VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION

Volunteer Administration

On Satisfying the Volunteer and the Paid Employee: Any Differences?

by Dorothy L. Briggs

From what do volunteers derive the greatest satisfaction? Are volunteers motivated by the same factors which motivate paid employees? What facets of their assignments do volunteers consider most important? Are these the same factors to which paid workers attach the greatest priority?

These are some of the issues explored in a research study designed by the author as a master's thesis at The Ohio State University in the summer of 1980. The study compared a national Psychology Today (P.T.) survey of employee attitudes (Renwick and Lawler, 1978) and the data from a questionnaire adapted from this survey, but designed specifically for a population of volunteers-in-education. In addition, a slightly altered version of this volunteer questionnaire was administered to those teachers who had supervised the volunteers to determine their perception of volunteer job satisfaction.

The data from both the employee survey and the volunteer questionnaire were applied to a theory of motivation, widely replicated in the industrial world: the Motivator-Hygiene theory, developed by researcher Frederick Herzberg and his colleagues. The Motivator-Hygiene theory is based on the concept that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are completely separate continuua (like vision and hearing), are produced by different factors, and have their own dynamics.

Dorothy L. Briggs has been the Coordinator of Volunteer Services for the Zanesville City Schools since 1972. Her extensive volunteerism credentials include being Ohio Coordinator for the National School Volunteer Program and past Chairwoman of the Muskingum County Volunteerism Committee. She holds a Master's degree in program and staff development.

The Herzberg team identified 16 job factors, six of which they termed "motivators" (related to satisfaction) and ten "hygiene factors" (related to dissatisfaction). Deprivation of any of the hygiene factors can lead to dissatisfaction with a job, or with any situation, but "their amelioration does not lead to. . . satisfaction" (Herzberg, 1976, p. 61). Motivators are: achievement; recognition for achievement; the work itself; responsibility; advancement; and possibility of growth. Hygiene factors are: supervision; company policy and administration; working conditions; interpersonal relations with peers, subordinates and superiors; status; job security; salary; and personal life.

Key Questions

The specific questions raised and explored by this study were:

Satisfaction of job-related factors. Do paid and unpaid workers tend to derive satisfaction, or to express dissatisfaction with similar job-related factors?

Importance of job-related factors. Do paid and unpaid workers tend to rank similar job-related factors as most or least important?

The Herzberg theory. Is the Herzberg Motivator-Hygiene theory of job satisfaction applicable to a population of volunteer workers?

Correlation between satisfaction and importance. Is there a similar correlation between satisfaction and importance of job-related factors in paid and unpaid worker populations?

Age. Is age a significant factor in: (a) job factors most satisfying to volunteers? (b) job factors most important to volunteers?

Type. Are there important differences in a volunteer population in the way that parents, students and others from the community rank job satisfaction and job factor importance?

Tenure. Are there important differences in a volunteer population in the way that first-year volunteers and those volunteering for at least the second year rank job satisfaction and job factor importance?

Teacher perception of volunteer satisfaction. How accurately do teachers and others who supervise volunteers tend to perceive volunteer satisfaction and dissatisfaction?

Instruments and Demographic Data

The P.T. survey of employee attitudes covered a broad range of job-related topics. The 77-item questionnaire was published in the September 1977 issue of the magazine, and invited the readers to respond by mail. A statistically-representative 2300 responses (from the 23,000 received) formed the basis of the analysis. Occupations represented included the professions (43.4%), business executives or managers (15.9%), clerical workers (13.7%), foremen or skilled workers (9.2%), semi-or unskilled workers (5.7%), salespersons (4.3%) and others (7.9%).

P.T. respondents were nearly evenly divided by sex (female 51.5%; male, 48.5%). Almost half earned between $10,000 and $20,000 a year, and 47.6% had either a college or a graduate (or professional) degree.

The author's survey was conducted during the spring of 1980 with a population of volunteers serving in the Zanesville (Ohio) City Schools. These persons were currently volunteering (or had volunteered during the 1979-80 school year) as tutors or as classroom, library, physical education or clerical aides under the supervision of an elementary or junior high school teacher, principal, secretary or librarian. Questionnaires were mailed to all 108 who met this criteria, and 74 returns were received, for a response rate of 68.5%. Of these, 73 were usable returns and formed the basis of the sample.

All but one of the 73 volunteers were female, and ranged in age from under 17 to over 55. Specifically, the percentages by age were: 15-17 (4.1%), 18-24 (26.0%), 25-34 (27.4%), 35-44 (20.6%), 45-54 (6.8%) and 55+ (15.1%). Approximately half the sample (53.4%) were parents of schoolchildren, while 28.8% were high school or college students and 17.8% were from the community at large. The respondents were nearly evenly divided between those who were first-year volunteers (47.2%) and

those serving at least their second year in the schools (52.8%).

Of the 77 questions in the P.T. survey, only one was selected by the author for comparison to a volunteer population; namely: "How satisfied are you, and how important to you is each of the aspects of your job?" (Item #53). The eighteen job factors serving as the focus of Item #53 were as follows:

*Chances to do something that makes you feel good about yourself
*Chances to accomplish something worthwhile
*Chances to learn new things
*Opportunity to develop your skills and abilities
*The amount of freedom you have on the job
*Chances you have to do things you do best
*The resources you have to do the job
*The respect you receive
*Amount of information you get about your job performance
*Your chances for taking part in making decisions
 The amount of job security you have
 The amount of pay you get
*The way you are treated by the people you work with
*The amount of praise you get for a job well done
 The amount of fringe benefits you get
 Chances for getting a promotion
*Physical surroundings of your job
*The friendliness of people you work with

Those items above preceded by an asterisk (*) were adapted for the volunteer questionnaire. The author added six others, to correspond with both motivator and hygiene factors identified by Herzberg:

The amount of responsibility you had on this volunteer assignment
The amount of challenge provided by your volunteer assignment
The level of interest and variety provided by the assignment
The amount of preparation the supervising teacher or staff person made for your daily or weekly participation
The amount of contact you had with other volunteers
The Zanesville City Schools' policies (of which you are aware) which relate directly to the volunteer progam.

Parts I and III of the volunteer questionnaire were based on a 1 - 7 Likert rating scale, as was Item #53 of the P.T. survey. Part II was structured as a "free response" question, namely: "If you were to volunteer in this program again next year, what is the one most important reason?" Responses were then analyzed by the author and divided among eight categories.

2

A second, shorter questionnaire was designed by the author for those teachers and other school personnel who supervised the volunteers described above, to determine how those persons perceived volunteer job satisfaction. The question was asked: "How satisfied do you think the volunteer(s) assigned to you during the 1979-80 school year have been with the following aspects of their job assignment?" The 20 items which followed paralleled those in Part I of the volunteer questionnaire, except for minor changes in pronouns, etc. This teacher questionnaire was sent to all 75 of those school personnel who had supervised the volunteers. Of the 75, 49 were returned, for a response rate of 65.3%. Of these, 74 were usable and formed the basis for analysis.

Survey Results

Satisfaction of job-related factors. The P.T. researchers indicated that the majority of their sample had "fairly positive attitudes toward their present jobs and were notably free of depression" (Renwick and Lawler, p. 55). Their data is similar to other large-scale national studies of work satisfaction done in recent years: 21% were very satisfied, 20% registered some dissatisfaction and, of these, 6% were very dissatisfied. P.T. readers reported greatest satisfaction with: the friendliness of people with whom they work; the amount of freedom on the job; the respect they receive from those with whom they work; the way they are treated by their co-workers; and the amount of job security they have (see Table I).

The population of volunteers appeared to be well satisfied with their volunteer assignments. Within a possible range of raw scores from 20 to 140, all volunteers' scores fell between 78 and 140, which were in the "neither satisfied nor dissatisfied" to "very satisfied" range. On the Likert rating scale, mean scores ranged from 5.151 to 6.836, with an overall mean of 6.201. Items ranked most satisfying were: respect from staff; friendliness of students; friendliness of staff; the opportunity to do something that made them feel good about themselves; and praise for a job well done (see Table II).

Importance of job-related factors. Paid employees, according to the P.T. survey, rank these job factors as most important: chances to do something that makes them feel good about themselves; chances to accomplish something worthwhile; chances to learn new things; opportunity to develop skills and abilities; and the amount of freedom on the job (see Table I). Looking at these items in light of Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Maslow, 1954), these paid workers generally feel that "esteem" and "growth" needs are critical.

Volunteers ranked these items as most important: the oportunity to do something that makes them feel good about themselves; the opportunity to accomplish something worthwhile; friendliness of the staff; respect from the staff; and the opportunity to do the things they do best (see Table III). While there are parallels in the two populations reflecting "growth" and "esteem" needs, volunteers also appear to have important "social" needs as well.

The Herzberg theory. Analyzing the top five "satisfiers" in the two populations in the light of Herzberg's Motivator-Hygiene theory reveals a mixture of motivators (M) and hygiene factors (H), as detailed below:

Areas of Greatest Satisfaction

P.T. Study	Volunteer Study
1. Friendliness of co-workers (H)	1. Respect from staff (H)
2. Freedom on the job (M)	2. Friendliness of students (H)
3. Respect from co-workers (H)	3. Friendliness of staff (H)
4. Way treated by co-workers (H)	4. Opportunity to do something to feel good about self (M)
5. Job security (H)	5. Praise for a job well done (M)

3

While none of the volunteers' scores fell into the "dissatisfied" range, it is interesting to compare the areas of employee dissatisfaction with the areas of volunteers' least satisfaction (#1 ranked the lowest, #2 the next lowest, etc.):

The data seem to suggest that while the Herzberg theory is appropriate when analyzing paid employee situations, it cannot legitimately be applied in situations where people work for other than financial rewards. Volunteers appear to consider

Areas of Dissatisfaction (Or Least Satisfaction)

P.T. Study

1. Chances for getting a promotion (M)
2. Information about job performance (H)
3. Amount of pay (H)
4. Praise for a job well done (M)
5. Decision-making (M)

Volunteer Study

1. Contact with other volunteers (H)
2. School policy (H)
3. Staff preparation (H)
4. Information about job performance (H)
5. Learn new skills (M)

According to the Herzberg theory, the population of paid workers is making some compromises; i.e., they are less than satisfied with some of the motivators associated with satisfaction (chances for advancement, praise or recognition for achievement and job-related decision-making). Also, they are getting some of their satisfaction from areas Herzberg associates with dissatisfaction (friendliness, respect and general treatment by co-workers, and job security). According to the volunteer data, the "pay" these persons are receiving for their work is a combination of what Herzberg identifies in paid employees as both satisfiers (motivators) and dissatisfiers (hygiene factors).

