The Volunteer Management Handbook

The Volunteer Management Handbook

Leadership Strategies for Success

SECOND EDITION
EDITED BY
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To Faith Raymond Connors,
my beloved "volunteer
resource manager" for over 50 years

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Preface

Nonprofit organizations (NPOs) provide the majority of human services in the United States—collectively called "quality of life." Better management and leadership within these organizations directly contribute to an improved quality of life for millions of Americans. This has been the overarching goal of the many books, articles, and training courses that have been developed in recent years focused on NPO and volunteer management (Connors, 2010a).*

It has been slightly more than 30 years since the first *Nonprofit Organization Handbook* was published (Connors, 1980). The handbook's organization, fulfilled by 28 contributors, established for the first time the fact that regardless of the specific public service provided, not-for-profit organizations shared seven areas of management—from fundraising to volunteer administration.

"Volunteers: An Indispensable Human Resource in a Democratic Society" was the title of the section in the *NPO Handbook* that covered all major areas of volunteer management and administration. All five of the chapters in that section were written by Dr. Eva Schindler-Rainman, a gifted visionary in several fields. A brief overview of her remarkably accurate predictions made in 1980 about the world of volunteer resource management provides a benchmark against which we can both measure progress and chart a course into the future:

- Volunteers will be in every sector of the community, Schinder-Rainman predicted, all over the country, and they will be affecting policy making, changes, and growth.
- New courses will be offered in community colleges and universities for administrators of volunteer programs as well as for volunteers themselves.
- Credit will be given for volunteer work. (Agencies will keep track of what volunteers do so that volunteers can include this experience in their resumes.)
- Research on values and the effect of volunteers on the delivery of human services will increase.
- New collaborative bodies will emerge to utilize better the human and material resources that are available.
- New, portable, interesting, participative training programs for paraprofessionals, professionals, and volunteers will be developed.
- New ways to recognize volunteers will be developed (Schindler-Rainman, 1980, pp. 3–7).

* Portions of the introduction to the preface are based on a 2010 article by the author published in the *International Journal of Volunteer Administration* (Vol. 25, No. 1). Used with written permission of the editor of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration.*

"This is probably the most exciting time in the history of the United States to be active in the volunteer world," Dr. Schindler-Rainman concluded her prescient perspective. "These times offer a tremendous opportunity for volunteers to make important contributions to the quality of life and to human services in their communities. It is clear that the volunteer administrator is a key person in translating the motivation, interest, resources, and skills of volunteers into human services to the clients of our people-helping agencies and organizations."

The Present of Volunteer Resource Management

A work such as this handbook is designed for both the present and the future. As an "answer book" for volunteer resource management, it attempts to provide useful perspective and guidance for current issues as well as to anticipate—and cover—where possible, those trends, issues, and developments that lie ahead for this important area of management.

Despite the challenges and pressures of America's struggling economy, Americans are still volunteering in record numbers. Their generosity and willingness to serve their communities account for a significant proportion of the enormous variety of human services provided by the nation's voluntary action sector. As our economy has slowed and charities have struggled to provide services based on budgets that were ever more constrained, volunteers have become even more vital to the health of our communities and their ability to sustain quality of life for their citizens. Most charities that use volunteers to provide all or a portion of their public services and mission fulfillment report they are increasing the number of volunteers they use. This further validates how important volunteers are to any nation depending on voluntary action organizations to provide an astonishing variety of services on which many aspects of national quality of life are based. In addition to the invaluable services delivery contributions volunteers provide, they are also much more likely than nonvolunteers to donate to a charitable cause.

Assessments and Projections

As we move into the second decade of the 21st century, any assessment and projection of volunteer resource management should begin with the professionals currently leading in this important field. Much of this overview is derived from a 2010–2011 "Future of Volunteer Resource Management Study" conducted by the author to provide new, more specific data from volunteer resource manager (VRM) professionals (Connors, 2010). The data were derived from a convenience sample but represented a wide range of VRM professionals across the country and from Canada, England and Australia. The generalized findings were used to support initiatives by the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration, ARNOVA, and the Florida Association of Volunteer Managers.

A profile for a typical respondent to the survey would include these characteristics:

- Annual budget over $500,000.
- Volunteer program size range from 100 to more than 250 volunteers.
- Staff size range from 10 to more than 25.

- The majority of respondents conducted program operations in metropolitan areas of 100,000 to more than 500,000 residents.
- More than half of the respondents (52%) were currently serving in volunteer resource management positions, with strong representation from others serving as academic faculty (14%), executive directors (12%), or consultants (10%).
- A significant majority (64%) reported more than 15 to 20 years' experience in the field of volunteer resource management and in nonprofit management (56%).
- Virtually all respondents reported professional affiliations at local, state, and national levels.
- Professional responsibilities largely included volunteer resource management (85%), but many were also charged with responsibilities in such areas as resource development (63%), human resource management (41%), NPO management (44%), or as a member of the board of directors (29%).
- Finally, a majority (53%) expressed a preference for the professional title of "manager/director of volunteer resources," followed by "director of volunteer services" (20%).

Resources Needed by Volunteer Resource Managers

A convincing majority of the respondents requested additional resources in such areas as:

- Distance education courses in volunteer management (75%)
- Graduate courses in volunteer resource development/management (66%)
- Undergraduate courses in volunteer resource development/management (56%)
- Distance education courses in NPO/charitable organization management (54%)
- Graduate courses in NPO/charitable organization management (54%)

Career Progression

Volunteer resource management was seen very strongly (90%) as an important credential and career stepping-stone to senior management positions in the voluntary action organization. Barriers remain, however, for most VRMs in their efforts to have programs recognized for their true potential as a major contributor to the organization's strategic objectives. For example, most managers (48%) have inadequate access to the organization's chief executive and operating officers. Other managers need more training in such management areas as strategic planning and implementation (71%). Many volunteer resource programs remain underappreciated and underdeveloped regarding their strategic potential to the organization's ability to fulfill its public service mission. Finally, the great majority of VRMs (84%) reported not being included in top-level planning by the senior management team. The latter can easily become the proverbial self-fulfilling prophecy and argument in circulo. "We don't invite our volunteer coordinator to senior staff meetings because the volunteer program doesn't generate any funds, and has little connection or relevance to our organization's big picture operations."

Most of us will clearly see the fallacy of such "reasoning." Without having a better understanding of the organization's big picture, the VRM will find it a challenge, to say the least, to connect the dots between the volunteer program and other program activities and organizational goals and therefore to optimize the potential to contribute more fully to the organization's mission fulfillment. In many NPOs, the personnel person at senior staff meetings is typically the human resources manager. There could be many reasons why this individual—responsible for paid staff—might not see his or her responsibility as that of an advocate for the volunteer resource program and its role in the organization's operations. Until the volunteer resource management position is that of a department head, far too many nonprofits will fail to fully realize and develop the potential inherent in their corps of volunteers. There needs to be "a greater sense of volunteer resource management as a management-level responsibility within organizations—not simply tacked on to some other job description or relegated to non-decision-makers" (Connors, 2010b).

Senior Executive Track

Within the field of NPO management, there is growing recognition that successful managerial experience as a VRM should be more highly valued as a qualifier for senior executive positions. A related awareness is how important the volunteer resource program is to the organization's ability to fulfill its mission, as evidenced by the increasing number of organizations that establish volunteer position descriptions that are highly correlated to their mission, purpose, and strategic plan.

Even as the number of business and public administration courses focusing on volunteer resource management is increasing, wasteful and shortsighted misconceptions at the organizational level can be found in too many nonprofits: for example, "We need a volunteer administrator to schedule volunteers for open shifts." However, more organizations are recognizing volunteer resource management as a department head–level organizational function, alongside development, marketing, and operations. A broader awareness and understanding regarding the contributions of VRMs to organizational success recognizes the shortcomings of prior assumptions, such as "volunteer management [is not as important as other departments because it] doesn't generate any money for the organization." In fact, volunteer resources, when given the full assessment they deserve regarding their many contributions to overall organization mission fulfillment, are seen as vital components of services delivery, membership recruitment, donor base, and community image/support.

Volunteer resource management is not only seeing stronger trends of professionalism within the field but is increasingly recognized as a stepping-stone to more senior responsibilities within the organization. However, preparing current VRMs for future senior executive positions will require more diversification of their education and experience to include much of the same managerial knowledge base now available to and expected in more senior leaders of charitable organizations. It will also require moving from a predominant management perspective, to a leadership perspective regarding volunteer resources.

Meanwhile, career burnout and turnover issues are seen as major problems (87%), and their causes remain to be addressed, including: budget cutbacks (65%), inadequate salaries for VRMs (72%), burnout (72%), and lack of career progression identification (i.e., establish an identified career track for VRMs to senior nonprofit management positions) (75%). Other contributors to turnover (20%) include: lack of respect "within the management structure"; "lack of value for what we do"; funding positions on "soft money," thus adding doubt about future commitment and continuity; unrealistic expectations by chief executives and executive directors expressed by "the more, the better" mentality; and lack of positive feedback: "[I]f the person isn't getting positive feedback from the organization, there is no payback—people move on!" (Connors, 2010b).

Expanding Options and Opportunities

Opportunities for volunteer engagement and participation are growing in number and in scope. In addition to traditional volunteer opportunities, most organizations have seen the inherent value in expanding their opportunities for episodic volunteering, virtual volunteering, and corporate volunteering. These new opportunities have required additional management responsibilities for professional VRMs and more focus on internal coordination to ensure effectiveness.

The population and cohort bases from which potential volunteers are drawn are expected to steadily expand. The number of active volunteers is projected to increase more rapidly among such groups as "boomers" and minority populations, many of whom have not traditionally been greatly involved in volunteerism. More seniors and early retirees are expected to participate in the volunteer service experience. Increases are also projected in episodic and group volunteering, coupled with significant increases in the use of social media to communicate with volunteers and to build organizational relationships. Also, unemployed individuals may represent significant potential volunteer resources as they maintain professional skills, add additional resume competencies, and remain meaningfully engaged in worthy activities supporting their community.

International Volunteering Trends

As the capacities of the social media grow to include ever-improving capabilities to coordinate basically spontaneous responses, a new type of international volunteer is appearing. Some have referred to them as "spontaneours"—unaffiliated or entrepreneurial volunteers—particularly for involvement in disaster relief. How will volunteer resource management deal with this type of volunteer and opportunity—how do we attract and engage these independent, individualistic, creative individuals, and to what extent should we involve them in our organization and the structure or adapt our programs to fit their emerging needs? As these spontaneours and other volunteers with a global focus continue to serve in expanding international roles—some having global reach and impact—what changes, if any, do we see ahead in such areas as management practices, training, education, and program planning?

