and responsive to the community's desire to volunteer takes time... I've already got too much on my plate... I'm always expected to do more with less... I don't have time to read about the latest trend or research relevant to my field. Enough of this! A short-term investment of time for a long-term payoff is a wise strategy to employ, especially in our volunteer programs. Relationship-building takes time, and is well worth it. Creative partnerships with community business associations and the businesses themselves require more from us than a volunteer opportunity brochure on a recruitment fair table. We need to think differently—more critically—when it comes to developing community resources.

So ... where to begin? Consider these possibilities:

- Initiate a meeting with the person in your organization who is responsible for development and fundraising. Discuss strategies for sharing information about who volunteers and who donates. Look for overlap in these areas, and be sure to touch on both individual and corporate support.
- Research and learn about each supporting company's volunteer program. Start with their web sites, looking for statements that describe the company's philosophy on volunteerism and community involvement.
- Initiate a meeting/conversation with the person in charge of the company's community resource development department (or its equivalent) to discuss ways to more

effectively involve the company's employees. Ask about corporate leadership and skill development programs that include a volunteer component.

- Audit your current recruitment plans, campaigns and strategies, focusing on those that include corporate volunteer programs. How can you target those businesses with values that are in alignment with your organization's own? How effective are those corporate volunteer recruitment fairs you attend? Are there better ways of putting your organization's volunteer opportunities in front of employees there?
- Examine different methods of corporate volunteer recognition. Look for and create opportunities to present volunteer awards at the company instead of simply including them in the invitation list for your organization's next volunteer recognition event. Does your awards program have a "community partner" award that highlights the contributions of both time and money from this "partner" to your organization?
- Adapt your current reporting methods to include the data about corporate volunteer involvement in your programs. Report this information in a way that emphasizes the link between giving and volunteering; show overlap where relevant.

We have colleagues and other resources within reach who can assist us in growing our volunteer programs in this direction. We won't know what's possible until we ask ourselves what we can do differently.

The Advocacy Arena: Who Shall Lead Us?

Ronald J. Stupak, Bethesda, Maryland

INTRODUCTION

During the past decade, my leadership, consulting, volunteer, and advisory roles in nonprofit institutions have led me to believe that many of these advocacy organizations are living in the past and, surely, are lacking the strategic capabilities needed to create dynamic let alone viable futures. Simply said, our future in nonprofit advocacy organizations is confronted with a rising tsunami of ever threatening forces. Not only are we awash in political, cultural, and economic challenges; at the same time, too many of the nonprofits are

- caught in a time warp by continuing to define volunteers as members of the “great generation” who want to put in post-retirement time based on clear command/control directions from the top of the organization, rather than as the new plethora of proactive “Boomer/Generation X and Y” volunteers who, as “leaders” on the front lines, want to be engaged in the decision-making process in order to have the power to make choices that make a difference in the lives of their clients.
- overmanaged and under-led, that is, having too many layers, rules, and regulations anchored in managerial maintenance, rather than collaboration, cooperation, and caring based on team leadership, structural transparencies, and open communications.
- not strategically capable of blending mission with margin in these tough fiscal environments.

- mired in history, hindsight, and reaction at the expense of imagination, innovation, and insight.
- drifting reactively into the future, rather than creating their futures by “thinking in the future tense.”

At the same time, our role as social stalwarts, professional advocates, and committed volunteers is being diluted in the current context of philanthropic scarcity, financial dislocations, intergenerational tensions, and cultural/political transformations. If we, as leaders, expect to continue to participate in actively facing these forces and directing these sweeping tides, we must clearly define—and design—the leadership perspectives, processes, and competencies needed to ensure both the viability and vitality of nonprofit advocacy organizations during the years ahead.