In looking at importance, the five most important job factors, according to P.T. respondents, are all motivators. This is not the case for the volunteers:

the social interaction and positive "strokes" they experience equally as important as the work itself. The Herzberg theory, then, is not an appropriate theory for volunteers.

Correlation between satisfaction and importance. In computing the Spearman rho correlation coefficient between job factor satisfaction and job factor importance in the P.T. study, the result is $r_s = .2466$, a somewhat negligible correlation. It is slightly higher in the volunteer study: $r_s = .4180$. Although there is not a great difference in these statistics, the higher r_s in the volunteer population seems to support the importance of minimizing the amount of compromise volunteers must make between what they consider most important and what satisfactions they will receive.

Areas of Greatest Importance

P.T. Study

1. Chance to do something that makes you feel good about yourself (M)
2. Chances to accomplish something worthwhile (M
3. Chances to learn new things (M)
4. Opportunity to develop skills and abilities (M)
5. The amount of freedom on the job (M)

Volunteer Study

1. Opportunity to do something that makes you feel good about yourself (M)
2. Opportunity to accomplish something worthwhile (M)
3. Friendliness of staff (H)
4. Respect for staff (H)
5. Opportunity to do the things I do best (M)

Table IV shows a comparison between the rankings which volunteers assigned to job factor satisfaction and importance. By comparing these rankings alone, the true picture is not seen. For example, it would appear that these volunteers are rather dissatisfied with the opportunity to learn new skills, since that factor is ranked 16th in satisfaction and 7th in importance. The mean scores indicate, however, that volunteers were satisfied with learning new skills at the 6.055 ("satisfied") level, while attaching importance to this growth need at the 5.151 level (just above "quite important"). Because of the general tendency of this population to assign high satisfaction ratings to all aspects of their jobs, while generally assigning them lesser importance, the data show that for all 20 job factors, the satisfaction score is higher than the importance score.

Age. Two job facets consistently provided high satisfaction across all volunteer age groups: respect from staff and the opportunity to do something that makes you feel good about yourself. The older volunteers (age 55+) were the most satisfied with every facet of their volunteer jobs, compared with all other age groups. Volunteers in the 25-44 age range appeared to be, overall, the most critical of their jobs. The amount of contact with other volunteers was the least satisfying factor across all age groups.

Volunteers of different ages appear to attach different degrees of importance to various facets of their assignments. For example, those age 15-24 put top priority on the growth needs of challenge and learning new skills. Middle-range adults (age 25-54) felt that friendliness of staff persons is an important criterion for volunteer participation. Young adults (ages 25-34) were alone in attaching high importance to the element of responsibility in volunteer work. Those over 55 gave the highest ranking of any group to the importance of the staff making adequate preparation for their participation.

Across all age groups, volunteers rated as most important the opportunity to do something that made them feel good about themselves. Least important across all ages was contact with other volunteers (also least satisfying). All groups except those ages 45-54 (n=5) felt that praise for a job well done was among the least important, although these adults rated it quite low also (4.6000). Overall, as a group, the 15-17 year olds attached the greatest importance to all job factors, while those over 55 attached the least.[1]

Type. Because the three "types" of volunteers (students, parents, and those from the community at large) closely parallel the age groupings discussed above,[2] the findings in job satisfaction and job factor importance were almost identical.

Tenure. There were no significant differences in job related satisfaction and importance as rated by those who were first-year volunteers and those who were serving for at least their second year.

Teacher Perception of Volunteer Satisfaction. An analysis was made of the responses to the question asked of teachers (or staff) who supervised these volunteers, namely: "How satisfied do you think the volunteer(s) assigned to you during the 1979-80 school year have been with the following aspects of their job assignment?" Within a possible range of 20 to 140, all teacher/staff raw scores fell between 34 and 137 ("dissatisfied" to "very satisfied"), compared with the volunteers' scores of 78 to 140 ("neither satisfied nor dissatisfied" to "very satisfied"). The overall satisfaction mean on the Teacher Questionnaire was 5.738, compared with the overall satisfaction mean on the Volunteer Questionnaire of 6.201. The data clearly suggest that teachers and other staff persons tended to underestimate the level of job satisfaction expressed by this population of volunteers.

Motivation

What motivates a person to volunteer? As noted above, volunteers were asked to fill in the blank after the question: "If you were to volunteer in this program again next year, what is the one most important reason?" The responses were then organized into eight categories. Because some of the answers fell within more than one category, 93 responses were coded for the 72 volunteers who answered the question. Table V lists the categories, frequencies and percentages. This population of volunteers was clearly motivated by the need, or desire to help someone else, and to be with other people, namely children and/or teachers. Enjoyment seems to rank a poor third as a motivator.[3]

Discussion

The employees in the P.T. study made a sharp distinction between those aspects of their jobs which yielded the highest satisfaction, and what they really considered to be important. Two of the top three items that pleased the largest numbers were the friendliness and respect of their co-workers, but the things most important to them were opportunities for self-growth. There is a close parallel between the paid and unpaid workers in the areas providing greatest job satisfaction. However, when one looks at job factor importance, the distinctive characteristics of the volunteer group begin to emerge. When asked about importance, two out of three of these "satisfiers" -- friendliness and respect from the staff -- still ranked high (3rd and 4th). Paid employees attached must less importance to these factors, ranking them 8th and 14th. Comparing the top five job factors in importance in each

5

group, paid employees valued self-fulfillment, growth and plenty of freedom on the job. Volunteers, on the other hand, are looking not only for opportunities to satisfy esteem and self-actualization needs, but also for a chance to build relationships and to satisfy love and belonging needs as well.

Volunteers, then, are distinctively different from paid workers, in that they value different aspects of a job assignment. People who are prospective volunteers arrive at a program's door, for the most part, not with overflowing altruistic motives, but with real needs for self-growth, for work experience, for building self-esteem, for enjoyment, for building relationships with others, for contributing to valued goals, for affiliating with an organization or its staff, and so on. Many times (consciously or unconsciously) they are looking to the volunteer program to satisfy one or a healthy combination of those needs not currently being met by their paid work or by their home situation.

The study of volunteer job satisfacton and motiation is both practical and relevant. The logical mplications of such a study -- tailoring volunteer rogram design to meet individual needs -- is a ommon theme in literature related to volunteersm. Because the data suggest that there are mportant differences in what motivates volunteers and what motivates paid workers, and differences in what volunteers and paid workers find satisfying and consider to be most important, the volunteer program administrator should exercise caution in drawing too close a parallel between industry and volunteerism. For example, when Wilson (1976, p. 51) writes, "it has been found by industry that the best motivator to keep people on the job is the job itself. This is certainly true of volunteers as well," the data suggest that this is not always the case. When Wilson recommends that volunteer jobs be "generously laced with motivators and not overly encumbered with hygiene factors" (p. 51) and Knowles (1972) in a similar vein suggests that volunteer opportunities be geared to the "being needs" of self-actualization, the implications of this study are that a volunteer program director cannot accurately make this generalization. For the volunteer, hygiene factors such as relationships with children or with other adults may assume priority over the traditional Herzberg motivators and provide the greatest satisfaction.

Some Implications for Programming

Some program implications which arise from this study are as follows:

1. There should be inservice education sessions for the paid staff, sensitizing them to the diverse needs and motivations of volunteers (with respect to age and developmental differences), and suggesting supervisory styles

and techniques for maximum enhancement of volunteer satisfaction.

2. Preservice and inservice education sessions for volunteers should be congruent with the motivations and priorities of that specific group of volunteers.

3. Job descriptions should be carefully constructed to accurately reflect the organizational expectations and the opportunities and rewards for the volunteer.

4. Persons of different ages should be asked to serve on volunteer advisory boards and councils, so that different perspectives may be represented in the decision-making process.

Other important implications underscored by this study are:

1. Volunteer recruitment techniques should accurately reflect the diverse opportunities and rewards which a potential volunteer could expect from participation in the program. These rewards should represent both the "self" and the "other-oriented" needs of persons (Knowles, 1972).

2. Recognizing that volunteers' initial motivations and satisfactions will probably change not only with experience (Naylor, 1972; Schein, 1972), but also as they grow older, volunteer assignments should be of a specific duration (e.g., six months or one year), so that at the end of that period, each volunteer has the opportunity to either renew his/her commitment, or move to a different or more challenging assignment (Wilson, 1976, p. 106).

3. The program should be flexible enough to not only adjust and adapt job descriptions as necessary, but also to create new positions consistent with volunteer talents and experience, as well as organizational needs (Wilson, 1976, p. 131).

4. The program design should include an initial, in-depth interview of each prospective volunteer, as well as an "exit interview" to elicit appropriate and "candid feedback" from the volunteer (Wilson, 1976, p. 129). Wilson also suggests "follow-up or evaluation interviews" with both volunteers and staff to "evaluate...progress, identify problems and assess promotional possibilities" (p. 128).

5. The program should include assignments and opportunities on different levels of responsi-

6

bility (Wilson, 1976, p. 107), such as indirect service to clients (preparing and processing materials), direct service to clients (tutoring or counseling), supervision and training of other volunteers, and service on advisory councils and policy-making boards.

6. Through affiliation and cooperation with other community organizations and institutions who involve volunteers, bridges can be built to assist volunteers in experiencing a "sequence of...activities geared to helping them develop in the desired direction" (Knowles, 1972, p. 28).

7. Program evaluation should be both formal and informal, and an ongoing learning process of a cyclical, self-renewing nature (Columbus Public Schools, 1976, p. 1.3) to assure continual organizational and volunteer growth and satisfaction.

8. To be successful, the volunteer program administrator should have the qualities which Schein (1972) ascribes to successful managers. "Since the abilities and motives of the pepole under him are so variable, he must have the sensitivity and diagnostic ability to be able to sense and appreciate the differences" (p. 70). Schein goes further and suggests that a manager must value difference (in people) and must have "the personal flexibility and the range of skills necessary to vary his own behavior" (p. 71). A final suggestion would be for the program administrator to be a continual learner, keeping abreast of current research on volunteerism as well as the growing literature on current research on women, general adult development, and the older adult, to name a few pertinent areas.

These are some specific challenges, then, for the director of a volunteer program to assure not only maximum satisfaction and growth of individual volunteers, but also the continual self-renewal of a changing and dynamic organization.

Footnotes

[1]The importance which the surveyed volunteers attached to specific job factors, according to age groups, has some interesting parallels to data generated by Anderson and Moore (1978), who surveyed 1,062 Canadians regarding their basic motivations for volunteering. Some of the age-related trends found were: "to help others" ranked high across all age groups; those over 60 reflected the need to be useful and needed; there appeared to be a gradual trend away from self-

fulfillment needs after age 44; both those 18 and over 60 felt the need to occupy spare time; and the younger volunteers wanted to meet people and to gain work-related experience.

Other studies relating the age of persons to their motivations for volunteering are: ACTION (1974) and Gidron (1978).