For those countries lacking terms or concepts for volunteerism, should we not develop definitions, roles, and complementary core values that promote more effective transference of volunteerism across cultural lines to fulfill its international potential? We must also be alert to the concerns expressed by some who are dubious of international roles for volunteers and their impact on more locally focused nonprofits. Whether considered at the community-based or international levels, volunteers are partners, collaborators, hands-on providers of human services working in a local context. To some, the global reach and impact of volunteerism appears to be and "feels like" activism. Volunteers for these international causes or organizations are seen to be energized by a much broader and more complex set of motivators than are local volunteers.

Professional Development Evolution

Nonprofits with highly successful volunteer resource management programs report strong correlations between the results achieved by those programs and the professional training and experience of their VRMs. In short, successful volunteer management programs—those that contribute significantly to the organization's success in fulfilling its mission—are strongly correlated to the education, training, and experience of their professional VRMs. Can that really be surprising?

Overall, professional development opportunities for VRMs are expanding and improving, with colleges and universities adding a growing number of training and education opportunities. However, their quality, comprehensiveness, and consistency need continuing focus by national organizations.

As the field of volunteer resource management continues to evolve and mature, we should align our efforts to bring more consistency across the discipline, particularly in training and education. The continuing national dialogue regarding the importance and future of volunteer resource management should bring about more general agreement regarding the role and relationship of volunteers throughout the organization, more agreement on the overall business model for the field, and more agreement regarding the overall body of effective management principles and practices.

Professional development evolution career ladders for VRMs should be identified, defined, and supported by higher education and credentialing to provide not only fundamental skills but meaningful professional development.

Fortunately, volunteer resource management is now far more frequently recognized as a professional specialty, and the tools and opportunities for acquiring professional credentials, education, and status are increasingly available. Currently, and we hope temporarily, in many areas, the need for volunteer managers has outpaced the ability of the professional VRM pipeline to provide enough qualified professionals. Many organizations have resorted to filling what should be a post for a VRM with a far less experienced and qualified staff member to serve as a volunteer coordinator or volunteer administrator. Providing adequate professional development education and training in this field will remain a challenge for the foreseeable future.

Additional research is needed to demonstrate the value added and the significant impact of effective strategic volunteer engagement. Concurrent research is needed to identify and quantify the additional value added provided by professional VRMs versus those lacking that education, training, or experience.

The training, education, management, and more effective leadership of volunteers should be better understood and recognized as vital contributors to the organizational effectiveness of charities whose human services help our societies achieve and sustain meaningful quality of life. This point also argues strongly in favor of a higher priority for professional development of the VRM.

Adaptive Management Practices

Successful VRMs are learning to be more effective while managing and leading within dynamic, fluid program environments that often require direct and immediate responses to constantly changing local needs or organizational priorities affected by an evolving, and sometimes threatening, operating environment. For example, VRMs will need to hone program management skills that will enable them to recruit and manage volunteers remotely through such media as social networking. Further, many VRMs are managing programs that rely more heavily on short-term volunteers, since fewer volunteers are able—or willing—to commit to long-term volunteer engagement. VRMs must be prepared to deal with larger numbers of volunteers on a short-term basis. This reality also requires additional attention to such factors as risk management (increasing scrutiny of program activities for potential liability), appropriate training, and scheduling—more volunteers cannot commit to a fixed schedule. Finally, many volunteers see themselves more as partners than as resources to be managed.

The ongoing national focus on improved efficiency, effectiveness, transparency, and accountability by all nonprofits—with particular emphasis on those organizations that accept public funding—will also affect volunteer resource programs. This national focus will be reflected within volunteer resource management by sharpened interest in our ability to measure program outcomes, and to demonstrate the overall value of volunteer participation. A potential danger here rests in the use of models and program measures derived from the for-profit sector that may not represent an appropriate fit when applied to human services delivery by public charities.

Program Planning Trends

Volunteer position descriptions will need to be carefully considered not only for their relevance and correlation to organizational mission fulfillment and strategic planning but also in their ability to interest and attract volunteers who will not be satisfied with envelope-stuffing responsibilities. Today's volunteers increasingly seek service opportunities offering some growth or learning potential or that might offer some potential for a paid position. Not surprisingly, volunteers want to know what they accomplish for the organization or its clients (i.e., what difference they made as a result of their service). Further, many volunteers see themselves as not simply drudges but as leaders and decision makers who feel strong connections to the organization, its mission, and its overall contribution to the community's quality of life.

Technology Vistas

Technology will continue to offer more efficient and effective options within volunteer resource management for those professionals willing to stay abreast of evolving applications and to consider innovative approaches to its programmatic use. For example, it is clear that the ability of advancing technology and networking capabilities to provide instant access to information and coordination through communication is vital to both volunteers and VRMs. We can expect to see more results and program success attributed to a creative focus on effective use of information management and communication technology throughout the volunteer resource management process—from recruiting and accession, and options and scheduling, to recognition and program evaluation.

Advances in communications and information management technologies have made it possible for many organizations to move to less in-person training by the volunteer manager to more training on the job and/or online, much of it coordinated by volunteers supervised by the professional manager.

Synergy of Personal Contact

While there is no denying the power of the growing number of social networking media available for use in a volunteer resource management program, many practitioners remain convinced that people miss the powerful synergy of personal contact—a phone call, a knock at the door, reaching out. Why else, they ask, do so many volunteer organizations and centers have such great success with a weekly or monthly coffee club as recruiting and orientation opportunities for programs and projects? How can such retro ideas such as neighborhood groups and block parties be successfully integrated with the resources inherent in social networking?

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Growth of Volunteer Resource Programs

The great majority of the nation's NPOs (those with incomes above $25,000 annually in gross receipts) depend on volunteers to provide an enormous range of services that are essential to the organizations in fulfilling their public service missions. In addition, volunteers brought significant benefits to 90% of these major nonprofits, with two-thirds reporting substantial cost savings and increased quality of services and programs (AFP eWire, 2004).

Clearly, every day across the United States, countless numbers of NPOs are either considering starting a volunteer resource management program for their organization or assessing their current program to ensure that every possible contribution it might make to the organization's mission fulfillment is optimized. As Pynes (2009) explains:

> *[V]olunteers are an attractive resource for agencies because they cost little, can give detailed attention to people for whom paid employees do not always have the time, often provide specialized skills, provide an expansion of staff in emergencies and peak load periods, enable agencies to expand levels of service despite budgetary limitations, and are good for public relations."* (p. 117)

Walls to Bridges

Information technology (IT) continues to change and expand the ways in which the world communicates, leads and manages, and interacts. Today we consider a wide variety of social media as business as usual and expect to be able to access virtually every product, and most information, online and retrievable at a moment's notice. Yet a few moments' reflection will bring to mind the fact that not long ago, these expectations were barely conceived, much less considered commonplace.

Not long ago, a book or publication was considered through a long lens that stretched back to Gutenberg and the days of hand-carved wooden type. In a relatively short period of time, as a direct result of advancing information technology that has brought us instant online access and retrieveability, our concept of a publication has expanded far beyond that of printed pages contained within a front and back cover.

Traditional publishing requires creation of a printed-on-paper, bound-with-plasticized-covers, "linear" product that must be boxed, stored, shipped/handled, and "consumed" cover to cover. These ever more costly attributes increasingly represent walls for reader/users, subject matter experts wishing to share their expertise, and publishers trying to meet the needs of their customers for answers and information. Digital publishing offers significant advantages through its economical use of resources, availability, and online access for users to up-to-date information and the ability to include the perspectives and viewpoints of more subject matter experts in a single "publication." In fact, the advantages of digital publishing are changing the former walls of traditional publishing into bridges to the future.

Modeling the Future of Volunteer Resource Management

The second edition of the *Volunteer Management Handbook* takes full advantage of the expanding capabilities offered by IT and digital publishing. A work such as the handbook is designed for both the present and the future. As an "answer book" for volunteer resource management, it attempts to provide useful perspective and guidance for current issues as well as to anticipate—and cover—where possible, those trends, issues, and developments that lie ahead for this important area of management.

The volunteer resource management cycle is a process that begins with organizational assessment and planning and concludes with volunteer program assessments to evaluate its effectiveness and to incorporate those findings into program improvements. Exhibit I.1 illustrates the fundamentals of volunteer resource management (despite the limitations of a linear diagram). The illustration suggests the general phases and sequence of the typical, cyclical process. Volunteer resource management should not be considered a one-time process or exercise. Instead, volunteer resource management planning in various forms and degrees should reflect an ongoing, dynamic, iterative process that would be more accurately represented by a diagram such as that first proposed by Walter Edward Shewart in 1939.

Sometimes called the Shewhart cycle or the (W. Edwards) Deming wheel, after the acknowledged founder of quality management, it is most often referred to as the PDCA cycle, or Plan-Do-Check-Act (Scherkenbach, 1990). In this case, a PDCA approach to volunteer resource management planning moves cyclically through four stages: assessment/analysis; planning; strategic deployment and implementation; and results and evaluation. The assessment-planning-implementation-evaluation process for volunteer resource management begins with organizational assessment and planning and concludes with volunteer program assessments to evaluate its

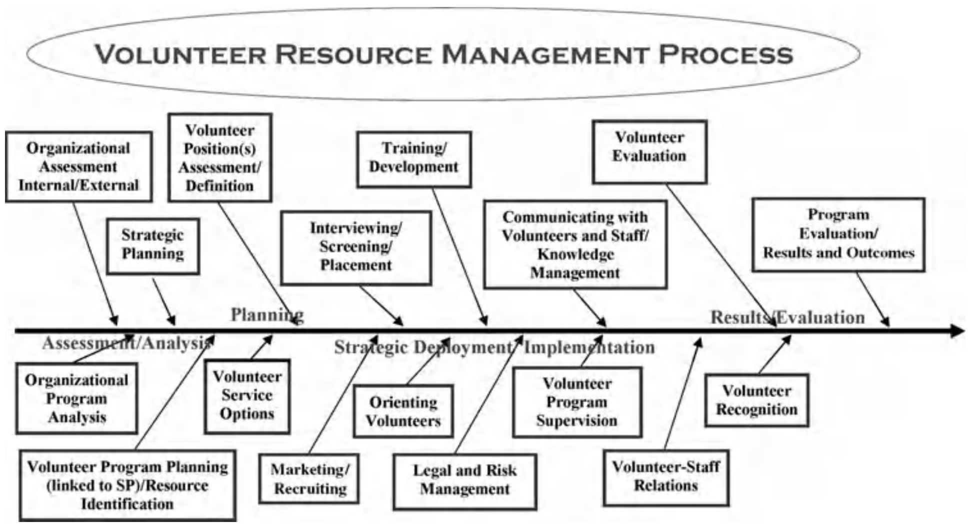

EXHIBIT I.1 Volunteer Resource Management Process

effectiveness—measurement and analysis to determine the extent to which the plan was achieving the results intended. Fact-based decisions can then be used to adjust or revise the plan as needed to ensure continued movement in the direction of mission fulfillment. Finally, these data become decisions that are applied as program improvements—that are then plugged into another cycle of assessment and analysis (i.e., continuous process improvement).