The new volunteer mantra in public and nonprofit organizations is “Get out of the way.” Consequently, the ultimate task of the contemporary nonprofit leader is to create values and vision that unleash the dynamic energies of both in-house professionals and committed volunteers in the not-for-profit arena. Organizations that operate in this new model of engagement will rely more and more on self-managing teams of volunteers. These skilled, dedicated, and motivated volunteers will make now-time decisions by themselves, “out-in-the-trenches,” based on the articulated values, passionate visions, and empowering/enabling trust emanating from the formally designated advocacy leaders.

Ronald J. Stupak, Ph.D., is a recognized authority on organizations undergoing major change. He was a Professor of Organizational Development in the School of Public Administration at the University of Southern California. While at USC, he was appointed the Distinguished Scholar in Residence at the National Center for State Courts. As a federal executive, he helped to establish the Federal Executive Institute in Charlottesville, Virginia. For his work in the courts he received the Warren E. Burger Award for outstanding contributions to judicial leadership. He has been active in many nonprofit (and non-traditional, alternative) organizations such as The Salvation Army, Goodwill Industries, The Travelers Protective Association, the National Partnership for Women and Families, and numerous student movement groups.

Clearly, the successful nonprofit organizations in the current decade (and beyond) must be led by individuals who (1) have a bias towards action; (2) motivate volunteers to produce measurable results, rather than simply encouraging them to “show up”; (3) share power with volunteers in order to unleash “values-in-action” energy throughout the system; (4) develop goals based on the power of positive purpose; and (5) put in place an operating culture anchored in powerful symbols and reward realities that accentuate caring and commitment through a sophisticated blending of mission and margin, along with the systematic development of leaders throughout the entire decision-making and delivery processes.

In sum, it doesn't really matter what advocacy leaders say if they have not considered how their messages are received, internally and externally. The issue is not simply disseminating information or ensuring the coverage of geographical territory; rather, the bottom line is to make an impact on the perceptions of the volunteers, the donors, the clients, and the media.

Everyone involved in the organization, especially the in-house professionals and the volunteers, must be advocates who share the vision, engagingly interface with the clients, and lead by example. In essence, we must always remember that the capital “L” formal Leaders of the organization must mentor, develop and unleash the small “l” leaders throughout the organization: only under these circumstances will volunteers follow the formal institutional “Leaders” with more energy, confidence, and become better “leaders” themselves.

Fundamentally, the primary task of the nonprofit leader is to make sure that everybody sees the mission, hears it, and lives it. Without effective advocacy leaders, our organizations will enter the future bereft of allies, buffeted by brutish economics, stymied by structural rigidities, abandoned by action-driven volunteers and, worst of all, cease to be the providers of hope, services, policies, assistance, and visions needed by our respective constituents.

CRITICAL LEADERSHIP AXIOMS

Here then are the critical axioms that can help to define effective leadership for our nonprofit advocacy organizations:

- Imagination is more important than memory—too much hindsight drags down creative foresight; too many advocacy leaders look backward for a stimulus rather than forward to a reconstituted purpose; unlearning is as important as learning.
- We are in an age of confluence—the old boundaries are vanishing—crossover capabilities and boundary-spanning perspectives become leadership necessities for reconstructing new parameters and guidelines; horizontal linkages must be nurtured; this is the end of both organizational silos and narrow focused ideologies, and the beginning of the coalition-building age in the nonprofit world.
- Who you are is more important than what you know—an effective leader guards his/her own heart because everything important in life comes from the inside out; practice can correct theory, but theory is powerless to correct practice.
- What gets measured gets resources—we must measure the things we care about and we must care about the things that we measure; we must turn sporadic donors and part-time volunteers into sustaining contributors by producing measurable results and furthering humanistic sensitivities and citizenship values in a democratic society.
- Never give up, especially in the tough times—don't quit; don't wait; don't whine; no matter who is in the governor's mansion or in the White House; no matter who controls the political agenda, advocacy leaders must be interactive engagers and proactive shapers of the context, content, and climate of both the advocacy arena and the overall social milieu.
- What in context beguiles, out of context mortifies—there is no one best way; change agents change contexts; culture, situations, and political realities are critical anchors for creative change and strategic positioning.