[2]Specifically, 37 out of 39 (94.9%) parents fell in the 25-54 age group, all (100%) students were in the 15-24 age range, and 9 out of 13 (69.2%) persons from the community were 55 years of age or older.

[3]An interesting and relevant discussion of the motivational forces at work in those who volunteer can be found in: The Volunteer Community: Creative Use of Human Resources, 2nd ed. (Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt, 1975, pp. 47-57).

References

ACTION. Americans Volunteer - 1974. U.S. Dept. of Health, Education and Welfare, N.I.E. Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service ED 120 321, 1975.

Anderson, John C. and Larry F. Moore. "The Motivation to Volunteer," Journal of Voluntary Action Research, 7, no. 3-4 (Summer-Fall, 1978), 120-129.

Columbus Public Schools. Volunteer Services System, E.S.E.A. Title III Project. Columbus, Ohio, 1976.

Gidron, Benjamin. "Volunteer Work and Its Rewards," Volunteer Administration, II (Fall 1978): 18-32.

Herzberg, Frederick. The Managerial Choice: To Be Efficient and To Be Human. Homewood, Ill.: Dow-Jones-Irwin, 1976.

Knowles, Malcolm S. "Motivation in Volunteerism: Synopsis of a Theory," Journal of Voluntary Action Research, I (Spring 1972): 27-29.

Maslow, Abraham H. Motivation and Personality. N.Y.: Harper & Bros., 1954.

Naylor, Harriet H. Volunteers Today: Finding, Training and Working With Them. Dryden, N.Y.: Dryden Associates, 1973.

Renwick, Patricia A., Edward E. Lawler, and the Psychology Today staff. "What You Really Want

7

From Your Job," <u>Psychology Today</u> (May 1978):
pp. 53-65; 118. Sections reprinted here with per-
mission of the Ziff-Davis Publishing Company.

Schein, Edgar H. <u>Organizational Psychology</u>, 2d ed.
Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1972.

Schindler-Rainman, Eva and Gordon Lippitt. <u>The
Volunteer Community: Creative Use of Human
Resources</u>, 2d ed. Fairfax, Virginia: NTL Learn-
ing Resources Corporation, 1975.

Wilson, Marlene. <u>The Effective Management of
Volunteer Programs</u>. Boulder, Colorado:
Volunteer Management Associates, 1976.

8

Table I

PSYCHOLOGY TODAY RESPONDENTS' RANKING OF JOB FACTOR

IMPORTANCE AND SATISFACTION

(n = 2300)

Rank Importance	Satisfaction	Job Factor
1	8	Chances to do something that makes you feel good about yourself
2	6	Chances to accomplish something worthwhile
3	10	Chances to learn new things
4	12	Opportunity to develop your skills and abilities
5	2	The amount of freedom you have on your job
6	11	Chances you have to do things you do best
7	9	The resources you have to do your job
8	3	The respect you receive
9	17	Amount of information you get about your job performance
10	14	Your chances for taking part in making decisions
11	5	The amount of job security you have
12	16	Amount of pay you get
13	4	The way you are treated by the people you work with
14	1	The friendliness of people you work with
15	15	Amount of praise you get for job well done
16	7	The amount of fringe benefits you get
17	18	Chances for getting a promotion
18	13	Physical surroundings of your job

Table II

VOLUNTEERS' RANKING OF JOB SATISFACTION

(n = 73)

Rank	Job Factor	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1	Respect from staff	6.836	.373
2	Friendliness of students	6.726	.479
3	Friendliness of staff	6.671	.914
4	The opportunity to do something that made you feel good about yourself	6.658	.837
5	Praise for a job well done	6.493	.884
6	The opportunity to accomplish something worthwhile	6.425	1.404
7	Decision-making	6.274	1.083
8	Freedom to experiment	6.247	1.077
9	Work conditions	6.219	1.121
10	Resources	6.151	1.139
11-13	Interest and variety	6.096	1.238
11-13	The opportunity to do the things I do best	6.096	1.435
11-13	Develop existing skills	6.096	1.069
14-15	Responsibility	6.068	1.447
14-15	Challenge	6.068	1.147
16	Learn new skills	6.055	1.212
17	Information about job performance	6.027	1.581
18	Staff preparation	5.973	1.424
19	School policy	5.685	1.353
20	Contact with other volunteers	5.151	1.613

Table III

VOLUNTEERS' RANKING OF IMPORTANCE OF JOB FACTORS

(n = 73)

Rank	Job Factor	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
1	Do something/feel good about self	6.274	1.407
2	Accomplish something worthwhile	6.233	1.458
3	Friendliness of staff	5.671	1.546
4	Respect from staff	5.644	1.531
5	Do things I do best	5.521	1.937
6	Resources	5.178	0.215
7	Learn new skills	5.151	1.998
8	Responsibility	5.110	1.830
9-10	Friendliness of students	5.096	1.804
9-10	Challenge	5.096	1.887
11	Information about job performance	5.082	1.956
12	Staff preparation	5.068	2.188
13	Develop existing skills	5.027	1.863
14-15	Interest and variety	4.904	1.887
14-15	Work conditions	4.904	2.049
16	Freedom to experiment	4.877	1.900
17	Decision-making	4.712	1.982
18	School policy	4.616	2.059
19	Praise for a job well done	4.301	2.271
20	Contact with other volunteers	3.205	2.327

Table IV

A COMPARISON OF RANKS AND MEANS OF VOLUNTEER PERCEPTIONS OF IMPORTANCE AND SATISFACTION

(n = 73)

Importance		Satisfaction		Job Factor	$\bar{X}$ Difference
Rank	$\bar{X}$	Rank	$\bar{X}$		
1	6.274	4	6.658	The opportunity to do something that made you feel good about yourself	.384
2	6.233	6	6.425	The opportunity to accomplish something worthwhile	.192
3	5.671	3	6.671	Friendliness of staff	1.000
4	5.644	1	6.836	Respect from staff	1.192
5	5.521	11-13	6.096	The opportunity to do the things I do best	.575
6	5.178	10	6.151	Resources	.973
7	5.151	16	6.055	Learn new skills	.904
8	5.110	14-15	6.068	Responsibility	.958
9-10	5.096	2	6.726	Friendliness of students	1.630
9-10	5.096	14-15	6.068	Challenge	.972
11	5.082	17	6.027	Information about job performance	.945
12	5.068	18	5.973	Staff preparation	.905

Table IV (Cont.)

Importance		Satisfaction		Job Factor	$\bar{X}$ Difference
Rank	$\bar{X}$	Rank	$\bar{X}$		
13	5.027	11-13	6.096	Develop existing skills	1.069
14-15	4.904	11-13	6.096	Interest and variety	1.192
14-15	4.904	9	6.219	Work conditions	1.315
16	4.877	8	6.247	Freedom to experiment	1.370
17	4.712	7	6.274	Decision-making	1.562
18	4.616	19	5.685	School policy	1.069
19	4.301	5	6.493	Praise for a job well done	2.192
20	3.205	20	5.151	Contact with other volunteers	1.946

Table V

CATEGORIES OF VOLUNTEER MOTIVATION

(n - 93)

	Category	f	% of 72 volunteers
1.	To help someone	26	36.1
2.	To seek companionship or relation-ships (wanting to be with the children or with teachers)	24	33.3
3.	To seek enjoyment	12	16.7
4.	To seek fulfillment (a desire to do something worthwhile, to seek satisfaction or importance)	9	12.5
5.	To see progress made by students	9	12.5
6.	To serve out of a sense of duty, because of having a child in school	5	6.9
7.	To be useful or needed	4	5.5
8.	To gain work experience	4	5.5

Building Volunteer/Paid Staff Teamwork from the Top

By Joanne H. Patton, CAVS

In the Spring, 1981 issue of Volunteer Administration, Ivan Scheier challenged the field to recognition and even emulation of the best in "volunteer values."[1] In a practical sense, Dr. Scheier urged those of us on the volunteer management side of our house to put our actions where our words had taken us, by giving hard evidence that we believe what we so often have declared vocally to the volunteers we "enable": that they are the vital ingredient in volunteerism and are our worthy colleagues in service.

As an ombudsperson in volunteer administration, I feel I must speak to the point Scheier has made. My perspective comes from a background of volunteering in many military (and some civilian) communities for over twenty years. At the conclusion of my "active military duty" (the result of my spouse's retirement and our subsequent relocation), I was serving in two pioneer appointments for separate though related national agencies, as a senior executive volunteer in the headquarters of these organizations. In both cases, initiation of the appointments had required courage on the part of top management (taking a chance on a volunteer) and on the part of the volunteer (gambling that her own competency would pave the way for others, not

----

Joanne Holbrook Patton, CAVS, lis an independent volunteer consultant residing in South Hamilton, Massachusetts. A military and civilian community volunteer since 1958, she has served as National Volunteer Consultant, SAF, American Red Cross, and Volunteer Consultant, ACS, Department of Army. Currently Vice-Chair for Professional Development, AVA, and a charter member, North Shore Association for Volunteerism, she recently was awarded the Distinguished Civilian Service Decoration for her volunteer contributions to Army family programs.

endanger their prospects for escalating volunteer responsibility). Of course, the volunteer selectee's credentials were sound: appropriate documentation of accrued experience within the organizations, proven leadership ability at escalating levels, and evidence of creative accomplishment in past shared teamwork with paid staff. It is important to affirm that this volunteer's record was not unusual, but the recognition and utilization of it by top management was, and unfortunately it still represents a minority story in volunteer-using agencies.

By mid-1981, because the experimental appointments had been judged successful after a year's trial, they were established as permanent positions in the two organizations. This step telegraphed an important mesage to their corps of volunteers: "You count -- you are recognized as key members of the organizational team." The two volunteer executive positions are not, however, identical and the implementation of lessons learned during their trial tenures has been made in separate ways. Therefore, it seems appropriate to elaborate on the experiences, as case studies for the information of our field.

I. At National Headquarters, American Red Cross:

National Volunteer Consultant
Services to the Armed Forces

The Services to the Armed Forces (SAF) of the American Red Cross was a service in financial trouble. The problems of stretching available contributed dollars in order to cover all Red Cross commitments from health care to disasters required emergency measures. Reluctantly, the Red Cross Board of Governors took the step of ordering the reduction of paid personnel assigned to SAF, as it represented the largest budget of any Red Cross service. As a result, restructuring of the entire paid-staff force in SAF was undertaken, but the

"bottom line" being removal of paid staff from some field stations, and the conversion of these positions to volunteer staff under long-distance supervision by paid staff elsewhere. Many field staff members and local military commanders cried: "Impossible!" -- and so it seemed. Nevertheless, over the succeeding year the transition was effected, and the traditional chartered services to the military are continuing.