As the Ishikawa ("fishbone") diagram in Exhibit I.1 illustrates, the fundamental management model for NPOs can be seen as including four stages: assessment/analysis, planning, strategic deployment/implementation, and results/evaluation. Safrit and Schmiesing provide additional detail and perspective regarding volunteer resource management business process models in Chapter 1, "Volunteer Models and Management."

The basic stages and typical sequence of volunteer resource management activity include:

- Volunteer policy making
- Planning and staff analysis
- Options for volunteer service (including episodic, online/virtual, and traditional modes)
- Recruitment, screening, orientation, and training
- Supervision
- Legal and risk management
- Communications
- Volunteer and staff relations
- Program evaluation
- Rewards and recognition (Connors, 2009).

The volunteer resource management business model serves as the structural and content framework for the *Volunteer Management Handbook, Second Edition.*

Chapter topics and contributors were sought for each major business area. Further, chapters were organized, in general and where possible, to follow the flow or sequence of the model, thus suggesting a general management (and instructional) sequence. Contributors were urged to keep praxis as a major objective—the translation and application of theory to practice in NPO management. For those of us who are faced daily with real-world issues and services delivery requirements, this practical knowledge grounded in theory will be highly useful.

Annotated Volunteer Resource Management Model

The handbook, its chapters, and their authors are summarized next in the context of the volunteer resource management model around which the book is organized. As both a print and digital publication, the *Volunteer Management Handbook* is able to offer the strongest value for its readers and users by taking the fullest advantage of online access provided by ever-expanding IT capabilities and digital publishing. Digital chapters can be accessed from the Web site (www.wiley.com/go/volhandbook). (See "About the Web Site" at the back of this book.)

Part I: Volunteer Resource Program Assessment, Analysis, and Planning

Organizational Assessment/Planning

Chapter 1: Volunteer Models and Management
R. Dale Safrit, EdD, and Ryan Schmiesing, PhD

Chapter 1 introduces and defines the concept of volunteer management to establish a foundation of relevant management definitions, business model comparisons, and how they interrelate with the concepts of volunteer and volunteerism. The authors provide an important and fundamental definition of volunteer management as "the systematic and logical process of working with and through volunteers to achieve the organization's objectives in an ever-changing environment." Historical models of volunteer management are explained, with attention paid to their major contributions to theory and practice, culminating in an in-depth description of the PEP model of volunteer administration: (personal) *p*reparation, (volunteer) *e*ngagement, and (program) *p*erpetuation. The authors conclude the discussion of volunteer resource management models by identifying and sequencing competencies and management activities, urging that as practices change—as they inevitably will to reflect changes in the operating environment for NPOs—degree and certification programs should incorporate these changes into their curricula to ensure relevancy and high levels of individual preparation for the workforce.

Chapter 2: Volunteer Demographics
Harriett C. Edwards, EdD, R. Dale Safrit, EdD, and Kimberly Allen, PhD

Chapter 2 explores the concept of volunteer demographics from three perspectives: Volunteer demographics in the United States are described for 2010 (as well as selected demographic trends since 1974); volunteer demographics are approached from the perspective of human development across the life span, with accompanying critical implications for volunteerism and volunteer management based on specific periods of human development; and volunteer demographics are discussed based on the contemporary theory of generational cohorts, again with accompanying critical implications for volunteerism and volunteer management based on specific generational cohorts.

The authors provide a framework combining both theory and practice that underscores the importance of understanding and considering demographics as the matrix within which "the larger stage on which the theater of volunteerism is enacted." Further, the authors correlate important demographic considerations with proven management practices to, using their own analogy, establish a beautiful quilt that creates synergy through combining individual blocks.

Chapter 3: Preparing the Organization for Volunteers
Jeffery L. Brudney, PhD

"In their eagerness to reap the benefits of volunteer participation, organizational leadership may overlook the groundwork necessary to create and sustain a viable volunteer program," Brudney points out in Chapter 3. "Although understandable, this tendency can jeopardize the potential advantages . . . increase problem areas."

Brudney explains why governance leaders are well advised to weigh the costs and benefits of volunteer participation in ways that support the organization's ability to fulfill its mission and to establish reasonable expectations for these programs. For example, the rationale and goals for the volunteer program should establish the basis for why volunteer involvement matters to the organization—is the fundamental question "Why are we doing this?" Paid staff should be meaningfully involved in helping to design the volunteer resource program, thus ensuring smoother program implementation and more effective operation. Thought should be given to how the volunteer resource program and its participants will be incorporated into the organization structure—for example, housing and management. Leadership positions should be developed that outline responsibilities and provide directions for the new volunteer program. "To the degree that leadership undertakes these activities, the organization should avoid the potential pitfalls and generate the considerable benefits of volunteer involvement," Brudney concludes.

Digital A: Volunteer Management of Governance Volunteers
Keith Seel, PhD, CVA

The term "governance volunteers" typically refers to members of the NPO's board of directors. There are an estimated 5 to 7 million governance volunteers serving on boards of directors in North America. These volunteers serve their organizations and their communities based on the requirements of their states or provinces relating to incorporation. Seel explains and outlines the general frameworks that defined the roles and responsibilities of governance volunteers. He also correlates the core competencies of volunteer resource management with governance domains to identify connections and linkages between the two areas of responsibility. Significantly, he explains how knowledgeable VRMs can use their experience to improve the overall functioning of boards of directors.

Seel makes the case for more effective bridging between the worlds of governance and volunteer resource management in ways that help bring about more positive outcomes for the NPO. Governance volunteers will benefit from the knowledge and skills of a professional VRM, he emphasizes. On matters of policy or risk management, he stresses the importance of consistency and integration across all levels of volunteer engagement. Finally, he emphasizes and explains the reasons behind why human resource assets of the organization—both volunteers and staff—can and should be deployed more effectively to accomplish the organization's mission.

Chapter 4: Shaping an Organizational Culture of Employee and Volunteer Commitment

Judith A. M. Smith, DM

NPOs successfully recruit volunteers based on such factors as their compelling missions, a charismatic leader, or whether the particular volunteer position represents an ideal match of the skills and services they have to offer. Very soon after new volunteers join the organization, they begin to experience the organization's culture. The invisible hand of organizational culture, as Smith explains, will determine whether new volunteers will internalize the organization's goals and values, whether they will exert their best efforts on behalf of the organization, and whether they will develop a commitment to the organization, its programs, and its mission.

Conversely, the organization's culture can have a negative influence on volunteers and turn them away from the organization and in the direction of other options—ranging from volunteering within the different organization to using their discretionary time in a different way. In short, organizational culture matters a great deal, and its dynamics need to be understood by all of the organization's leaders, perhaps in particular by the VRM. Smith outlines the dynamics and concepts of organizational culture and explains why it is a major challenge to make genuine cultural changes within any organization.

Smith offers a four-dimensional cultural assessment model and analytical tool that incorporates physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual components and suggests why these dimensions are useful to better understand an organizational culture.

Digital B: Understanding the Changing Organization as a Primary Context for Volunteering

Judith A. M. Smith, DM

NPOs, certainly including the volunteer resource programs used in most to provide a substantial part of their human services delivery, are operating in a chaotic world, where rapid change verging on chaos has become the new status quo. As Smith correctly points out, the roles of the individual volunteer and of the VRM are undergoing fundamental change as a reflection of the changes the organization itself must make in order to survive and to fulfill its mission.

Smith summarizes the evolution of organizational structure from the dawn of the industrial age through contemporary times. Having established a basis for comparison, she offers us a glimpse of tomorrow's organizations. She concludes by explaining the perspective to be gained from each of the industrial era theories, including the evolution of bureaucracy "as the crowning achievement of the industrial era." This generation is privileged, she explains, to be offered the challenges inherent in dealing successfully with the reality of a new world of management, one evolving during our lifetime, and reshaping our organizational operations and structure with new ways of obtaining and using information, IT, and information networks. The world is changing, the organizational work is changing, the role of the worker is changing, the worker is changing, and the volunteer workforce is changing as a reflection of the milieu from which they come forward to serve their communities. Smith explains this historical and organizational context in ways that help our VRMs better optimize the value that volunteers can add to our organizations and their contributions to quality of life.

Digital C: Organizational and Programmatic Benefits from Adversity: Comprehending the Centrality of the Role of Adverse Experiences in and on the NPO and Its Programs

Elizabeth Power, MEd

Adversity, and how we learn from it and respond to it, is the focus of this thought-provoking and insightful chapter. Power addresses the backdrop of adverse experiences and how they influence individuals, organizations, and programs; how they can manifest themselves in the organizational environment; and how organizations can establish a culture conscious of the span of experience that includes adversity as a factor in its dynamics.

Many NPOs, or programs within them, were launched to turn adverse experiences into positive action. Adversity, as Power points out, has many faces and has the ability, regardless of how resilient an individual, an organization, or community might be, to affect all areas of life. Her discussion of organizational culture change focuses on assessing the culture to determine its current state, defining the desired future state, then identifying and implementing the actions needed to achieve and sustain the envisioned culture. The experience-informed organization is aware and mindful of the presence, power, and impact of favorable as well as adverse experiences on the people with whom it is involved.

Adversity can, and often does, affect volunteer program cycles. The astute VRM understands that volunteer programs should incorporate the reality "that people do the work they do for reasons often related to the cause," and that often includes adverse experiences. Power suggests the importance of incorporating known best practices from other fields—such as that of trauma-informed care—into volunteer programs where appropriate.

Awareness of the role of adversity in affecting the behavior of individuals and organizational culture can and should lead to program strategies and tactics that reduce the stress of working with impacted persons, increase the quality of interactions at all levels, and contribute to overall stakeholder wellness. Models from the trauma-informed care foster responses based on collaboration, organizational and individual self-care, and practical parallels between the elements common to those models and an organization's stated and operative processes.

Operational Assessment and Planning

Chapter 5: Maximizing Volunteer Engagement

Sarah Jane Rehnborg, PhD, and Meg Moore, MBA

Leaders of organizations engaging volunteers to help deliver human services and thus support the organization's mission should have an expansive conceptualization of volunteering. They need to understand the complex interactions between the needs and goals of the organization (or the cause it serves) and the expectations and concerns of those delivering services "of their own free will"—volunteers.

Rehnborg and Moore offer the Volunteer Involvement Framework (weighing opportunities, challenges, and risks) as a means to better understand contemporary themes in volunteer engagement and to organize the information to assist in job design, recruitment, and decision making. This framework helps guide volunteer managers, executive directors, and board leaders in establishing their volunteer engagement practices, identifying service opportunities, and dealing with staffing and management issues. With the proper information, the framework can serve as a basis to conceptualize a comprehensive, diverse, sustainable, volunteer engagement initiative.