- Strategic vision must be anchored in operational performance—the leader must project an adaptive capacity that can clearly translate macro-level strategic visions into concrete flexible scripts for performance on the front lines and in the trenches, both for co-workers and volunteers.
- Always build on values—leaders preserve core values, accentuate the power of positive purpose, and sophisticatedly blend mission with margin; they never allow mission to become subordinate to operations, fund-raising, or egocentric hubris.
- Passion, not prejudice—leaders must be passionate about what they are advocating but they must never confuse ideological rigidity with compassionate rigor.
- We must emphasize what's right rather than who's right—internal and external collaboration are more important than ego driven confrontation in building teams, partnerships, coalitions, and successful outcomes.

LESSONS LEARNED

The above are the ten fundamental anchors for advocacy leadership in the current age and projected into the future. And yet, I would like to share some other lessons learned while doing research, consulting, coaching, and leading in the nonprofit, volunteer, advocacy arena:

- Small is not beautiful; focused is beautiful.
- Relationship-building competencies are essential for success.
- Branding and differentiation are critical dimensions of organizational leadership style.
- Style can never be an excuse for lack of substance.
- If you want to analyze an advocacy organization, read its financial statements; if you want to pluck its soul, talk to its leader(s).
- We must be opportunity-driven rather than crisis-reactive in fashioning our respective organizational futures.
- Periods of transition require both organizational change and personal change.
- We must create, mentor, develop, and train the next generation of leaders for the

advocacy challenges ahead.

- Leaders must enjoy operational business processes (execution) as much as they enjoy philosophical and rhetorical expositions (vision).
- We must become more market sensitive in relation to finances and human capital and learn how to position our organizations according to market realities and business efficiencies in order to avoid the swings of feast and famine.
- We must recognize that sustainability means mutability.
- Advocacy leaders, like all leaders, must be risk takers.
- Great leaders continually invest time and energy in nurturing trust—both internally and externally.

CONCLUSION

Surely, if one masters the interdependent leadership axioms cited in this article, as well as uses some of the lessons learned (based on my personal experiences in the nonprofit sector), the ultimate outcome to the external world will be an advocacy organization that is second to none. Furthermore, internally it will galvanize full time co-workers and committed volunteers to be proactively and symbolically engaged in a collaborative, interactive, leadership journey that will culminate in a meaningful endeavor that everyone in the organization is proud to support, own, and celebrate.

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Next Door to the CEO: Where the Volunteer Administrator Belongs

Nick Levinson, New York City

Volunteers flood your doorways with skills as substantial as those of paid staff, managers, and contractors. Phone numbers are collected and promises offered.

Out of sight, however, the staff have another story to tell: Volunteers are unreliable, incompetent, and stupid. Volunteers get no paychecks, proving their lack of ability. If, somehow, a volunteer demonstrates ability, congratulations fly to the limit of the volunteer's hearing.

The staff fear that volunteers threaten their jobs.

Employees see nothing discretionary about being paid: Nonprofits have openings. Applicants compete to show extraordinary qualifications and gain full remuneration. They survive a screening in which the majority wither. Finally, the selected few accept the responsibilities implicit in being hired.

Contrast this with the volunteers, who lack financial need: We escape screening. We stroll into the leadership's offices. We expect unearned responsibility. We pick and choose our duties.

Or, rather, that's what the staff claim. Realistically, volunteers don't mind being screened; nor do they mind being given assignments based on the agency's needs and commensurate with their abilities, as well as conserving of managers' time. But the staff don't see eye to eye with the volunteers.

The CEO² is different, being the visionary. Goals envisioned, however, often exceed abilities. To accomplish enough goals, managers and staff are hired. Their jobs are to prevent mistakes while executing grandiose plans. The expectation is that one hired to do a job will not delegate it to anyone unpaid and essentially unknown to the chief. Delegating would make the hired person disposable.