Although the newly-evolving system is not yet totally in place and cannot quite be declared an unqualified success, indications are strong that it will succeed, largely because of the Red Cross emphasis on teamwork and peer-relationship building between paid and volunteer staffs. One evidence of this was the creation of a headquarters position entitled "National Volunteer Consultant, SAF," utilizing a volunteer with both military and Red Cross background as an ombudsperson. Other follow-through actions also demonstrated concern for teamwork:

1. Giving the National Volunteer Consultant direct access to the National Chairman of Volunteers and to senior SAF paid-staff executives, just as if the volunteer were holding a comparable paid position.

2. Appointing the Volunteer Consultant to the Board of Selection charged with evaluation of all SAF paid staff and with creating the new team of clustered District leadership responsible for overseeing individual stations within their districts. (The Board also was responsible for nominating field station directors throughout the SAF system.)

3. Including a qualified volunteer appointee within each leadership staff team at the District level, to work in peer relationship with the other three (paid staff) team members.

4. Establishing a check-and-balance system of accountability and evaluation of volunteer leadership, giving both a volunteer overseer and a paid supervisor opportunity to contribute input to the record of service (called "work performance review").

5. Centralizing the service records of leadership volunteers in SAF (whose operations stretch worldwide), thus enabling national headquarters to monitor and track the location of the often transient volunteer talent and expertise (due to military spouse re-assignments). Another follow-through action: drawing the attention of

receiving station directors or higher staff to the arrival of a proven volunteer leader in their area.

6. Including volunteers with paid-staff attendees at District team training and conferences, and incorporating volunteers on training and teaching teams addressing the paid staff/volunteer student group.

7. Under the chairmanship of the SAF Volunteer Consultant at National Headquarters, convening a regular monthly meeting of paid and volunteer administrators from that headquarters, whose activities impacted on Services to the Armed Forces. (This resulted in improved networking for the entire SAF program, as well as in enhanced status for the volunteer executive leader.)

8. Including the Volunteer Consultant in meetings with other agencies in which the field of military community activities was the main topic.

9. Allowing senior volunteer executives to represent the agency in SAF matters, when appropriate.

10. Changing the title of the trial position of "Volunteer Consultant" to the now-permanent "National Chairman, Services to the Armed Forces," and giving this Chairman subordinate Volunteer Consultants representing each of the military services, thus creating an even more direct link to the separate service communities.

11. Appointing a Vice Chairman, SAF, for Administration, also to operate out of National Headquarters, to insure the full attention necessary for effective record-keeping and communication procedures, top to bottom, in the SAF volunteer network.

12. Requiring that senior management volunteers be nominated to their positions from field leadership, their records substantiated, and their appointments confirmed by national headquarters management in coordination with volunteer executives, when their service justified such promotions.

13. Insuring "quality control" of volunteer leadership, as with paid staff, recognizing the volunteer's ability to achieve, but also to fail to achieve, and accepting no compromise with necessary standards for the promised delivery of services.

16

II. At Department of Army, Office of the Adjutant General:

Volunteer Consultant,
Army Community Services

The American Red Cross had utilized volunteers at its National Headquarters level (although not in Services to the Armed Forces) prior to 1980, but the Army had not.   Therefore, the prospective ACS Volunteer Consultant, Department of the Army, not only found it necessary to "lobby" for the creation of her position, but needed also to define (and further refine) her job description as she served in it. She concentrated on working with paid staff in close harmony from the beginning, in order to prove herself useful and not threatening to the sytem. While she was learning to work within the upper-level military command and administrative structure, she also needed to get to know her volunteer constituency and to establish with them her commitment to serve in their best interests. Consequently, it was decided that an information and opinion survey should be administered to the senior volunteer leaders operating at the ACS centers worldwide. Although each had a military or civilian officer responsible for their supervision, many were located at great distances from that direct source of help (not unlike the ARC Field stations which are all volunteer).[2] Therefore, it was deemed important to give these volunteers a firm assurance that "somebody up there was listening."

In June 1980, a letter was sent to all Army Community Service Centers on the official roster: 162, including 72 located in Germany and 19 in other areas. outside the continental United States. Addressed to the senior volunteer leader at each center (the Volunteer Supervisor, in most cases), the letter requested a reply to questions on a personal, short-answer data form (designed to elicit a statistical picture of the leader volunteers in ACS) and a list of "issues for discussion" (all previously determined by the Volunteer Consultant and staff team at Department of Army to be major concerns of the ACS volunteer field) for respondents' narrative reply.   Allowing for overseas mail delays and responses to reminder mailings, the survey was closed for tabulation five months later. Eliminating those stations which were found to have no volunteer operation currently, the 72 respondents represented a healthy 41% of possible replies, a percentage considered quite high enough to provide a valid sampling for the primary aim of the survey: an assessment of the senior volunteer leadership in ACS worldwide at that time and, through their expressed views, an identification of the primary concerns of the total volunteer corps in Army Community Service.   The findings included some interesting revelations.

Although these were the top-level volunteer leaders in a program which was fifteen years old, most had been in their positions less than six months and over half had only one to three years' service in ACS.   Half of the respondents from USAREUR (Germany) stations listed Basic Orientation as the highest level training they had received in ACS. At the same time, nearly half of those responding from the continental United States (CONUS) had attended either the ACS Course (an intensive ten-day professional training program conducted for military and civilian paid-staff leaders and volunteer supervisors) or the Volunteer Management Workshop at the University of Colorado, Boulder. The highest indication of recognition for ACS service that most had received was the ACS Certificate of Appreciation (a local option individually approved by local agency officers). Most of the volunteer supervisors were anticipating a move away from the present location within the next year, but nearly one-third of the respondents located in the CONUS said they were "retired" (meaning they or their spouse were no longer on active military duty) and stabilized. When asked to cite the training, education or experience which had helped them most as volunteer leaders, most listed volunteer work with other agencies, followed by general experience as a spouse or parent in the Army life. At the same time, the cumulative list of specific practical skills-training which the respondents listed surpassed all other references, if taken as a whole.

In expanding on issues "for discussion," the volunteer supervisors claimed, for the most part, to have read and used the existing volunteer handbook -- but did not find it being used as reference by their volunteers. They suggested the need to update the contents of the several-year-old publication, especially the section on Recruiting, taking into account the changing nature of the volunteer field. Reflecting agreement with the recent Gallup Poll, a number of reasons were cited for individual commitment of these leaders to their volunteer activity in the future, suggesting that there is no sure formula. However, "helping others" was the leading specific reason given, with a fifth of the respondents declaring that their commitment was so firm that nothing further was needed to keep them in ACS! Nearly half of the respondents, despite their obvious lack of tenure and training for the job, declared that they felt themselves ideally placed in the organization in their present positions.

When discussing the need for time-limits on their work, most indicated apprehension about "burn-out" if they were over-used. At the same time, two-thirds indicated willingness to serve as consultants to other centers or areas of ACS, if their special skills could be of help to colleagues or to the overall program.

17

A great deal of detail was given in the narrative answers to a critique of the ACS volunteer uniform, with specifics so numerous that a mandate for change was clear.

Very important, of all types of recognition awards the volunteer leaders valued, "public recognition" was the most frequently indicated. When encouraged to suggest other forms of appreciation which could be of incentive to further volunteer service, the most requested by far was "command support," accompanied by a great many suggestions for how commanders could give evidence of this which was meaningful. The real sense of the respondents' message seemed to be: "You say you support us -- now prove it!"

In summary, the ACS volunteer supervisors who participated in this survey (remember, almost all themselves volunteers) were willing to make a major commitment to the Army Community Service program and its goals, provided they, their contributions to the Army's welfare, their expertise and their dedication were given recognition by "the command" (for our purposes, "management") at all levels, as a serious, professionalized contribution to the Army's (or company's) mission. They sought the supports they felt necessary to permit them to do the job of which they were capable: to include appropriate training, funding and staffing supports, and official, public credentialing of their corps as a full-fledged part of the Army's team.

The ACS Volunteer Supervisor Survey[3] created a springboard for many subsequent actions by the Army which resulted in a strengthening of its whole Army Community Service program. The results included these:

1. The creation of a volunteer consultant corps with placement (after carefully screening nominations from agency superiors) of volunteer leaders in positions of executive status at each key level of military headquarters, as consultant-advisors to the military chain of command.

2. Encouragement of improved orientation and training for both paid staff and volunteers, through an ongoing cyclical training plan.[4] The program would operate at escalating levels of competence to address the volunteer (and paid staff) training needs as specifically as possible, from basic entry to top management.

3. Seeking volunteer input in revising regulations affecting Army Community Service, and in updating the ACS Volunteer Handbook.[5]

4. Integrating volunters with paid staff in teaching teams at conferences, workshops and official courses.

5. Including volunteers in staff conferences such as their executive status might have included counterpart-level paid staff in the past.

6. Inviting participation by retired, or non-working, volunteers with specific, credentialed talent and ACS experience, to serve in a new corps of volunteer field consultants. (These consultants would be available for assignment by senior management to assist ACS programs on an ad hoc basis. As the volunteers were willing to donate their pertinent skills, they might be asked to give phone consultations, participate in training, or make field trips.)

7. A complete re-evaluation of the volunteer uniform, with a subsequent recontracting to manufacturers able to improve quality more economically and with the addition of optional items which increased versatility and appeal to the volunteers. (These actions accommodated greater size ranges and recognized the fact that volunters include male and teenage members these days.)

8. An addition of insignia which could indicate numbers of hours served in large round-number increments (a high priority of volunteers revealed by the survey), and new pins identifying senior volunteer executive status (i.e., Volunteer Consultants).

9. Insuring recognition of volunteers with suitable awards, sponsored locally, by senior headquarters or by Department of Army, as appropriate.

10. Recognition of the need to professionalize the volunteer field by encouraging the participation of volunteer leaders and key paid staff in volunteer management courses conducted under civilian and military auspices, and in becoming active colleagues of related civilian voluntary and volunteer-using agencies.

These two examples from the author's recent experience, only superficially described in this article, offer positive evidence of paid staff or, better, volunteer administration reponse to volunteers' need for acknowledgement of volunteer worth. Without implying any denigration of basic altruism, the wise volunteer administrator will recognize the

18

importonce to the volunteers of knowing that their
service has value to those who supervise their
actions. Of overriding importance, of course, is the
volunteers' service to clients within the mission
parameters of the organization. But the agency
administrator whose position makes him or her able
to eavluate the results of such volunteer service
owes it to the unpaid staff members and to the field
of volunteerism to give the servers proof of how
voluable they are. Once volunteers have received
"seals of approvol" for their contributions such as I
have enumerated in this article, they will almost
certainly project an improvement in morale, fol-
lowed by a strengthened commitment, a "second
wind" restored, and an enthusiasm for their future
as our colleagues --teamed in volunteer service. My
personal gratitude goes to the American Red Cross
and the Army Community Service for setting such
an exomple.