The process of recruiting volunteers begins with the organization's assessment and analysis of the current or projected volunteer program. The analysis must give adequate consideration and forethought to how volunteers fit within and contribute to the organization's larger mission and, further, how the envisioned future state of volunteer engagement aligns with other organizational strategic goals, thus creating a sustainable foundation for ultimate success. The authors outline a highly useful and original template for planning or reassessing your organization's volunteer-engagement strategy.

Chapter 6: Assessment, Planning, and Staffing Analysis

Cheryle N. Yallen, MS, and Barbara K. Wentworth, MS

Assessment, planning, and staffing analysis represent three vital areas within volunteer program management and leadership. Authors Cheryle Yallen and Barbara Wentworth review the many benefits and contributions that an effective volunteer resource management program can make to the organization's mission fulfillment. Developing and sustaining a successful volunteer resources program also presents challenges, ranging from adequate financial resources and building support from the board and staff, to investing insightful planning in the program's definition and deployment. After reviewing major demographic sources of volunteers and typical opportunities for volunteer service, the authors stress the importance of preprogram assessment, alignment with the organization's mission and vision, and consideration of those benefits and challenges inherent in a volunteer program (e.g., required resources).

A strategic job analysis includes the process of identifying the specific tasks to be performed, including the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other (KSAO) characteristics that are required to perform the newly defined position successfully. KSAOs should be prepared and in place for all current and projected volunteer positions and should be highly aligned and correlated with the organization's strategic plan, goals, and objectives.

The authors outline the process of competency modeling that identifies the specific competencies that characterize high-performance and success in any given job. These, too, should be aligned with the organization's strategic objectives. A volunteer position analysis includes competency modeling, position descriptions, and position specifications to ensure its effectiveness and alignment with the organization's strategic objectives. The authors include a strategic position analysis/competency template to assist readers in preparing job descriptions (basically summarizing the analysis) that help ensure greater success in recruiting the most qualified individuals for positions that will clearly advance the organization's mission efforts.

Chapter 7: Policy Development for Volunteer Involvement
Linda L. Graff, BSW, MA

Policies are developed to guide decisions and actions, articulate guiding principles, and identify expectations. Policies define limits and outline responsibilities within an organization, and can be prepared at almost any level and for almost any structural or operational area. Author Linda Graff discusses policies and procedures in the context of volunteer program management as they apply to all voluntary action organizations and all volunteer roles.

Far too many nonprofits operate with few, if any, volunteer resource management policies in place. This is a risky practice at best if we agree that policies are "critical to effective volunteer involvement, quality programming, excellence in service provision, increased productivity, and greater volunteer satisfaction." These are all positive outcomes of good policy development.

If sustained superior organizational performance is insufficient to motivate policy development, potential risk and legal consequences inherent to inadequate policy should compel immediate and sustained attention to this highly important element of volunteer program infrastructure. Further, national trends will surely continue, if not accelerate, in the direction of increased accountability and transparency by voluntary organizations. These trends, combined with ever-higher standards of due diligence, demand greater attention by nonprofits to policies and procedures that guide the effective, efficient, and accountable management of all their programs, including volunteer resource management.

The author defines policies and why they are needed and offers a useful explanation of the policy development process, with particular attention on how to write policies for volunteer programs. Several sections offer concrete strategies to ensure good policies are also understood and followed, and the author concludes with helpful observations on successful introduction of well-written policy. Throughout, the practicality of this chapter is enhanced with the inclusion of dozens of sample policies that illuminate both the art and the science of effective policy writing. Clearly, policies and procedures are crucial risk management tools, but they also enhance the effectiveness of volunteer involvement and the management of volunteer programs by communicating values and beliefs, articulating rules, identifying standards and expectations, and establishing boundaries, all of which support the work of individual volunteers while enhancing productivity, safety, and volunteer satisfaction.

Digital D: Options for Volunteer Involvement

Bryan D. Terry, PhD, Amy M. Harder, PhD, and Dale W. Pracht, PhD

The authors focus on the options for volunteer involvement by reviewing the factors that influence involvement. They begin by examining volunteer behavior in a way similar to how a market system relates to consumer behavior (including a review of the volunteer life cycle), then follow with a perspective on volunteerism created by reviewing the social, economic, and cultural trends that drive the voluntary sector. Important insights are offered into the social, economic, and cultural trends and advancements in technology that impact the options for volunteer involvement—types of volunteer involvement have changed over time—and can now be characterized by what they do, how they serve, who is volunteering, and physical location. The chapter concludes by suggesting that social, economic, and cultural change and technological advancement are factors that successful nonprofits should consider in deciding to expand and enrich their volunteer management programs—primarily by engaging a professional VRM or providing additional professional development opportunities for an existing position incumbent.

Digital E: Managing Voluntourism

Muthusami Kumaran, PhD, and Joanna Pappas

Voluntourism combines leisure travel with various types and durations of voluntary activities by the traveler at the destination site. In various forms, what is now known as voluntourism has been practiced for many years; however, the option of voluntary service has gained in popularity following its promotion by host organizations and others (e.g., the tourism industry).

The authors review important aspects of voluntourism to provide both perspective and actionable information on this fast-growing form of volunteering and its use by VRMs. Following a review of its history and trends, the motivations of voluntourists are explored, as well as the roles and responsibility of voluntourism operators and host organizations. Including voluntourism in a volunteer resource program also requires specific attention to such areas as recruitment, orientation, and training of the voluntourists.

Voluntourism programs offer a number of advantages, but prudent VRMs also understand and deal with potential issues, such as:

- Inadequate planning resulting in dissatisfaction
- Overly optimistic expectations in conflict with realities that can result in a sense of failure
- Inadequate on-site coordination resulting in project failure
- Inadequate living arrangements

- Challenging safety or health conditions
- Inadequate links with the destination community, resulting in negativity toward all involved

Voluntourism is a growing segment of the broader area of international voluntarism, and can be an effective program through which nonprofits deliver services in developing countries. Consideration by VRMs of both benefits and issues will help ensure that voluntourism continues to emerge and expand as an alternative domain where voluntarism and tourism can work together to achieve shared objectives.

Part II: Strategic Deployment and Implementation

Accession

Chapter 8: The Latest Approach to Volunteer Recruitment: Competency-Competence Pathways and Volunteer Resource Management Systems
Stephen Hobbs, EdD

"Volunteers are the lifeblood of a volunteer-based organization. While the organization mission, vision, and values are the backbone, the staff, the skeletal system, the clients, the organs of the body, and the community, the skin, it is the lifeblood-sharing efforts of the volunteers that keep the body nourished and vibrant," Hobbs emphasizes.

"Recruiting or deciding on competent volunteers has become a science and an art. It is a science when the logical progression of steps and associated checks and balances are used to decide and confirm if the potential and competent volunteer is to move forward. Equally important are the creative, subjective insights VRMs use to guide their final decisions about confirming and forwarding competent volunteers into the organization."

Following the requisite assessment, program planning, and creation of position profiles aligned with the organization's mission and purpose, recruitment is the next stage in the typical volunteer accession process: the addition of qualified volunteers to various programs. Recruiting these qualified volunteers will significantly influence the organization's operational productivity and therefore its efforts to fulfill its mission. Therefore, the tools and techniques used in managing the recruitment of competent volunteers are significant, the authors point out. These tools and techniques have advanced with the growing availability and stability of the Internet.

Hobbs explores and links the wise use of a software or Internet-enabled volunteer resources management system with competence validation. This complementarity offers VRMs a practical way to select, interview, and assign competent volunteers to move forward into the organization. Additional topics covered include the challenges facing volunteer recruitment and the implications for using a volunteer competency management system.

Digital F: Marketing Volunteerism for Specialized Cohorts
Lori Gotlieb

"Volunteers want choice, control, good customer service, supervision, clear job descriptions, recognition, training, and perks," Gotlieb points out.

"They want to feel that they are appreciated." Further, volunteers want more control over the positions of responsibility they fulfill for the organization and, where possible, to blend their volunteer commitment with their professional and personal life. A significant role for the VRM is to help ensure that both the organization and the volunteer have a successful experience. Previous chapters covered various aspects of the assessment process; Gotlieb focuses on more specialized volunteer service opportunities, including employee volunteerism, baby boomers, and students, emphasizing successful marketing concepts and practices in those areas.

A primary responsibility of VRMs is to ensure that both the organization and the volunteer have a successful experience. After reviewing what practitioners need to consider as they prepare themselves and their organization for a specialized volunteer program, the author discusses specific and proven management practices for designing and marketing volunteer opportunities to corporations, boomers, and students.

Marketing volunteerism is a "creative process, and there is no one specific answer." Each organization has its own unique challenges and opportunities, and the prudent VRM recognizes those as opportunities to be "innovative, creative, and unique."

Chapter 9: Orientation: Welcoming New Volunteers into the Organization
Harriett C. Edwards, EdD

Welcoming new volunteers into your organization is a critical first step to better ensure a successful experience for both the individual and your organization—and to fully realize the many benefits, over and beyond actual service, that dedicated volunteers bring with their affiliation. As Edwards points out, "By recruiting volunteers in a systematic way, the organization—and the volunteers—benefit from the establishment of a foundational relationship that supports both their motivation for involvement and the organization's mission." The author explains how orientation differs from training and provides actionable insights into the critical components of the orientation process and how to develop successful delivery strategies.

VRMs who establish a systematically planned orientation program will find that it includes components that provide new volunteers with knowledge about the organization and its mission, that ensure they feel more comfortable and confident in their ability to accomplish the work they are undertaking, and that help them better understand how what they do for the organization contributes to its overall goals, objectives, and mission fulfillment. The process should also provide an opportunity to build enthusiasm for their responsibilities and help them agree that they have made the right decision to volunteer with your organization. Finally, orientation helps avoid potential future issues by helping the new volunteers—and staff—understand the appropriate rules, policies, available resources, and organizational core values and culture.

Training

Chapter 10: Training Volunteers
Mary Kay Hood, MS

Training provides the skills and methods needed by the volunteer to be successful in a specific position, task, opportunity, or area of responsibility. As the author correctly emphasizes, training is essential for a learning organization—one that seeks sustained superior performance—and focuses on improving quality, building competitive advantage, and energizing its workforce to effectively manage change and to achieve excellence. A discussion of learning styles prepares the reader for a follow-on review of generational issues that influence the design and implementation of the volunteer training program.

The author provides useful training fundamentals, followed by guidance on how to create a successful learning environment within the training program design.