The dynamic that impacts on volunteers

boils down to the CEO wanting volunteers while the staff do not. The busy CEO, however, hands volunteers over to others to manage. The staff, who perceive their jobs as being threatened by people who work for free, know exactly what to do. But since they can't dismiss all volunteers at once, since the CEO wants them, the staff excuse volunteers one by one, which takes time.

Into this struggle the volunteer administrator is inserted. That's you. The plan is for staff to provide tasks, which you'll oversee.

Since hierarchy generally correlates with pay scales, volunteers stay at the bottom. Since you supervise the unpaid, you also are not paid much, keeping you beneath most other staff.

The workday begins. You approach everyone for tasks for the volunteers. Not much is offered, and often nothing; so, pretty soon you're beseeching them that since the lovely volunteers will arrive at 2:00, you'll need something for them to do. Low-skill work, even busywork, is sought, being the only thing for which fulfillment can be promised, volunteers being unknown and not trusted.

You'll need smooth relations with the staff, or work won't materialize. Then you wouldn't have anything to oversee. The CEO didn't hire you to do nothing. That puts your job at a cliff's edge, at the staff's mercy, unless you swallow the staff's predominant views about volunteers.

Few institutions embody their prejudices in writing, mainly because almost no one writes up anything too obvious. Alleging that "you get what you pay for," most folks consider volunteering a huge waste of talent and time. You'll be fighting an unspoken bias. Debate and reform almost never take place, and on the rare occasions when a reformer does make changes, he or she is usually fol-

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lowed by a traditionalist who undoes the prior effort.

THREE KEYS

Solutions require many elements, but a few would ensure major progress.

First, the CEO must demand such voluminous production from most managers and staff that the only way to meet the higher standard is by using volunteers to the limit of their offers and skills. Only two functions cannot be parceled out to volunteers, and both are uncommon.³

The staff, focused on attaining success, narrows the CEO's mission to what's achievable. That's reasonable, except when ignoring substantial capabilities that would allow more to get done. Volunteers offer those capabilities. If they're not needed for what's being undertaken now, the mission itself can be expanded.

Ultimately, a refusal to use good volunteers is insubordination. That cannot long be tolerated.

Second, the CEO needs a person of strength and rank to enforce workload expansion. You must be an executive, the job redefined, and you need a title with clout.⁴

Instead of awaiting hand-me-down assignments, you must proactively create new responsibilities for every manager. That a manager rejects volunteers is usually irrelevant. Given the nonprofit's mission, everyone needs more duties. You're to propose what those duties should be and which volunteers can do them.

Next, you bring your job-adding initiatives to the CEO for approval. Consent should normally ensue. One exception would be a conflict of interest between a manager's old job and a new one; swapping among managers would usually solve that.

You then order top managers to take the added jobs, and the CEO forbids the abdication of any prior duties. Simultaneously, you assign qualified volunteers. You and a manager may then negotiate details, such as a start-up date.

If a particular volunteer is unwanted, so be it; one can be exchanged. And managers' new tasks can be traded within limits. Overarch-

ingly, however, the principle must be enmeshed and concrete results collected. That's your major executive work.

Volunteers should be transferred to each manager, not segregated into a volunteer department or a specific night. People who are paid \$20,000 yearly are not segregated into one room, and neither should those paid \$0 yearly. Walls prevent learning about volunteers' capabilities and managers' needs, keeping both groups from doing their most useful work.

While continually pushing managers to succeed, the CEO must also cut managers some slack as they learn how to manage people who don't need paychecks. A transition period should not be much longer than it would be for comparable new hires.

At meetings, don't dwell on how busy volunteers are. That's distracting. Instead, focus on managers' output and quality. When they fall short, volunteers can make the difference.

You'll refine future assignments, while resisting pressures from initial failures. Any work faces failures, but successes normally make up for them.