Footnotes

[1]Scheier, Ivon, "The Imitotion of Volunteers:
Towards an Appropriate Technology of Voluntary
Action," Volunteer Administration, Vol. XIV,
No. I (Spring, 1981), pp. 1-6.

[2]Patton, Joanne, "Army Community Service:
Another Kind of Volunteer Army," Volunteer
Administration, Vol. XIII, No. 2 (Summer, 1980),
pp. 2-9.

[3]Army Community Service Volunteer Supervisor
Survey 1980, prepared under the ouspices of
HQDA, (DAAG-PSC), Washington, D.C. 20310.

[4]Patton, Joanne. Army Community Service
Training Program, prepared under the auspices of
HQDA, (DAAG-PSC), Washington, D.C. 20310.

[5]Department of the Army Pamphlet No. 608-28,
Handbook on Volunteers in Army Community
Service, Headquarters, Department of the Army,
Washington, D.C., August 1971.

Education for Volunteer Program Management: One Model in Canada

By L. Richards, Ph.D.

Volunteers have a role of increasing importance in today's society. Voluntary action and voluntary programs, as important as they now are, will become even more significant. As general disillusionment with the concept of the welfare state continues and as present governments turn their attention and resources away from social programs, so the need for more voluntary action and service will grow.

To be effective, however, volunteer programs must be coordinated with other related programs and must be organized in such a way that desired results are achieved. In doing this, the goals of the agency must be met and satisfaction must be given to the recipients of the service and to those providing the service. In other words, the volunteers themselves, as well as those for whom the volunteers work, should feel benefits from the efforts expended.

If such positive results are to be achieved then programs must be managed well. Many organizations employ full-time managers, coordinators, or directors of volunteers. The job title varies from organization to organization, although the roles and tasks are to a large extent similar. Some organizations, however, have part-time or voluntary coordinators or directors of volunteers but again the roles and tasks are of a similar nature.

Some of those occupying such positions are experienced managers. Others are not. A large number of persons occupying volunteer directors' positions feel the need for help in learning something about management.

Dr. Richards is Dean of the Faculty of Social Welfare at The University of Calgary, Alberta, Canada.

Two years ago (in Calgary, Alberta) I received a visit from the President of the Association of Directors of Volunteer Resources. He explained to me how members of his Association were looking for training opportunities and also felt that there should be available to them some recognized credential proving that they had completed a significant training program. Such a credential, it was felt, would be useful to the holder and also would be helpful to employers who would have some evidence of the level of training of an applicant for a job.

Despite his efforts, the President of this Association was disappointed at the lack of results. During his visit we discussed the nature of a possible program for directors of volunteers and subsequently I took up the matter with the Faculty of Continuing Education at The University of Calgary. The result was the establishment of a Certificate Program in Volunteer Management.

This new program, leading to a certificate, is being developed by the Association of Directors of Volunteer Resources in cooperation with the Faculty of Continuing Education at The University of Calgary. It is the first such program in the province and, as far as I am aware, in Canada.

The minimum requirements to obtain the certificate are the completion of seven courses and a practicum of approximately 300 hours. In addition to some required courses candidates have a choice of others. The compulsory courses are: Managing Volunteer Programs (40 hours), Human Relations in Managing Volunteers (40 hours), Management Communications (40 hours), and the practicum (20 hours of instruction and the practicum activity). Optional courses may be selected from the Management Development Certificate Program, offerings by various faculties, or through workshops. Courses taken at universities other than The University of Calgary

20

may also be considered for credit toward the certificate.

The complete program offers quite a challenge for those working full-time and wishing to advance their knowledge and skills in their chosen area of interest. However, the results will, I believe, be rewarding and I look forward to seeing the first cadre of graduates from this program.

As for myself, apart from acting as broker in the initial stages of the negotiations for this program, I was asked to teach the first course, i.e., Managing Volunteer Programs.

The Course in Managing Volunteer Programs

Although I had had a number of years experience as a volunteer, volunteer leader, and trainer, this was the first time that I was faced with the task of teaching a formal credit course in volunteer program management at university level. Also, it was the first time for such a course to be offered at The University of Calgary. Previous course outlines, reports, and the experience of instructors were not available. I did, however, have the benefit of a suggested outline for course content which had been prepared by members of the Association of Directors of Volunteer Resources, although this went beyond what would be possible in a forty-hour course.

In preparing such a course, two decisions had to be made. The first related to the content and the second concerned the teaching method to be used. The givens in the situation were that the course was to cover forty hours of instruction and that regular class sessions would consist of one three-hour session each week. There was to be an examination at the end of the course.

I decided to draw up a tentative outline and to discuss this with the students at the first meeting of the class, and to obtain their ideas about topics to be covered. I was prepared to devote the first two sessions of the class to this task but one session was sufficient. We agreed that the outline for the course should be as follows:

Session 1   Introduction to the course.

Session 2   Motivation and the volunteer.

Session 3   The organization as a system and understanding your organization through administrative analysis.

Session 4   The roles of the manager.

Session 5   Individual work on the major assignment for the course.

Session 6   Managerial tasks.

Session 7   Managerial roles and tasks continued.

Session 8   Planning.

Session 9   Financial management. Budgeting.

Session 10   Stress and time management.

Session 11   Review of course and discussion of aspects of selected reports
&   submitted by students.
Session 12

Session 13   End of course examination.

From information given to me I had assumed that most, if not all, of the students in the class would be adults who were already employed as volunteer managers, directors, or coordinators. With two exceptions, this proved to be so. The exceptions were a person employed in business but who took an active part as a member of a committee of the United Fund of Calgary, and one planning a change of employment to volunteer program management. I was concerned, therefore, that the course should provide a meaningful experience for those sufficiently motivated to advance their knowledge and skills by attending a three-hour session after a full day's work.

Bearing in mind that the main purpose of the course was to help the participants develop in the area of managing programs, I decided that the students should be involved in planning the course through a mixture of instructor input and student participation. For adult students in management, I personally favor a method that allows for individual study, small group discussion, full class discussion, and instructor didactic input. The combination of these methods lends itself ideally to meeting the needs of such students. This is the way the course started, but after some weeks, at the request of some of the students, a change was made and I shall comment on this later when discussing the evaluation of the course.

The matter of a bibliography was of some concern to me, as was the selection of an assignment or assignments. The question of the assignment was settled tentatively at the first session of the class and confirmed at the next session. The choice was for one major assignment only. In considering these two factors I was influenced by my own teaching and volunteer experience. Also, I have for some time felt that many instructors place too much emphasis on numerous assignments and lengthy bibliographies. The effect of this is to encourage students to see assignments and requirements for reading as ends in themselves instead of being

21

merely means to ends. In order to avoid such pitfalls, I decided to restrict the requirements to one assignment, two books as required reading, and a number of articles and notes as handouts during sessions for optional or subsequent reading. The books chosen for the required reading were: Marlene Wilson, The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs.[1] and Henry Mintzberg, The Nature of Managerial Work.[2] Many other books in the field of administration or management were availble, some of more recent publication; however, these two seemed to fit the requirements of this particular course.

Students were informed at the beginning of the course that its major purpose was to provide an overview of the roles and tasks of the manager with specific attention being paid to the manager of volunteer programs. It was also intended that in addition to providing an introduction to the topic of management, the course could be seen as providing a useful foundation for the total certificate program. It was explained that many of the matters mentioned in this course could be studied in greater depth later in other courses.

Management of any program calls for a wide variety of skills and knowledge. I personally felt that if this course raised in students an awareness of the areas to be inquired into and skills to be mastered, then it would have achieved a valuable objective. It was also intended that the course should provide some knowledge of the fundamentals of management, and opportunity for students to benefit from the interchange of ideas and experiences between themselves and an introduction to the literature of the subject.

During the first session of the course the students entered into the process of selecting the content for the course. This provided an opportunity to participate in the process of program planning which in itself is an essential task of the manager.

In this introductory session the concept of management was introduced. In one way or another management undoubtedly affects the lives of all of us and I felt that it was important to emphasize that (because management decisions affect many people in numerous ways), those making such decisions should be adequately prepared for their tasks and also should develop their own personal philosophy of management.

The nature of management or administration[3] and the similarities and differences between public and private administration received attention. As administration does not take place in a vacuum, we dealt with the ecology of administration. The fact that any organization exists within its environment and is a part of that environment is important. It

was stressed that although an organization is affected by its environment, it may in turn affect the environment.

The second session focused on the volunteer. A videotape, "It Begins With a Friend,"[4] was shown and discussed. Anita Kelly, a Fine Arts student at The University of Calgary, spoke to the class of her experiences and feelings about being a volunteer at the Calgary Distress Centre. This proved to be a very useful contribution to the course. As the instructor for the course I felt that it was important to speak of some of my own personal experiences as a volunteer. These presentations provided some background for a general class discussion of volunteer service from the volunteer's perspective. This session concluded with some mention of the major assignment for the course.

The third session dealt with the organization as a system, an introduction to structural/functional theory and its application to the analysis of an organization. This was followed by a discussion of the major assignment, i.e., that each student would carry out an administrative analysis of an organization or of a part of an organization, and submit a written report.

The fourth session began with discussion arising from students' questions on the assignment. As students would have to interview a number of persons in order to complete the assignment, there was a handout on interviewing and a general class discussion on interviewing. This was followed by an introduction to the roles of the manager with reference to the Wilson and Mintzberg texts.

Students devoted the fifth session to individual work on their administrative analysis and in the sixth session focused on managerial roles and tasks with particular reference to Mintzberg's ten observable roles.

Decision-making and communication were the subjects of the seventh session. A framework for decision-making was presented to the students and there was discussion on personal and organizational decisions. The importance of communication was discussed and patterns of formal and informal communication presented to the class. The session finished with a discussion of the application of these two concepts to the management of volunteer programs.

Session eight dealt with the planning process. There was discussion of purpose, goals, and objectives in the planning process, and a review of the planning process itself. There was discussion on what good planning can and cannot do and why it sometimes fails. Personal planning and organizational planning also were discussed. Financial

22

management, including the obtaining of funds and the process of budgeting, was the topic of the ninth session. The first part of the tenth session dealt with motivation and the second part of this session was given to a discussion of time management.

The eleventh session was split into three parts. The first part was a discussion of stress. There is increasing interest and concern with stress and its results by those involved in management. I felt this topic could not be omitted even though the time available was limited. During the second part of this session students discussed the highlights of their administrative analyses and the session finished with. an audio tape on the appraisal interview and a discussion of the tape.

In the twelfth session the class listened to a tape on interviewing and discussed it. This was followed by student discussion of aspects of their administrative analyses.