An important core value for any voluntary action organization is that of continuous process improvement (CPI)—using analyzed experience and results to identify and incorporate improvements to the program as a part of a cyclical process of betterment. The author stresses the importance of meaningful evaluation and coaching as major contributors to improving your volunteer training program. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the importance—and techniques—of applied leadership within the training program and the importance of the VRM to lead by example.

Training should be considered an investment by, rather than as more typically the case, an expense to, the organization. The long-term payoff and payback provided by adequately trained volunteers includes not only better service delivery but a number of other benefits ranging from becoming recruiters themselves, improved risk management, and volunteers becoming significant sources of charitable contributions for the organization, to broadened community support.

Communications

Chapter 11: Volunteer and Staff Relations

Nancy Macduff, MACE

For some nonprofits, the relationship between volunteers and staff, the author points out, can be summed up as the organization's "dirty little secret." The relationship between volunteers and staff is both critical and complex, and it represents a critical determinant of volunteer engagement, the overall success of the organization's volunteer program, and, ultimately, of the organization's ability to fulfill its mission successfully. The overall relationship between staff and volunteers will significantly affect virtually all operational and programmatic areas within the organization. It is no secret that when people can work together as teams throughout the organization, more efficient and more effective services can be delivered to members, clients, or patrons. Teamwork, harmony, esprit de corps, and camaraderie do not just happen, however. Within the volunteer resource program, they are the products of thoughtful attention to both sides of the volunteer-staff equation, typically as a result of effective leadership on the part of the VRM.

The author cites data illustrating the positive correlation between organizations reporting strongly positive volunteer-staff relations and those having a designated manager of volunteers using effective volunteer management processes. The characteristics of the effective volunteer-staff team are outlined, followed by a discussion of a variety of useful volunteer-staff teams.

Recognizing the symptoms of dysfunctional volunteer-staff relationships can be important to the very survival of the organization. The author explains and outlines these symptoms, and concludes with a useful volunteer-staff climate audit.

Finally, the author suggests a sequential process to build a successful volunteer-staff team, one that works together to achieve the mission of the organization. She concludes with tips based on successful management practice that enhance volunteer-staff relations.

A volunteer-staff team pulling together can provide the collective energy and direction to propel the organizational vehicle toward its goal of mission accomplishment—or it can pull the vehicle to pieces.

Chapter 12: Communicating with Volunteers and Staff
Denise Sevick Bortree, PhD

One of the most important contributors to the relationship that is formed between NPOs and their volunteers is communication. "Research suggests that volunteers who feel more informed about the organization are more satisfied with their relationship with it. Organizations cannot underestimate the importance of keeping an open line of communication with their volunteers and staff." This chapter covers the important processes of communication, the way that communication strengthens the relationship between a nonprofit and its volunteers and staff, and new trends and channels being used in the field.

The author explores the process for sustained communication campaigns for volunteer and staff audiences and suggests that research, strategy, and planning are key elements of a successful campaign. In addition, the chapter introduces a number of approaches and tactics that could be used to reach these audiences.

"Communication can be a powerful tool for management of volunteers and staff," Bortree emphasizes. "When communication is frequent, clear, meaningful, and transparent, it can be an important ingredient in a positive relationship between volunteers, staff, and management. Informing, persuading, and motivating volunteers and staff toward organizational goals can be challenging; however, change is more easily achieved when an organization maintains a positive relationship with these audiences through effective communication."

Digital G: Social Media and Volunteer Programs
Nancy Macduff, MACE

Social media—few of us leave home without it. At home, virtually all of our computers are either actively on a social media page, or we have it minimized at the foot of our screen so that we can check it periodically. Not surprisingly, social media have rapidly appeared as essential communications tools within and for volunteer resource management programs. Understanding the realities of how quickly communications media evolve in and out of existence, the author reviews the concepts and capabilities inherent in the new media. Her focus is on their longevity as management and leadership tools, not on the likelihood of survival by any particular social medium (e.g., Twitter or Facebook).

After reviewing the various types of social media, the author outlines the frequency of their use within the NPO and cites data that provide a fact-based perspective on how these media are impacting nonprofit operations and programming. While some VRMs might be tempted to move immediately in the direction of creating a social medium Web site for their volunteer program, its ultimate success is far more likely if they follow the author's process of analysis, planning, and implementation. She concludes the chapter with a comparison of volunteer management functions, program activities by area, and ideas on how social media can be applied to each area.

In order to be used effectively within any program, social media applications—particularly volunteer resource programs—must relate to both the objectives of the program and their contribution to the organization's ability to fulfill its mission. In terms of the volunteer management program, social media should be used in ways that make program administration both more efficient and effective, enhance the program's objectives, and save time and money for the organization and the program manager.

Social media are not the only answer to all our problems. Improperly used or misunderstood, they can be major problem areas for the organization and its leaders. Technology within volunteer programs should be seen as powerful tools—ones that can reach new audiences for volunteers, better coordinate the work of current volunteers, and establish much broader recognition within a global audience. To realize the full potential of these tools and their potential contributions to the volunteer resource program, the VRM needs to understand their potential, be familiar with their operating principles, and develop and deploy a plan that engages their potential to better fulfill the organization's mission.

Program Management

Chapter 13: Volunteer Performance Management: The Impact Wheel

Julie Cross, PhD, and Stephen Hobbs, EdD

The VRM works with volunteers within an organization to create value for the organization and for the volunteer. Managing volunteers often means inspiring their continued contributions and focusing their efforts toward more effective performance. VRMs proficient in the practice of managing volunteer performance begin from the strategic perspective of the organization's place in the local community and the wider world. The mission of the organization comes to life as the VRM manages volunteers who are engaged in the frontline work of the organization. Leading performance management in a vibrant organization involves growth and change that must be focused and managed effectively. The Impact Wheel highlighted in this chapter provides tools and techniques for the VRM to manage change in a dynamic organization. The authors explain how to use this new model to manage and recognize individual performance at every level of the organization. Their explanations and discussion, when put into practice, offer enhanced competence in volunteer resource management—with associated tools and techniques—to better ensure that continuous performance improvement becomes an everyday occurrence.

Digital H: Effective Leadership and Decision-Making
Nicole LaMee Perez Steadman, PhD

Is it accurate to posit a struggle between the VRM's roles of program manager and volunteer leader? What is the difference, and how can VPMs use an understanding of their complementary aspects?

The author first explains and explores relevant models of volunteer leadership—LOOP, GEMS, ISOTURE, and the VAL Competence Model—that provide a practical foundation for interactions with volunteers. Understanding the relationship of the model to contributory theory—situational, transformational, and authentic—helps VRMs use and apply theory within practical management.

Integrating leadership theory into a volunteer program requires the understanding, provided by the author, of relevant leadership theories: leader-centered, situational focus, transformational, team-based approaches, and follower-based. The author concludes by discussing practical approaches to putting leadership theory into practice within volunteer management programs and suggests proven strategies to apply theory, implications for decision making and critical thinking, and the importance of emotional intelligence.

Chapter 14: Risk Management in Volunteer Involvement
Linda L. Graff, MA

"All volunteer involvement generates risks," as the author correctly warns in the introduction to this chapter, which covers such areas as:

- Key principles and risk management
- Risk management and liability
- Designing and using a risk management model
- The phases and steps of risk management analysis and planning
- Contributors to successful risk management

Some VRMs may consider risk management to be a lot of work. And at times that may be true. However, the "work" that lies ahead for the imprudent manager when risk is not properly managed may be incalculable. The risk management model outlined by the author will prompt managers to ask the right questions, in the right sequence, and help generate more effective risk management solutions throughout all phases of the volunteer program—and, indeed, throughout the organization.

Few programs of any kind involve no risk at all. And very few risky situations can be managed with only one risk control mechanism. As the author points out, the range of risks facing a volunteer program should be fully evaluated and then systematically correlated to the proper risk reduction approach, thus generating a "constellation of mechanisms" to better manage risk for each situation.

With the understanding provided by this author, combined with the utilities offered by numerous exhibits, tables, and forms, the VRM will be much better equipped to put in place a comprehensive risk management program that will help make volunteer involvement more productive and satisfying, even as it reduces liability and the probability of losing any future legal action.

Digital I: Information System Tools for Volunteer Management
Debra C. Burrows, PhD

Continuing evolution and advances in the field of IT have provided powerful and sophisticated tools, many of which are well suited to more effective leadership and management within volunteer resource management programs and activities. As the author correctly points out, "when used in support of programs that have established good volunteer management practices, these tools can save time, money, and effort. They can improve communication, enhance access to information and resources, and speed up or eliminate tedious processes and in so doing, enhance the experiences of both volunteers and staff."

Technology resources are not panaceas, however, nor should they be used in lieu of effective management practices or competent management of volunteers. "While information technology tools can be both useful and beneficial, organizations must assess their costs in light of the advantages to be gained, the availability of funds, and the specific needs of their own staff members and volunteers."

The focus of this chapter is primarily on information systems that offer particularly useful capabilities to support effective volunteer resource management practices and the leaders and managers who have those responsibilities.

After reviewing the information system tools available to support volunteer engagement, the author turns to those tools that offer great potential in such volunteer management areas as training, retention, evaluation, and reporting. An important concluding section of this chapter involves the author's discussion of challenges facing VRMs in information system planning and management. The chapter concludes with the author's recommendations regarding the foundations for information systems that should be put into place to help better ensure program success, including the assemblage of a knowledge base. Information systems offer numerous tools that are particularly suited to volunteer resource management. While information systems are not necessarily the right tool for every organization, they certainly are worthy of serious consideration. This chapter provides readers with important information needed for such consideration.

Digital J: Executive and Managerial Coaching in Nonprofits: Critical Leadership Development
Milena Meneghetti, MSc, CHRP, Registered Psychologist

Volunteer managers operate within a complex, diverse, and ever-changing landscape. Globalization, technological advances, and the continuing offloading of government services to the not-for-profit sector create new challenges for volunteer manager. Increasing demands for professionalism and accountability by volunteer managers put their work under more scrutiny, and rightly so. All of these factors have resulted in ongoing and meaningful efforts to train and credential managers of volunteers.

Postsecondary institutions are now offering degrees in nonprofit management, and national and international bodies are providing important opportunities for professional development for volunteer managers. However, these efforts to develop volunteer managers throughout their careers are able to go only so far. The new climate has created a new need: for access to timely, personalized support in real time that goes beyond the traditional efforts typically used to develop leaders.

Managerial coaching by an external coach is a timely and appropriate addition to the range of leadership development options available to the volunteer manager. This chapter introduces and describes the process of external coaching as it applies to volunteer managers. The chapter includes detailed guidelines for finding an external coach as well as a description of what it is like to be coached, from the client's perspective.