Third, you must stay in touch with volunteers and former volunteers. How fully are they being used? Have their jobs become simply busywork? Which managers are better? Why?

Debrief all volunteers, even those who left for travel or family reasons. Seek possible dissatisfactions, regardless of cloaks of politeness. That a volunteer admires a manager is not important; what matters is how that manager actually used the volunteer. Gregariousness does not make up for persistent failures to use good services.

Doubting managers is good practice. They can be remarkably persistent in denying volunteers' usefulness. You must remove managers' masks.

TRAPS AND WRAPPINGS

Implementing these solutions has costs.

Being described as the problem may enrage staff and managers. Their economic concerns are enormous, but they won't admit it, lest an admission jeopardize their jobs. They think volunteers are the problem. Therefore, they'll

undermine you and sabotage the arrival of volunteers.

The CEO will try to be your ally, but will bumble it. They often make precisely the wrong arguments for the inclusion of volunteers, e.g., that they're nice people, they save money, and the best of them can be hired. The latter two arguments are taken ominously as threats, while niceness suggests targetability. Shift the argument fast to one of increasing staff productivity and rewards.

You, by making the program effective, will make many enemies among the staff. You can't object to making enemies or you will fail. What will save you will primarily be a CEO who demands more from everyone, and makes you the means of their success. A second saving grace will be your artful negotiating of details. When managers want you to change your orders, be a knowledgeable, careful, and creative crafter of multiple solutions, not Machiavellian but trustworthy, as long as your principal goals are being met. Meet the staff's and management's complex needs so the nonprofit can complete its mission with little call for the CEO's intervention.

The main result will be that, as achievements rise under your direction, the nonprofit will accomplish more of its larger mission. That will boost revenues and justify pay raises for all the paid folks. Compensation reviews for volunteerism should start out as quarterly or monthly, eventually becoming yearly.

Document and quantify each manager's accomplishments resulting from improved volunteer utilization; in turn, this will support their pay negotiations. Remember those enemies you were making? All will be forgiven. Naturally, their vast accomplishments accrue to your credit, too. Don't be too bashful about that.

ENDNOTES

¹Here, staff means "those staff, managers, and contractors receiving pay."

²The CEO is functionally the highest executive regardless of title, usually being whoever shapes the organization's nature and mission, and oversees it daily.

³If scientific disinterest is requisite, hire. And don't subdivide creative work after it has begun.

⁴The exact title depends on a particular nonprofit's customs. Ascension later won't suffice; future executives are denied power now. If you possess the skills commensurate with the desired rank, you require a status that signifies that you report directly to the CEO, even though you shouldn't need frequent one-on-one time with her. You need that title so the staff gets the message.

GUIDELINES FOR SUBMITTING MANUSCRIPTS

Content

The *Journal Of Volunteer Administration* seeks to publish original manuscripts that provide for an exchange of ideas and sharing of knowledge and insights about volunteerism and volunteer management and administration. Manuscripts may focus on volunteering in any setting, in North America and internationally.

The Journal is a refereed publication of the Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) and expands and updates the research and knowledge base for professional volunteer administrators and other not-for-profit managers to improve their effectiveness. In addition, *The Journal* serves as a forum for emerging and contemporary issues affecting volunteerism and volunteer administration. *The Journal* is written, peer-reviewed, edited, and published by professional volunteer administrators, researchers, and consultants, sharing with their colleagues successful applications, original and applied research findings, scholarly opinions, educational resources, and challenges on issues of critical importance to volunteerism and the field of volunteer administration.

Manuscripts may be submitted at any time during the year. *The Journal* is published quarterly. Authors submitting manuscripts to *The Journal* must follow the guidelines in this document. Submissions that deviate from these guidelines will be returned to the corresponding authors for changes. Manuscripts must be submitted for one of five focus areas:

Feature Article (reviewed by three reviewers): Discusses applied concepts and research findings of particular interest and significance to volunteerism and volunteer administration both in North America and worldwide. Connects theory to practice and emphasizes implications for the profession. (Maximum length: 3500 words plus abstract, tables, and graphics).