The thirteenth and final session was taken up by my summary of the course, highlighting the major ideas, and by a general class discussion.

The Assignment

Carrying out an analysis of an organization can be an excellent way to learn about that particular organization and also about the structures, functions, and processes in administration. With this in mind I suggested this as the major assignment for the class. The class was given the opportunity to choose the kind of assignment and the weight to be attached to it in grading. Students decided to try their hands at an administrative analysis and time was spent in class going over details of the content and methodology for such an assignment. Students also met with me individually to discuss their proposals for the assignment.

To complete this assignment, students were required to: (a) select an organization; (b) clear with me regarding suitability and feasibility; (c) clear with the organization's director, board chairperson or someone else in authority regarding permission to do the exercise; (d) consult documents and interview relevant persons to obtain information on the organization; and (e) submit a written report to me and a copy to the executive director or board of the organization.

Students also were given the opportunity to meet with me, as the course instructor, on an individual tutorial basis if they felt it would be useful to them. A number of students took advantage of this opportunity and found it to be helpful.

The Examination

There was no great enthusiasm in the class for an examination, but it could not be avoided since it was a requirement for the management certificate program. In discussing this, the class elected to have a take-home examination. A time limit was set and dates to receive the examination paper and to hand it in were agreed upon between students and instructor. The examination consisted of five questions, two of which contained some options.

Student Evaluation

As part of the normal procedure for continuing education courses at The University of Calgary, students were requested to complete course evaluation forms and to hand these directly to the Faculty of Continuing Education. At a later date these evaluations were shared with the instructor.

There was general agreement among the students that the content of the course was suitable. One student advocated more practical application and less theory. One would have liked more case studies. Two would have liked to see more interaction with the class and four recommended more small group discussions. One felt there should have been more opportunity for students to discuss their personal experiences in volunteer programs. Only one student stated in the written evaluation that the course should be reduced to thirty hours from forty and that each session should be of two-and-one-half hours each. It is pertinent to add that in informal discussions outside class it was obvious that all students found a three-hour session after a day's work somewhat draining.

Instructor's Evaluation

My own evaluation of the course included the following: (a) the three-hour sessions should be reduced to two hours; and (b) the nature of the major assignment be reviewed. I am still convinced that the organizational analysis was a useful learning tool and this has been borne out by comments of students in this class and in other classes in administration. However, it is a heavy assignment which requires a great deal of time and effort. For a course of this nature, taken after a full day's work, it may well be advisable to consider asking students to write something pertinent to their own volunteer program experience or some alternative should student interest indicate this.

I tend to agree with the student who advocated more opportunity in class for students to discuss their own volunteer program experiences. I should

23

add that my agreement with this assumes that such discussion would be of an analytical nature.

The comments of four students that there should be more small group discussion is interesting. As part of my proposed methodology for the course I included small group discussions throughout and, indeed, the course started with this taking place. After a number of students came to me, outside class, to request that there be less small group discussion, I dropped this particular activity. In retrospect I see that I should have confronted the total class with this matter and resolved the issue in that way.

The comment by one student that there should be more case studies was perceptive. When I was asked to teach the course one of my initial comments was that it was the kind of course that would benefit from a case-study approach, at least for a large part of it. The problem is that case studies of volunteer programs in Canada need to be developed and one cannot hold up giving a much-needed course while this is being done. I would emphasize the need for such case studies and would certainly advocate their use in the future.

In short, if I were to prepare such a course again, I would use only the Wilson text, references to a few pertinent articles, and a limited selection of handouts. I would retain the administrative analysis as one option for a class assignment but would add some other options according to the interests of the students. I also would retain small group discussions throughout the course. I would still favor a mixture of instructor didactic input and student participation.

Conclusion

My own experience of teaching this course and comments later received from professionals, volunteers, and other community representatives serve to reinforce my view that such opportunities are needed for those wishing to work in the field of management of volunteer programs. I further believe that more attention needs to be given to developing quality volunteer programs and to enlarging the scope of voluntary action in many ways. In order to do these things managers or coordinators, whichever label is preferred, must be prepared for their part.

I also would like to see a course on volunteer program management made available to students in the Bachelor of Social Work program since many of these will become involved in some way or another with volunteer programs after graduating. Furthermore, I would suggest that such courses in volunteer program management are valuable for those already holding managerial positions but who have not had any formal education in the field and for volunteers who aspire to such positions. In addition, many church workers (both clergy and lay) would find such a course useful as many of them spend a considerable amount of time working with volunteers and in organizing volunteer programs.

Finally, I wish to emphasize what I said at the beginning of this article. Volunteer programs and voluntary action are important in today's society and will become even more important in the future. It behooves us, therefore, to do all we can to strengthen such programs and to assist those who direct them.

Further information and applications for this program can be obtained by contacting the Registrar, A.D.V.R., c/o Volunteer Centre of Calgary, 1129-17th Avenue S.W., Calgary, Alberta, T2T 0B6.

Footnotes

[1] Marlene Wilson, The Effective Management of Volunteer Programs, Boulder, Colorado: Volunteer Management Associates, 1976.

[2] Henry Mintzberg, The Nature of Managerial Work, New York: Harper and Row, 1973.

[3] The terms "administration" and "management" are frequently used in the literature in such a way as to be considered synonymous. Personally I see administration as having a wider perspective than does management.

[4] Ramsay, R.F. (content specialist), "It Begins With a Friend," 16 mm. film, The University of Calgary, Communications Media, 1979.

Manage Your Measurements, Don't Let Them Manage You!

By Anne S. Honer

Most of us know there are benefits in keeping records. They provide the meat for our funding proposals, and base-line data for planning and evaluation. Records provide documentation of service for recognition of volunteers and staff, and show staff where they are exceeding or not meeting program goals. We can't get around it--record-keeping is the best way we can prove to our board and funding sources that we are accountable for their financial and program support.

Peter Drucker, in <u>Management: Tasks, Responsi-bilties, Practices</u> (1974), brings out the importance of record-keeping. He points out that what we, as managers, choose to measure and how we choose to measure it determine what we see, what others see, and subsequently, what we do. But it is not enough just to be able to select the critical variables. We must also know what is reasonable to expect at key points in the program (most of us can expect fewer volunteers in the summer months, for example), and what deviations from the expected are reasonable so that we can determine whether program refinements are necessary. In the example just cited, we must be prepared to cut back our programs during times when our staff is limited, or find the resources elsewhere in order to continue providing the services <u>our clients</u> expect. We must be able to plot the route which data travels from monthly report to decision so it can be intercepted, evaluated, and acted upon when significant deviations occur.

Anne S. Honer is Director of The Community Skillsbank, a program of Volunteers in Action, Inc. in Providence, Rhode Island. She is an active and involved AVA member, participating in both regional and national committees.

If good record-keeping is so important, why don't we do a better job of it? Why do we wince when it's time to do our monthly reports? There are a number of possible reasons:

o   Perhaps nobody uses the reports and our record-keeping efforts are wasted.

o   Perhaps our data collection system is too complex.

o   Perhaps what we have chosen to record doesn't help us in our day-to-day program maintenance so we put off collecting it.

o   Perhaps we don't allow staff enough time to collect and report data to us.

o   Perhaps we are collecting some data more often than we need to, making extra work for ourselves.

Putting the problem into a conceptual framework helps to order our thinking and provides some guidance in solving the problem of poor record-keeping. One such framework used frequently with organizations is "system analysis."

System Analysis

William Bearley (1978) presents a number of definitions of a system and concludes that the key concepts in all of them are "wholeness, elements or subsystems within a system, and the interaction or interrelationships among and between the elements and the whole." Bearley also states that organizations can be seen as "man-made systems" with a hierarchy of levels which he calls strategic planning, management control, and operational control.

Operational control, Bearley says, is the level responsible for delivering the organization's services to its clients, while management control involves the coordinative subsystem. The latter is the link between policy-making (deciding what services to

provide) and actual service delivery. The strategic planning level is responsible for setting organizational goals, determining resources and the policies related to resource acquisition, use and disposition. Each of these levels, although within the same organization or system, have different foci of concerns. But all deal with solving problems whose answers require a number of different kinds of information.

Bearley also maintains that the driving forces of organizations are decisions. Without decisions there would be no problem-solving or subsequent actions taken. Although not often called on to present our answer to the community's most pressing needs, volunteer administrators are required to decide upon a wide variety of large and small issues: the color of the new curtains or office furniture; the fee schedule for our clients; the benefits for our volunteer and paid staff. The vital ingredient in decision-making is information, much of which is available only through record-keeping.

As Peter Drucker indicates, decision-making is "based on knowledge, not prophecy. The end result, however, is not knowledge, but strategy. Its aim is action now." Bearley cites Thayer's work, writing: "Thayer points out that in human communication systems information is what people do to data." Data are combined and manipulated to become information, which then becomes the basis for problem-solving decisions. Many of us use information such as socio-economic descriptions of our clients to help us decide which services to provide and where and how to provide them. The effects and consequences of these decisions are evaluated by collecting data, which are then combined (perhaps in tables or charts in our annual reports) and manipulated to provide information on which to base new decisions—and so the cycle continues.

Data

Evaluation	Information
Data Collection & Representation	Decisions

Effects and Consequences
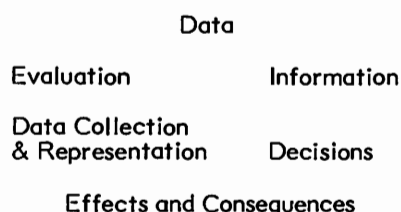
Figure 1. The decision-making cycle

Bearley continues: "It is ... important for an organization to establish organization-wide policies, structures and procedures to manage these (information) resources." Peter Drucker's point only strengthens Bearley's argument:

...the effectiveness of an information system depends on the (manager's) willingness and ability to think through carefully what information is needed by whom, for what purposes, and then on the systematic creation of communication among the various parties to the system as to the meaning of each specific input and output.

In essence, a system analysis of an organization is a study of its relationships, or "interdependencies," as Stevenson and Longabaugh (1980) call them. Recognizing the relationships between structural sub-parts implies the ability to identify the information needs that one sub-part must have in order to make decisions about another. What does the placement coordinator need to know about the office to assure that volunteer placement operates smoothly? Knowing the location of agencies seeking volunteers is essential information to placement staff, but not necessarily knowing how many agencies received board training.

Some systems analysts have suggested looking at inputs, throughputs, and outputs as a means of analyzing a system's structures, or the interrelationships of its elements.

Inputs are the organization's resources and the effects of the environment impacting upon it. Some examples are funding, of course, and board policies, organizational goals, objectives, federal and state legislation, funding source guidelines and requirements, natural disasters, climate, staff and their qualifications, terms of the lease --- even weather (a snowstorm on the day of your big fund-raiser).