Part III: Results and Evaluation

Chapter 15: Evaluating the Volunteer Program: Contexts and Models

Jeffrey L. Brudney, PhD, and Tamara G. Nezhina, PhD

The nature of volunteer programs, including how they are evaluated, is changing rapidly in response to continuing shortages of resources and funding sources continually stressing increasing organizational effectiveness and accountability for grants, contracts, financial support, and program results. These constituencies and stakeholders expect to know the outcomes and long-term impact of their involvement and/or resources. The authors present an evaluation framework designed to assist the VRM by providing a better understanding of the various types of evaluation they can use based on stakeholder involvement. They describe how volunteering might be seen and valued by host organizations and other interested groups and present a logic model framework to guide volunteer program evaluation.

Rarely indeed can a single evaluation meet the information needs of all stakeholders in a volunteer program. Clearly, choices have to be made regarding the purpose of the evaluation and its fit with the stakeholders for whom it is intended. The authors conclude with a discussion of the various options available to VRMs planning to conduct evaluations on their volunteers and programs. Not only do the authors outline the fundamental tools of volunteer program evaluation, but they provide excellent guidance regarding their systematic use.

Chapter 16: Evaluating Impact of Volunteer Programs

R. Dale Safrit, EdD

Volunteer program evaluation (measurement) is among the most critical components required for effective program management and in the challenging area of documenting the impact and value of the program on the clientele for whom it is designed as well as the larger society in which the organization operates. Volunteer programs are intended to generate positive impacts and results in the lives of the clientele for whom they are designed and intended. This goal requires the volunteer manager to constantly gauge the focus of the volunteers and the programs in which they are engaged to ensure they are having their intended impact on the organization's mission fulfillment. Impact evaluation provides the process and tools needed to assess and evaluate volunteer program contributions to mission fulfillment.

The author discusses the critical elements needed to measure program objectives, including:

- The need to evaluate
- Collecting the required impact evaluation data and information
- Determining accountability requirements and processes
- Monetizing impact
- Comparing costs and benefits in various volunteer program
- Communicating the evaluation findings

Part IV: Applied Management Practice

Digital K: Mission Fulfillment (Even During Challenging Times)

Brian P. Higley, PhD, Martin Heesacker, PhD, Brian J. Mistler, PhD, and Justin Farinelli, BS

Many organizations, teams, and individuals work very hard to develop mission and vision statements—yet almost everyone believes that they typically do not "live" these statements extremely well. Each year, a lot of valuable time and energy go into developing mission statements that will quickly be forgotten or ignored in the often-frantic day-to-day activities that follow. And here is the kicker: Most people know that they will not fulfill their mission statements even as they spend valuable time developing them. Yet we continue to develop mission statements (both personal and professional) while recognizing, deep down, that most of them will not be fulfilled very well. What is going on here—and how can we stop wasting valuable time, energy, and money developing statements that will not be fulfilled?

The authors focus on assessing the latest practices, tools, and technologies for their utility in optimizing the performance of VRMs. Computer-based systems remain the focus of their review and discussion that assesses the degree to which managers and leaders are able to achieve previously developed goals that are critical to the mission and objectives of the nonprofit. They provide a thought-provoking overview of mission fulfillment best practices based on behavioral science. Following an assessment of current computer technology products that track goal achievement, the authors focus on the science-based mission fulfillment best practices they have developed as part of their collaborative efforts.

Digital L: Ethics: Professional Ethics for Volunteers

Joan E. Pynes, PhD

The administration of volunteer programs is a critical component of strategic human resources management. Volunteers, in addition to paid staff, are the human resources of an agency. As such, volunteer administrators and human resources management administrators (if they are different individuals with different responsibilities) must work together to develop a strategic human resources management system for the nonprofit. In addition to developing a strategic human resources management system for the nonprofit, they must go beyond the technical aspects of strategic human resources management and inculcate and reify ethical administrative practices. The chapter provides a brief review of strategic human resources management and then discusses codes of ethics governing human resources management, the nonprofit sector, and the management of volunteers. It concludes by acknowledging some of the knowledge, skills, and other characteristics needed by volunteer administrators.

Digital M: Professionalism and Credentialing in the Field of Volunteer Management

Lawrence Ullian, EdD and CVA, and Anne B. Schink, CVA

Volunteer resource management continues to play an ever more pivotal role in whether a NPO is able to achieve mission fulfillment. Clearly, professionalizing the field of volunteer resource management is important to current and future practitioners, but perhaps more important, it benefits every client, volunteer, stakeholder, and community served by the voluntary action organization. The authors make a strong case that the manager of volunteer resources has a number of options available that lead in the direction of improving professional competence and status.

After providing a historical perspective, the authors establish a framework for professionals in volunteer management that includes models and conceptions relating to the field. A competency-based framework explains the knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by managers of volunteers; a novice-to-expert continuum; and the process of transforming managers of volunteer resources. The credentialing certification process is outlined from definition and core competencies to experience-based requirements. The authors conclude with a discussion of what it means to be considered a professional and what it takes to be a competent, confident, and professional manager of volunteer resources.

Digital N: Advocacy in Volunteer Management

Anne B. Schink, CVA, and Lawrence Ullian, EdD, CVA

In the earliest days of the Latin language, Romans combined the words "vocare" and "ad" to create the word "advocate," meaning to call or summon. Today its extended meaning includes speaking in favor of, pleading on behalf of another, or supporting and defending a cause. Further, that meaning of "speaking on behalf or support of" has been combined with a core value (creating and sustaining a better quality of life for society) to become a major function and role for many of America's millions of NPOs.

Nonprofits are perhaps the most pervasive and involved institutions participating in the American public policy process. They are involved in such widely diverse activities as national politics, designing or changing public policies, and evaluating or passing judgment on an enormous variety of public policies ranging from scientific and economic to educational and cultural. These organizations and their leaders speak out—advocate—because they must be true to their individual and organizational core values and to fulfill their role as agents on behalf of their chartered public purposes—to protect, defend, and improve the quality of life for those who cannot do so for themselves. Their specific advocacy roles—behaviors, functions, or activities—are as varied as the range of public purpose services provided by organizations in the independent sector. The authors emphasize the importance of finding and using one's own voice to speak up about personal professional development, the volunteer program, participation in management and leadership roles, community engagement as a manager of volunteers, and the role as a spokesperson for the causes that your organization espouses.

Volunteers are among the most effective advocates a nonprofit can use in that area of public service mission fulfillment. While there are a number of legal and regulatory to be considered, as the authors explain, no nonprofit should be intimidated about advocating for its policy and program goals, and doing so often includes effective use of its corps of volunteers. As the authors explain, "educating the public and elected officials are essential elements of ensuring long-term support. Volunteerism often follows the model of meeting immediate, critical social needs, gradually evolving into social change and reform efforts aimed at ending the conditions that led to the problem in the first place, or advocating for self improvement efforts directed at overcoming adversity. In the end, active participation of citizens in public life and government becomes civic engagement. . . . Ensuring the sustainability of democratic institutions and protecting the civil liberties of all citizens."

Digital O: National, State, and Local Community Programs for Volunteer Resource Managers

Kristin Callazzo Hodgson, CAE

National, state, and/or regional support programs can be important resources for VRMs in such areas as recruiting, volunteer support, training, financial resources, and information portals. The author reviews a variety of resources and support programs ranging from social media and important Web sites through which volunteers can be recruited, to national programs and how to find the resources they offer. A discussion follows of considerations and benefits attached to establishing a volunteer portal on the nonprofit's main Web site.

Another important discussion is that of what resources should be expected and explored at the state and local levels. The author concludes by emphasizing the fact that the VRM position will continue to change in response to its mandate to help fulfill the needs of the organization. "Knowing when and where to find tools to help you along the way will play a big part in your success as a volunteer manager," the author points out. "Keep in mind these basic tips and you are sure to be a success!"

Digital P: Volunteer Management: Hospice Organizations

Ginny Burns, CVA

"Every hospice patient and family situation is unique and hospice care celebrates the uniqueness of each patient's care," the author points out. "[E]very request for volunteer support will present unique opportunities and challenges to the volunteer manager. . . . The workday is constantly changing. The work is intense, but it stays fresh. There is never a time when a hospice volunteer manager can say 'Now I have seen it all.' Sadness trickles through each day, but laughter and hope flow freely."

The author thoroughly and eloquently covers the specific field of hospice volunteer management from organizational environment, recruiting hospice volunteers, screening and interviewing potential volunteers, orientation and training of hospice volunteers to appropriate assignments, supervision, evaluation, risk management, hospice volunteer recognition and retention, and potential stressors facing hospice VRMs.

The author concludes by explaining: "Lives end, but life is celebrated daily. Good people show up to do hard, meaningful, humane work—easing the pain of others. The hospice volunteer manager gets to walk each day with those special people and share in those celebrated lives. What a gift!"

Digital Q: Volunteer Resource Management in Local Development Organizations: An International Perspective (Portugal)

Timothy L. Koehnen, PhD

The author focuses on volunteer resource management as practiced within international local development organizations. He points out, however, that many of these organizations do not have organizational cultures or experience to adequately support volunteer resource management system. More emphasis on planning and management of volunteer resources and engaging volunteers is essential if volunteer competencies and effectiveness are to be improved in such areas as leadership, strategy and operations.

The author considers and discusses various components of organizational involvement including

- Organizational culture
- Role analysis
- Volunteer identification
- Recruitment and selection
- Management and supervision
- Logistical support
- Performance appraisal
- Voluntary recognition and rewards
- Performance appraisal and feedback
- Organizational tools

He includes a personal critique of traditional methods and critical incidents experienced in this process. The chapter closes with questions designed to stimulate further discussion and self direction.

Digital R: International Volunteer Management

Marilyn K. Lesmeister, PhD, Pamela Rose, PhD, and Erin Barnhart, PhD Candidate

This chapter reviews the definitions, history, structure, and impact of international volunteer programs and resource management issues they face. The authors provide a variety of examples that represent programs that are both transnational and specific to countries on each continent.

In addition, the authors specifically discuss use of volunteers in the context of international programs, comparing and contrasting international youth civic engagement.

Following a discussion of the global meaning of international volunteerism, the authors discuss a variety of categories within international volunteerism, including altruism, personal transformation, skill building, being asked, and a combination of value and vacation. Volunteering around the world is discussed with examples of noteworthy programs and how they are influenced by governments, religions, and other institutions. The structure of volunteer resource management is affected by the sometimes unique requirements of international volunteerism. The authors discuss such specific areas as recruitment, selection, orientation, training, and partnerships that might be helpful. Following a discussion of international use of volunteers in such areas as globalization, social justice, and mutual benefit, the authors compare and contrast these programs. Finally, they review the impact of international volunteer programs from various aspects, including personal, professional, disadvantage, economic, and social capital.