Research in Brief (reviewed by three reviewers): Summarizes basic and applied original research results of importance to volunteer administrators. (Maximum length: 1000-2000 words plus abstract, tables, and graphics).

Ideas That Work (reviewed by one reviewer): Describes novel ideas, training formats, innovative programs, and new methods of interest to volunteer administrators. (Maximum length: 1,500 words plus abstract, tables, and graphics).

Tools of the Trade (reviewed by the editor): Reports on specific materials, books, and technologies useful to volunteer administrators. (Maximum length: 1,000 words plus abstract, tables, and graphics).

Commentary (reviewed by the editor): Offers a challenge or presents a thought-provoking opinion on an issue of concern to volunteer administrators. Initiates discussion or debate by responding to a previously published article in *The Journal*. (Maximum length: 1,500 words plus abstract).

Manuscript Style and Preparation

1. Submit manuscripts as MicroSoft Word 5.0 for Windows or Word Perfect 5.2 or higher, 12-point type, Times New Roman font, double-spaced, 1.5 margins all round. May be submitted by e-mail, floppy disc or CD (labeled with the author(s) names).
2. All manuscripts must have a running head, which is an abbreviated title that is printed at the top of the pages of a published article to identify the article for readers. The head should be a maximum of 50 characters, counting letters, punctuation, and spaces between words.
3. Manuscripts must have all identifying information removed. Include all author's name/s, affiliation/s, address/es, phone number/s and e-mail address/es on a separate cover page that will be removed for the review process.
4. Include a short (3-4 sentence) biography of each author.
5. Include an abstract of 150 words or less.

6. Double space everything: text, abstract, end notes, author's notes/acknowledgments, references, block quotations, appendices, AND tables.
7. References should be italicized, not underlined.
8. Left-justify everything with a ragged right-hand margin (no full justification).
9. Begin each required section on a separate page, and in this sequence: title page, biography, abstract, text, appendices, notes, references, tables, figures.
10. End notes are used for discursive purposes only. They should be grouped on a separate page. There are no footnotes.
11. All in-text citations are included in the reference list; all references have in-text citations.
12. Figures are camera ready; they appear exactly as they should in *The Journal*, except for sizing. Do not send glossies.
13. In all other aspects, follow the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association (APA)* (Fifth Edition, 2001).
14. *The Journal* will not accept submissions that are under consideration by another publisher.
15. Authors are advised to use inclusive language. Use plural pronouns or "s/he."
16. Obtain written, signed permission for (a) all quotations from copyrighted publications and (b) all tables or figures taken from other sources. Permission is required to reprint
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ANY direct quote requires a page reference or a reference to the name of the person and the date of the interview. Any quotes without permissions must be paraphrased or deleted if the manuscript is accepted for publication. Please check with *The Journal* editor for more information.

Please submit manuscripts to: Association for Volunteer Administration via e-mail to info@avaintl.org, or mail to P.O. Box 32092, Richmond, VA 23294 U.S.A., Attn: Journal Editor. FAX: 804-672-3368.

Review Process

Depending on the type, manuscripts will be reviewed by the editor and/or editorial reviewers within six weeks of receipt. For Feature Articles, Research in Brief, and Tools of the Trade, the author(s) name(s) is/are removed for the review process. The author will be notified in writing of the outcome of the review process. *The Journal* retains the right to edit all manuscripts for mechanics and consistency.

If a manuscript is returned for major revisions and the author(s) rewrite(s) the manuscript, the second submission will be entered into the regular review process as a new manuscript.

Authors may be asked to submit a hard copy of the final version of an accepted article. It may be mailed or faxed, double-spaced, 1.5 margins all round, printed on one side of the paper only.

All authors of published manuscripts receive two complimentary issues of *The Journal* in which his/her articles appeared.

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