The administrator must be able to identify these factors. They will influence the organization by generally requiring some feedback as to how the resources were used, usually in the form of periodic reports. Certainly environmental factors will not require written feedback, but they must be considered in planning the method of delivery. For example, geographical limitations may require an organization to transport a clinic in a mobile unit to low-income rural clients to permit access to services.

Outputs are the services (or goods) provided by the organization. These are usually specified in its charges, its goal statement, or its yearly objectives. In human service organizations, according to Hasenfeld and English (1974), the output involves either changing or processing people. Specifically, alcohol rehabilitation would involve changing people, whereas referring an alcoholic to Alcoholics Anonymous would exemplify moving someone through a "process" in the hope that change will come later.

There may also be some unplanned outputs, such as how the organization is viewed in the community by its constituency and/or its adversaries. In addition, newspaper publicity about the organization

26

or the issue with which it is concerned, may have educated the public, creating the side-effect of a long-lasting impression of the group's mission.

Throughputs are the activities the organization undertakes through its resources to transform its goals into human services (or goods, in a production setting). Figure 2 presents an example.

River City Voluntary Action Center

Input	Throughput	Output
Volunteers	Recruiting	Service to
Board members	Screening	volunteers,
Staff	Placing	agencies, and
Money	Site Visits	community
	Consultations	Goal: to pro-
	Training	vide volunteers
		to non-profit
		agencies and
		strengthen
		volunteer
		programs
		of agencies

Figure 2. The organization as a system

The system organizes these activities by providing the roles and assigning functions to them. Jobs, job descriptions, and organizational charts show the formal channels, roles and functions of the organizational system, but give no indication of the process by which activities are undertaken.

The administrator's analysis of the system's throughputs comes from records kept following identification of the inputs and outputs. The administrator considers who needs what information and often determines how the information is reported, although many funding sources provide the forms on which they want to have the information reported to them.

Implications

There are at least three practical implications of this discussion for managers or administrators of human service organizations trying to sort out the record-keeping task:

1. Administrators must identify the system parts, functions, and interrelationships in their organizations, although they may involve others in the identification process.
2. Administrators must identify the decisions each system sub-part makes, what information it needs to make decisions, what data will provide that information and what data other system parts need from it.

3. Therefore, administrators must also identify the relationships which exist -or perhaps should exist - between sub-parts and provide for channels of communication between them.

Only when these basics are achieved can administrators begin the task of designing the record-keeping system.

Designing the Record-keeping System

After clearly identifying the purpose of collecting, keeping, and reporting data, administrators refer to this purpose in deciding whether or not to collect each tempting bit of data generated by work with the agency's clients.

Beginning with the end "product" or service (the outputs) administrators might design the means to ask:
o   What is the desired end-state of the clients?
o   How can it best be measured?
o   Are the number of inquiries, referrals, socio-economic status of clients, and dollars spent real measures of the program's goals and objectives?
o   What information do the board and funding source require about the change or process effected in the clients?

Then, administrators might examine the organization's inputs:
o   What are the inputs that permit services to be provided: money, staff, volunteers, goals, objectives, environmental factors, laws, professional standards, parent organization guidelines? Do some of these in fact inhibit service provision?
o   Who needs to know about the services?
o   Who is paying for services? Who makes decisions about them?
o   What do the decision-makers need to know and how often?

And finally, administrators might consider these throughputs:
o   What are the key activities that transform resources into services?
o   How are people changed or processed?
o   Who needs to know what and when about these key activities?
o   Who has access to the data to provide that information?
o   Who should collect the data?
o   How should it be collected: observation, interview, survey, study or other?
o   How should it be reported? By whom?

27

Once the information necessary for decision-making has been determined, it is time to select the measurements that will provide the information. Measurements, says Peter Drucker, should be economical, meaningful, appropriate, congruent, timely, simple, and operational.

Economical measurements imply that the fewest statistics and reports are used, yet there are still enough to be able to understand and anticipate a phenomenon and have a reasonably reliable picture of it. Consider how many data are necessary, not how many are available.

Meaningful measurements measure significant events or potentially significant developments, implying that the administrator has the skill or permission to select these. Measurements should be related to key areas -- is it necessary to measure the number of phone calls that come in, as well as the number of patients and referrals? Drucker believes that some things can be measured infrequently; for example, volunteer hours served in the organization may be compiled only quarterly instead of monthly and still reveal whether the actual number is close to the yearly targeted number.

Measurements must be appropriate to the character and nature of what is being measured so that the user interprets the results correctly. Drucker thinks this is the most important rule of all. For example, the average number of hours per volunteer spent with clinic clients may not be accurately represent the benefits to the clients. On the other hand, specifying the type of work done by volunteers and comparing time spent to what paid staff are able to do may give a much clearer picture of the extent to which volunteers enable the organization to provide services to its clients. Above all, measurements must always be designed to preserve the dignity of the individual by assuring that they indicate the organization is sensitive to the concerns and feelings of those being measured.

In order to be congruent, measurements need only as precise as the event demands. We may not need to do a chi square or regression analysis to make our point, when mode, mean, median or percentage would serve as well.

Timely measurements correspond with the time span of the events being measured. To ask the bookkeeper to report to you every six weeks when the bookkeeping is done on a monthly basis is not good management. If volunteers are reviewed every three months, arrange to have their supervisors or the volunteer director report to you quarterly, if possible. If a pilot project is expected to take nine months to complete, don't ask for the report when eight months have passed.

Measurement should be simple. This gets my vote for being the most important. Complex forms take time to record, interpret, and report. Drucker suggests that if measurements are complex, the collector's energy is directed to the mechanics and methodology, not to recording the data. Hasenfield and English, too, mention that complex forms often result in goal displacement; the data collector becomes more involved in completing the form correctly than in reporting the information. Rossi (1979) advises that simple measurements are more likely to be kept accurately. In addition, highly-skilled people are free to do highly-skilled work if others with less skill can help record, interpret, and report the measurements.

To be operational, measurements should be designed to reach the person who can act on them. The form used to collect the information should be tailored to the needs of the user. Thus, while designing the instruments, the designer should focus on the action of collecting, not on the information itself. For example, it is just as easy to design the monthly financial report to comply with the funding source's annual report form as to come up with a completely new form. This permits the bookkeeper or director to read from the monthly sheets when compiling the annual report without having to jump from one column or section to another. Some organizations design their periodic reports to conform with their objectives: at the end of the year, they can tell immediately how close they came to meeting their objectives and they have made their reporting process simple.

Once designed, the information system is ready for those persons who will use the forms to review them for clarity, brevity, and appropriateness. Pretesting and redesigning follow. Once the forms are finally approved, personnel should be trained to use the system. Periodically, the administrator should run a quality control check to see whether the content is being recorded accurately and the information is reaching those who need it.

Conclusion

Records are meant to be decision-making tools for many parts of the organization, but they can be tools only if they are used, not stored on a shelf and never referred to again.

Since they are used in decision-making throughout the organization, good records are extremely important. But it is the administrator's responsibility to identify the information people need, and to select the measurements with which to provide the information. It is worthwhile to plan the record-keeping structure and process to eliminate keeping unnecessary, though tempting, data. This plan allows the

28

administrators to select the important items to be measured and thus greatly influences the decision made.

Resources

Bearley, William. "Why Systems Fail." U.S. Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, National Intitute of Education. University Microfilm. 1978.

Chapel, Patricia. "Keeping Track: Several Good Reasons Why You Should Go On Record," Voluntary Action Leadership, Summer 1979, pp. 31-33.

Drucker, Peter F. Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices. New York: Harper & Row, 1974.

Hasenfeld, Yeheshel, and Richard A. English, eds. Human Service Organizations. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, 1974.

Rossi, Peter H., Howard E. Freeman, and Sonia R. Wright. Evaluation: A Systematic Approach. Beverly Hills: Sage Publications, 1979.

Stevenson, John F. and Richard H. Longabaugh. "The Role of Evaluation in Mental Health." Evaluation Review, Vol. 4, No. 4. (August 1980).

29

A Master's Degree Emphasizing Volunteer Administration

by Lyla Brewer

Following retirement as a Volunteer Bureau executive director, I planned to pursue a Master of Arts Degree which would concentrate on volunteer administration. Two purposes were the basis for this plan: I) to acquire further education and better preparation to serve as an advisor or consultant to volunteer programs, and 2) to promote the interest of higher education in courses in volunteer administration. Established degrees such as a Master's in Business Administration or a Master's in Social Work would not have provided the special education necessary nor would they have called attention to the particular needs of the developing career field of volunteer administration; thus it was necessary to apply for a degree in a "Special Major," available to students whose needs cannot be accommodated by existing majors at California State University, Fresno.

For the Special Major, the student must assemble a committee of professors from various disciplines, identify with them the course of study in two or more fields, and gain the endorsement of the Graduate School before embarking on the master's degree program. In this case, one year elapsed between the proposal and its approval by the Graduate School, during which clarifications, revisions, meetings, explanatory interviews, and other obstacles were encountered. The proposed title of "Volunteer Program Management" was unacceptable to the Graduate School for the stated reason that

----

Lyla Brewer is a Board member and Notebook Editor for the Association of Volunteer Bureaus. Before and since her retirement as a Volunteer Bureau Executive Director she has been an involved participant in the field of volunteerism. She presently makes her home in Fresno, California.

none of the classes pertained to volunteers. The revised title of "Human Resources Development" eventually met with Graduate School approval.

In the interim, I took fifteen units of upper division undergraduate work under the mistaken supposition that they would be applied to the master's degree. They were not, but perhaps the fact that I was on campus and producing acceptable work was a factor in the final approval of the proposed program.

The approved program consisted of thirty-four units in the following courses:

Business	Seminar in Organizational Behavior
Business	Seminar in Personnel Management
Business	Executive Leadership
Health Science	Seminar in Administration of Health Science Programs
Journalism	Public Relations Practice
Recreation	Administration of Recreation for Special Populations
Social Work	Seminar in Small Group Behavior
Social Work	Social Planning and Administration
Social Work	Evaluative Research
Social Work	Thesis

The thesis subject was "Perceptions of Competencies for Volunteer Administration" and was a study to validate the nineteen competencies for volunteer administration approved by the members of the Association for Volunteer Administration as the basis for the performance-based assessment program for certification. The following is a summary of my methodology and findings.

Thesis Study: Perceptions of Competencies for Volunteer Administration

In 1979, the Association for Volunteer Administration approved a proposal for a performance-based assessment program for certification, which was founded on a set of nineteen competencies for performing in volunteer administration. When the certification program is implemented, it will influence the entire field of volunteer administration by establishing the nineteen competencies as standards against which performance will be measured and as guidelines for hiring and supervising volunteer administrators.