Quo Vadis, Volunteer Resource Management

In the early 1990s, circumstances led me to meet and study with Dr. W. Edwards Deming, one of our most noted statisticians, authors, and teachers, a man who often is credited with rejuvenating both the Japanese and American economies through his insistence on process improvement and product quality. "Man's job," he said, "is to govern the future, not simply be a victim of the wind blowing this way and that way. I know, the best plans are upset. But, without a plan there is no chance. Best efforts will not do it!" (quoted in Connors, 2001, p. 3).

Whether we plan on it—or for it—or not, there will be a future for volunteer resource management and professional development. We have an essential choice: We can attempt to influence the future of this evolving area of management through vision and planning, or we can let the winds of change blow us this way and that. Without a vision and a plan, we have little chance of affecting whatever outcome lies ahead. Our contributors have shared their hard-earned experience and knowledge with you in this handbook to provide you as professionals, practitioners, researchers, and students of volunteer resource management with the tools and understanding you will need to use the winds of change in this field to your advantage—and to the benefit of those you serve.

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PART I

Volunteer Resource Program Assessment, Analysis, and Planning

The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

CHAPTER 1

Volunteer Models and Management

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This chapter introduces and defines the concept of volunteer management. Historical models of volunteer management are described, culminating in an in-depth description of the only model of contemporary volunteer management based on empirical data collected from actual volunteer managers, the PEP Model of Volunteer Administration: (Personal) Preparation, (Volunteer) Engagement, and (Program) Perpetuation.

Volunteers and Their Essential Management

The social phenomenon of volunteerism has had enormous positive effects on individuals, their families and communities, and entire cultures for well over two centuries in the United States and for at least half a century in western Europe and other areas around the globe (Ellis & Noyes, 1990; Govaart, van Daal, Münz, & Keesom, 2001; Jedlicka, 1990). Even in times of national economic slowdowns, individuals continue to readily give their time, energies, and talents to other individuals and groups (other than family members) with no expectation for financial remuneration (Gose, 2009). And while informal volunteerism continues to thrive at the individual and grassroots organizational levels, steady numbers of individuals also continue to volunteer within formal programs and organizations. The United States Department of Labor Bureau of Labor Statistics (2008) concluded that during the 12 months

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between September of 2007 and 2008, almost 62 million people volunteered for formal organizations in the United States; this roughly corresponds to almost 27% of the population aged 16 and over. Most volunteers were involved with either one or two organizations—68.9% and 19.8%, respectively.

In today's complex society and era of rapid social and technological change, it is essential that formal programs and organizations engaging volunteers do so within a logical, holistic, systematic process that maximizes a volunteer's impacts on the program's/organization's clientele being served while minimizing inconveniences and demands on the volunteer as an individual. While it is important to consider and respect each volunteer as a unique individual, large numbers of volunteers focusing on a single clientele or working within a single program require a higher level of organizational coordination in order for the organization to meet its mission and fulfill its commitments to the volunteers served. Thus, it is essential that all formal volunteer-based programs and organizations develop a consistent and logical approach (or model) to engaging and sustaining (or managing) volunteer involvement. (In actuality, we would argue that even informal volunteer initiatives would also benefit from a logical and consistent approach to engaging and sustaining volunteers, but that is a discussion for another time and place.) This chapter explores the concept of volunteer management, both historically and today, and its essentials components.

Concept of Management

Any discussion of volunteer management must begin with a discussion of the foundation concept of management itself. According to Kreitner (1998), "Management is the process of working with and through others to achieve organizational objectives in a changing environment. Central to this process is the effective and efficient use of limited resources" (p. 5). Kreitner further identifies eight fundamental management functions that also readily apply to volunteer programs and organizations:

1. *Planning* "is the formulation of future courses of action" (Kreitner, 1998, p. 14). Paid staff in volunteer organizations must plan for the services and/or programs offered to clientele. And, of course, they must also plan how to identify, engage, and sustain the volunteers involved in delivering the services and/or programs. Serafino (2010, p. 104) concluded that "[p]lanning is a complex activity [in volunteer organizations], perhaps made more complex by the involvement of volunteers."
2. *Decision making* involves managers "choosing among alternative courses of action" (Kreitner, 1998, p. 15). In volunteer-based programs, decisions must be made regarding which clientele to serve, how to best serve them, and which volunteers to accept into the organization. Yallen (2010) specifically discusses the need for volunteer administrators to be competent in making ethical decisions.
3. *Organizing* involves "structural considerations such as the chain of command, division of labor, and assignment of responsibility" (Kreitner 1998, p. 15). Managers in volunteer organizations must decide which paid staff member will be responsible for managing the organization's volunteers, to whom that individual will report, and if that will be a full-time responsibility or if the individual will also have additional professional responsibilities (e.g., fundraising, marketing, etc.)

Peach and Murrell (1995) discussed a systems approach to organizing in volunteer organizations and concluded that "replicating current cutting-edge organizing models will lead to . . . evolving even more innovative organizational models unique to the volunteer worker culture" (p. 232).

4. *Staffing* "consists of recruiting, training, and developing people who can contribute to the organization" (Kreitner, 1998, p. 15). In volunteer organizations, staffing applies to securing and managing both paid staff and volunteers. Krywood (2010) provides an excellent discussion on staffing within volunteer organizations.
5. *Communicating* involves "managers . . . communicating to their employees the technical knowledge, instructions, rules, and information required to get the job done" (Kreitner, 1998, p. 15). Volunteers are a critical second targeted group for communications in a volunteer organization. Macduff (1995) discussed the critical role of communications in volunteer organizations and concluded that "[v]olunteers and [paid] staff need policies, procedures, and structures that permit and encourage them to communicate" (p. 210).
6. *Motivating* involves encouraging "individuals to pursue collective objectives by satisfying needs and meeting expectations with meaningful work and valued rewards" (Kreitner, 1998, p. 15). The topic of volunteer motivation has been well studied and commented on for decades. An entire issue of the *International Journal of Volunteer Administration* is dedicated to the topic of volunteer motivation (e.g., Finkelstein, 2007; Littlepage, Perry, Brudney, & Goff, 2007; Starnes, 2007; Yoshioka, Brown, & Ashcraft, 2007).
7. *Leading* involves managers "serving as role models and adapting their management style to the demands of the situation" (Kreitner, 1998, p. 15). Managers of volunteers are very often directly engaged along with volunteers in delivering services or programs to clientele, thus serving as role models. Varella (2010) concluded that leaders in organizations engaging volunteers "must fully appreciate how their own leadership abilities help foster the motivation of volunteers" (p. 434).
8. *Controlling* involves "managers [comparing] desired results with actual results and [taking] necessary corrective action" (Kreitner, 1998, p. 15). The concept of "control" is sometimes considered a negative concept wherein one individual attempts to maintain power (or "control") over another individual or group of individuals. In reality, controlling is readily practiced in volunteer programs and could better be considered under the more widely used term of "supervision." Volunteer managers sometimes must decide that an individual's involvement as a volunteer is no longer in the best interest of the clientele served, the volunteer, and/or the overall organization and subsequently must take corrective action (Herman, 2010); this is only one example of control in a volunteer organization. Practices involving fiscal management (Kerr, 2010) and quality improvement (Alaimo, 2010) are other examples of controlling in volunteer organizations.

Concepts of Volunteer and Volunteerism

The second foundational concept in volunteer management that must be defined along with the concept of management itself is, of course, the concept of volunteer (or volunteerism). The literature is replete with myriad individual approaches to and definitions of both of these social phenomena, some of which are controversial (Brudney, 1999). As early as 1967, Naylor identified volunteers serving as a committee or board member as administrative volunteers and those that provided direct service to others as operational volunteers. Park (1983) suggested that "the heart of volunteerism is the countless individual acts of commitment encompassing an endless variety of . . . tasks" (p. 118), while Smith (1989) considered a volunteer as anyone who reaches out beyond the confines of their paid employment and their normal responsibilities to contribute time and service to a not-for-profit cause in the belief that their activity is beneficial to others as well as satisfying to themselves. Safrit, King, and Burscu (1994) defined volunteerism operationally as "giving time, energies, or talents to any individual or group for which [the individual] is not paid" (p. 7).

Space in this chapter does not provide for an exhaustive discussion of these concepts. Rather, we basically adhere to Safrit, King, and Burscu's (1994) operational definition of "volunteer" and to Merrill and Safrit's (2000) conclusions that a "volunteer" is anyone who performs "volunteerism" and that any contemporary definition of volunteerism involves four fundamental tenets:

1. Volunteerism implies active involvement.
2. Volunteerism is (relatively) uncoerced.
3. Volunteerism is not motivated primarily by financial gain.
4. Volunteerism focuses on the common good.

Defining "Volunteer Management"

The ultimate purpose of the discussion in this section is to arrive at a contemporary definition of the process through which an individual (paid or unpaid) may most effectively and efficiently coordinate the contributions of individual volunteers seeking to help a formal organization or agency fulfill its mission. Consequently, and based on the management and volunteerism literature, we define volunteer management as the systematic and logical process of working with and through volunteers to achieve and organization's objectives in an ever-changing environment. Central to this definition is the effective and efficient engagement of volunteers as human resources who are respected and valued for both their individual and collective contributions toward the organization's mission and vision. (Of course, this conceptual definition of volunteer management would involve various fundamental subconstructs or components that would operationally define the concept in greater detail while synergistically contributing to the overall concept's definition.)

The individual who manages volunteers within these parameters is logically called a "volunteer manager" or "volunteer resource manager." This individual may be a paid or unpaid staff member. (However, the former term often is discouraged in some contemporary associations involving paid managers of volunteers since to the uninformed, "volunteer manager" could be interpreted as a volunteer managing any aspect of the organization's operations or programs.) If that individual is a paid staff member who also performs administrative duties involving policy development or implementation regarding the volunteers being managed, or has fiduciary responsibilities regarding the volunteers' involvement in the organization, then the term "volunteer administrator" could likewise apply. In their exhaustive Internet search of the literature, Brudney and Heinlein (2010) found nine separate titles used to describe professionals and practitioners in this field, including volunteer manager and volunteer administrator as well as administrator of volunteers, volunteer coordinator, coordinator of volunteers, manager of volunteers, director of volunteers, volunteer director, and community organizer.

Review of Major Volunteer Resource Management Models

Volunteer management has evolved as societies continue to change, requiring new strategies to meet the emerging needs of people in communities around the world through volunteerism. In the United States, from the early days of neighbors helping neighbors to the current virtual volunteering, volunteerism has played an important role in helping address the nation's challenges (Ellis & Noyes, 1990). In addition to the emergence of national service as a catalyst to increase volunteer engagement, strategic initiatives to engage baby boomers, college students, families, and virtual volunteering have all contributed to the growth of volunteerism in the United States. In fact, in 2009, 1.6 million more individuals volunteered than during the previous year (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2010). While still considered a relatively young profession, volunteer management nonetheless has played an important role in the evolution of volunteerism around the world and will continue to be important as more people volunteer and new strategies are introduced to engage individuals as volunteers. Historically, managers of volunteers have accepted responsibilities related to the identification, selection, orientation, training, utilization, recognition, and evaluation of volunteers, commonly referred to as ISOTURE (Boyce, 1971).