A question arises concerning the degree to which volunteer administrators outside the Association membership agree on the designation of the competencies, and the related question concerns the degree to which the executive directors in corresponding agencies agree on the competencies. According to estimates, some 70,000 to 80,000 individuals currently perform the functions of volunteer administration in agencies and organizations. The membership in the Association amounts to approximately eight hundred individuals, or about one percent of the total estimated population of the field of volunteer administration. While the eight hundred concur upon the designated nineteen competencies, there was no research on whether the competencies were also recognized as necessary by practicing volunteer administrators who do not have an affiliation with the Association. Research was also needed on the opinions of the persons responsible for hiring and supervising volunteer administrators in agencies.

A survey was made of the two populations: volunteer administrators and executive directors (or other persons responsible for employing and supervising volunteer administrators in human service organizations). The study was limited to volunteer administrators who spend the greater portion of their working hours performing the functions of volunteer administration, arbitrarily designated for the study as a minimum of twenty hours each week. The study also was limited to those volunteer administrators who perform their functions in the immediate geographic environs of Fresno County, California. Efforts were undertaken to insure that the entire population of volunteer administrators meeting the qualifications were identified, as well as the executive directors in the corresponding agencies.

The staff and records of the Volunteer Bureau of Fresno County, Inc., identified approximately 150 contact persons in community service agencies which have registered descriptions of requests for volunteers with the Bureau. Returned questionnaires eventually established that twenty-one persons actually performed as volunteer administrators for twenty or more hours each week. This procedure also elicited the names of sixteen executive directors in these respective agencies, the discrepancy as a result of some agencies employing more than one volunteer administrator and others having the volunteer administrator hired by a board or committee.

Each of the persons returned a completed questionnaire, so that the study was comprehensive and included literally all the professional, full-time volunteer administrators in the area. The name of each participant in the survey was cross-checked with the membership directory of the Association for Volunteer Administration, and none of the volunteer administrators or the executive directors was found to be affiliated with the organization.

Questionnaires were mailed to individuals meeting the criteria, requesting them to indicate if they found each competency to be "essential," "desirable," or "unimportant," and to add further competencies not included on the list. The information on the returned questionnaires was computed into mean ratings, frequencies, and percentages, and the figures were then examined to determine the relationships between: 1) the opinions of responding volunteer administrators and executive directors; 2) the comparison of responses of volunteer administrators and executive directors by size of program; 3) the rank order of the mean rating responses; and 4) additions to the list of competencies.

The following figure illustrates how volunteer administrators and executive directors rated each of the nineteen competencies:
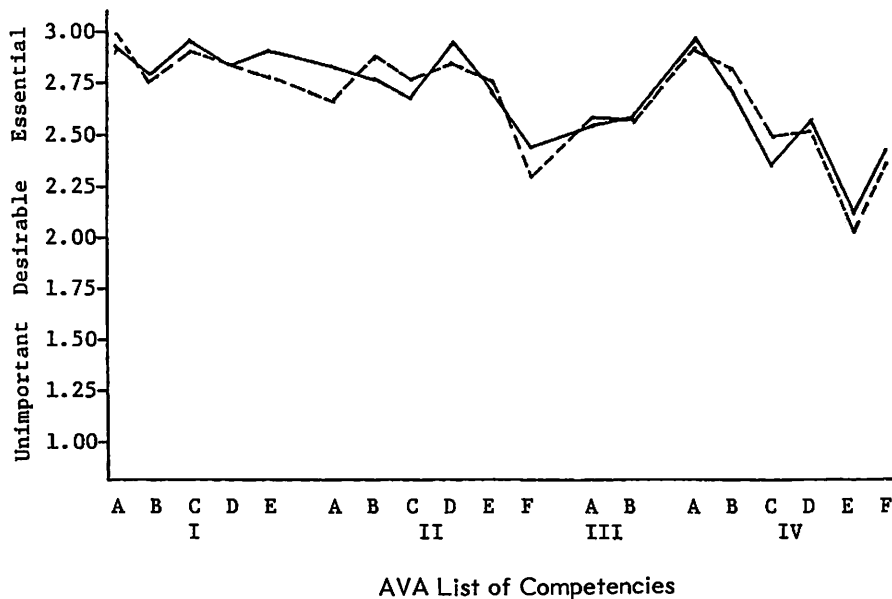
31

AVA List of Competencies

Figure I. Comparison of Mean Ratings of Volunteer Administrators and Executive Directors

Key:

_____ Volunteer Administrators
_____ Executive Directors

AVA List of Competencies:

I - Planning/organizing
A   knowledge of agency
B   planning capabilities
C   decision making
D   structures/procedures
E   delegating/coordinating

III - Controlling
A   evaluating
B   documenting

II - Staffing/directing
A   recruiting
B   selecting
C   developing
D   motivating/communicating
E   recognizing
F   transitioning away

IV - Relationships
A   people
B   groups
C   organizations/change
D   regulations
E   history/trends
F   knowledge of profession

The general conclusion drawn from the findings is that volunteer administrators who are not members of the Association for Volunteer Administration agree that the proposed competencies are necessary for performing as a volunteer administrator, and that executive directors in the corresponding agencies also agree on the necessity for the competencies. Sixteen of the nineteen competencies received ratings of "essential" by both volunteer administrators and executive directors, a positive endorsement and validation of eighty-four percent of the listed competencies. Furthermore, the list of nineteen competencies can be considered complete, as respondents to the survey did not suggest additions that were dissimilar to the list proposed by the Association. Finally, the unanimous return rate of responses demonstrated practitioner and employer interest and concern in the establishment of specific competencies for the professional practice of volunteer administration.

References

Rehnborg, S. J. "Assessing Skills as a Volunteer Administrator: A New Approach to Certification." Volunteer Administration, 12: 10-17. Fall, 1979.

_____. "Certification." Association for Volunteer Administration Newsletter, 18:3. November, 1979.

Scheier, I. H. Exploring Volunteer Space. Boulder, CO: Volunteer: The National Center for Citizen Involvement, 1980.

Editor's Note: The list of competencies under discussion in this article forms the basis of the Certification Project presently being piloted by the Association for Volunteer Administration. Further information about these competency areas and about the procedure for obtaining certification may be requested directly from AVA, P. O. Box 4584, Boulder, CO 80306.

33

INDEX TO VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION, VOLUME XIV (1981-2)

34

Smith, Nan H. and Gregory T. Berns. "Results of a National Survey of Recruitment and Motivation Techniques." No. 2, Summer 1981, pp. 1-4.

Taylor, Marilyn. "The Management of Community Resources." No. 1, Spring 1981, pp. 9-12.

Warner, Sharon. "It Can Work: A Volunteer Services Advisory Committee." No. 3, Fall 1981, pp. 19-20.

Whitham, Michele A. "When Partnership Fails: The Student as Victim." No. 1, Spring 1981, pp. 16-19.

Wokutch, Richard E. and Alex F. DeNoble. "Corporate Social Responsibility and Corporate Vounteerism." No. 2, Summer 1981, pp. 11-16.

35

THE 1982
NATIONAL CONFERENCE
ON VOLUNTEERISM

"SUPER CALIFORNIA FUTURISTIC EXPEDITIONS"
A GUIDED TOUR THROUGH THE
....FANTASIES
....FRONTIERS
....ADVENTURES AND
....TOMORROWS
OF VOLUNTEERISM

OCTOBER 20-23, 1982
DISNEYLAND HOTEL   ANAHEIM, CA

SPONSORED BY

AVA

Association for Volunteer Administration

FOR INFORMATION, CONTACT:

LINDA J. McKINNEY   AVA ADMINISTRATIVE OFFICE
AVA Conference Chair   or   P.O. Box 4584
5102 Cowell Blvd.   Boulder, CO 80306
Davis, CA 95616   (303)497-0238
(916)758-7824

36

The Final Word on Volunteer Administration: Looking Ahead

This issue marks both an ending and a beginning: Volunteer Administration, in its present form, ceases publication with this final number 4 of Volume XIV. As the Cumulative Index (Summer 1981) and the Index in this issue show, the past fourteen volumes have offered readers a vast array of articles by an impressive list of authors. Eeryone connected with Volunteer Administration during these past years hopes that the journal has provided our field of volunteerism with thought-provoking and useful information. Volunteer Administration will remain on our reference shelves for many more years, since its articles contain knowledge and concepts that define the state-of-the-art for our field.

It would violate all the principles of volunteer management to end this journal without giving recognition to the many volunteers who originated, shaped, developed, led, and managed it through these years. To all the Editors, Reviewers and contributing authors--a most sincere thank you for your efforts to create a meaningful publication. A resounding note of appreciation also goes to some of the "behind-the-scenes" people who shepherded the business and production side of this journal. All the detail work of subscription files, mailing lists, etc. required the attention of competent, caring individuals. A special bravo must go to Hilda Palm, who has served us so well for so long as Managing Editor.

But like the phoenix, a new publication is about to be born--a journal that will build upon all of the good things from the past, yet will move forward with the dynamic changes affecting the field of volunteerism. Later this year, the Association for Volunteer Administration will begin publishing The Journal of Volunteer Administration. Though this will mean a short break in the publishing calendar, it is anticipated that The Journal of Volunteer Administration will maintain continuity for its subscribers. It, too, will be produced quarterly. Readers will immediately notice changes in physical design and format. It is also planned to include more pages of articles as well as new, regular features. More importantly, The Journal of Volunteer Administration will be committed to printing a wide variety of innovative articles representing the full spectrum of our field. The Journal will be dedicated to stimulating the growth of volunteer administration as a profession and to becoming the major resource for anyone seeking to research volunteer adminis-tration.

As current subscribers to Volunteer Administration, you will automatically be entitled to as many issues of The Journal of Volunteer Administration as remain on your subscription record. When you have received as many issues of the new Journal as necessary to fulfill your right to four publications, you will be sent renewal information describing revised subscription costs. As before, all members of the Association for Volunteer Administration will continue to receive The Journal as a benefit of membership.

Should you have any questions regarding the transition from the old to the new publication, please write to us. Also, should you have any suggestions for us as we plunge into the preparation of The Journal of Volunteer Administration, please share your thoughts. This is an excellent time to consider the possibility of writing an article to submit for review. Guidelines for manuscript preparation are available upon request.

On behalf of those of us who are preparing this exciting new publication, I want to emphasize our enthusiasm and anticipation for the project. I hope that when The Journal of Volunteer Administration is in your hands in a few months, our efforts will meet with your approval. So here's to the past...and here's to the future...we're going there together!

Susan J. Ellis
Editor-in-Chief

VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATION
P.O. Box 4584
Boulder, Colorado 80306

Susan Ellis , Director
ENERGIZE
5450 Wissahickon Ave., Lobby A
Philadelphia, PA 19144