In her 1967 book, *Volunteers Today: Finding, Training and Working with Them,* Harriet Naylor was the first author to publish a text that focused on volunteer management. Following Boyce's seminal work of connecting leadership development to volunteer engagement, numerous authors and practitioners have suggested specific yet varied requisite foundational knowledge and skills for the effective and efficient administration of volunteer programs (Brudney, 1990; Culp, Deppe, Castillo, & Wells, 1998; Ellis, 1996; Fisher & Cole, 1993; Kwarteng, Smith, & Miller, 1988; Navarre, 1989; Penrod, 1991; Safrit, Smith, & Cutler, 1994; Stepputat, 1995; Wilson, 1976). In-depth and thorough reviews of each of these works have revealed similarities and disparities among the authors' ideas regarding volunteer management competencies as well as similar findings and/or suggestions concerning the needed competencies for managers of volunteer programs to be successful (Safrit & Schmiesing, 2004, 2005). The remainder of this section provides an overview of the more popular models that have been used and adopted in the United States and around the world by volunteer managers.

Naylor (1967)

According to Wilson (1992), "The first book for our field was in 1967 Harriet Naylor: *Volunteers Today: Finding, Training and Working with Them*" (p. 45). According to Naylor (1967) herself, that "book was directed to those in leadership positions in organizations which require the unpaid work of citizens in administration and program services. Such citizen volunteers may serve in meeting need for subsistence, health, education, cultural and aesthetic experience, and social acceptance" (p. 8). While Naylor never actually used the term "volunteer management" or "volunteer resource management," she described the critical components of a plan for the development of volunteer leadership in organizations wherein paid and volunteer staff work hand in hand to fulfill the mission of the overarching organization. Naylor's approach to volunteer development included seven critical components:

1. An inventory of jobs
2. An inventory of volunteers
3. A recruitment plan
4. A selection and placement process
5. Induction and supervision
6. A comprehensive and unified training program
7. Provision for volunteer mobility (i.e., volunteers leaving their position and the organization)

Regarding the two components inventories of jobs and volunteers, Naylor emphasized "analyzing the work to be done [by volunteers] and dividing it into person-sized parts" (1967, p. 174) correlated with the "registration of all active individuals and a continuing record or prospects and new recruits to be matched against the jobs and vacancies discovered" (p. 175). As far as we can determine, Naylor was the first author to publish actual written volunteer job descriptions, one for what she termed "administrative volunteers" and a second for "program volunteers" (pp. 82–83). Following her two initial components was the development of a recruitment plan that used "an individualized approach, concentrated on [finding] particular individuals to fill specific vacancies" (p. 175). Selection and placement emphasized that "enough time and enough information must be available to the advisory staff and to the person appointing for both of them to consider carefully the qualifications of candidates and their potential for a job that is vacant" (p. 176). Induction and supervision ensured that a new volunteer was adequately introduced to the sponsoring organization and that the volunteer and supervising staff shared responsibility for the volunteer's continued success with the given task. Naylor was again the first author to publish standard volunteer training plan components involving the sequencing of volunteer training, actual teaching methods appropriate for volunteers, and considerations for approaching volunteers as adult learners. Finally, "a carefully individualized process for [volunteer] promotion, transfer, and separation of volunteers from the job" (p. 178) addressed the mobility of volunteers both within the organization and among volunteer organizations. Naylor emphasized the importance of formal exit interviews and referrals when a volunteer decided to leave the organization, for whatever reason.

Boyce (1971)

One of the most highly recognized models of volunteer resource management was first proposed by Milton Boyce in the early 1970s. Boyce's work provided a much-needed framework for the profession and originally was implemented through the national Cooperative Extension Service system. The model adopted by Boyce with a focus on volunteerism as leadership development was originally developed by Dr. Robert Dolan, professor of adult education at North Carolina State University. Importantly, Boyce stated that "the leadership development process is a systematic approach whereby individuals are offered the opportunity to increase their ability to influence the behavior of members of a social group" (1971, p. 3). Although it is a systematic process, it should be noted that "the leadership development process is continuous and this model is only a guide, not a prescription" (p. 15).

The model, commonly referred to as the ISOTURE model, introduced the management concepts of:

1. *Identification.* The process of finding people who have the competencies and attitudes essential to fill specific leadership positions
2. *Selection.* The process of studying the backgrounds of those potential leaders identified and desired, and motivating them to fill selected positions
3. *Orientation.* The process of orientating those leaders selected in the role expectations of the leader position
4. *Training.* The process of stimulating and supporting leaders' efforts to acquire knowledge and to develop attitudes and skills that will improve the quality of their performance in leader positions
5. *Utilization.* The process of providing the opportunity for leaders to put acquired knowledge and skills into action in the most appropriate way, and provide them an opportunity to function
6. *Recognition.* The process of recognizing and rewarding sound leader performance
7. *Evaluation.* The process of determining results of leader performance

Like many authors who have come after him, Boyce emphasized evaluation but pointed out that "evaluation must be used to appraise the behavior of the volunteer leader since one of the goals of leader training and leader utilization is to provide growth in the leaders themselves" (1971, p. 15). The focus on the growth and development of the volunteer leader was unique at that time, and we could argue that it still is unique today.

While published nearly 40 years ago, Boyce's model of volunteer management provided the foundation for the volunteer management profession. The ISOTURE approach to volunteer leader development suggested seven subcategories inherent in volunteer management that remain relevant today and may be found in many, if not all models, that followed his work. Using Boyce's conceptual model more than two decades later, Safrit et al. (1994) developed *BLAST: Building Leadership and Skills Together*, a volunteer management curriculum targeted toward 4-H Youth Development professionals. This resource, utilized extensively across the U.S. Cooperative Extension Service, includes tools, resources, and worksheets for the volunteer manager.

Wilson (1976)

One of the first to emerge with a focus on the salaried volunteer administrator of volunteers, Marlene Wilson proposed the necessary components for paid staff to be successful and have an effective program engaging volunteers. Wilson placed heavy emphasis on the humane aspects of a management model and stressed the importance of the organizational climate that volunteers would be experiencing. The paid staff member has significant influence over the climate in an organization, and it is important that the volunteer resource manager focus on the nine dimensions that define climate that were originally proposed by Litwin and Stringer (1968). Wilson suggested strategies that might influence climate, including how an administrator might create an achievement-, affiliation-, or power-oriented climate. It is clear in her work that to Wilson, popular management and leadership functions applied to the role of the paid administrator were keys to creating the right culture and climate for volunteers, paid staff, and service recipients. In her model, Wilson relied heavily on management theory and practices from such authors and practitioners as Peter Drucker, Ken Blanchard, and Paul Hersey.

Wilson applied the theory of motivation to the functional steps of recruiting, interviewing and placing, supervising, and retaining volunteers. She stressed the importance of recruiting potential volunteers in a manner that highlighted the importance of their motivational factors. The interview stage provided the first real, in-depth opportunity for the paid administrator to determine the needs and goals of the potential volunteer and if they were congruent with those of the organization. Wilson suggested that it was important to understand if people are achievement, affiliation, or power oriented as that motivation greatly influenced the administrator's decision making and further advanced the notion that not one model fits all volunteers. Finally, retaining volunteers was closely tied to the reward and recognition structure of the organization. Understanding the motivation of individuals and groups would greatly inform the management functions and how they were applied in the volunteer setting.

Brudney (1990)

Jeffrey Brudney suggested steps that focused on mobilizing volunteers for public service in communities, basing a great deal of his discussion and recommendations on the results of the U.S. Small Business Administration (SBA) Service Corps of Retired Executives (SCORE Association) study published in 1988. Growth in volunteerism in public services had been driven by several factors, including calls from public officials and the fiscal climate at the time of the book's publication, which was remarkably similar to today's environment. Additionally, Brudney identified the increasingly positive relationships between public administrators and citizens at the local level, resulting in increased volunteer rates through public programs. Regardless of the reason, it was important that volunteer managers in the public sector recognize the importance of formally managing volunteer programs.

Brudney identified the internal work that must be done to prepare for a successful volunteer program. Public sector entities must:

1. Identify reasons to have volunteers and the needs within the organization to improve services.
2. Gain employee perspectives and buy-in.
3. Develop a sound organizational structure, including housing the program.
4. Identify a director of volunteer services to provide overall leadership.

Once this initial preparation work has been completed, the agency is ready to develop the core components that would lead to successful volunteer engagement.

Brudney outlined the core components that must be developed and implemented, including the position description and recruiting, screening, placing volunteers, educating, evaluating, and recognizing volunteers. An additional and important component advocated by Brudney was the training of employees in volunteer management and supervision that was highlighted by Walter (1987), who indicated that there was little in the background of the public employee that would support their success in volunteer management. Education and training provided to employees was a significant strategy to help overcome resistance that was likely to emerge.

A major part of Brudney's work was also devoted to the concept of the costs and benefits of having a volunteer program. Brudney advocated the importance of understanding these two concepts along with the potential pitfalls that may be encountered by the public agency. The displacement of paid employees, especially during an economic crisis, was (and still is) a critical issue for public agencies (really all agencies) to fully understand. To evaluate the cost effectiveness of a volunteer program, Brudney outlined a six-step process and applied it to the SCORE program as an example.

A concept that Brudney incorporated into his work was how volunteers can improve service quality and impact. To that end, Brudney emphasized the service performance of volunteers and how important it was that they were trained and educated, in an effort to avoid poor performance that may lead to lack of impact. Volunteers could contribute significantly to an organization's performance and outreach in communities, especially in those situations where public agencies did not have, nor ever had, funds to hire paid staff.

Penrod (1991)

Kathryn Penrod developed the L-O-O-P model of volunteer management with a focus on the concepts of *l*ocating, *o*rientating, *o*perating, and *p*erpetuating volunteers and volunteerism. Built on these four concepts, Penrod suggested that they are not independent of each other but rather blend together with each being integral to the overall success of the total model. The locating concept addresses the steps of volunteer recruitment and selection and the important considerations that these steps involved. The location step of the model focuses on matching the organization's needs with the individual volunteer's skills and interests. Additionally, through the selection process, it is important to determine the potential volunteer's needs and match those with organizational needs.

The orientation step of the L-O-O-P model focused on strategies to educate the new volunteer, including formal and informal processes. Potential or new volunteers have many ways to collect information about an organization, including newspapers, printed brochures, electronic media, talking with others, and questions asked during their initial inquiry about volunteering with the organization. The formal process of orientation is more structured and includes the explanation of the organization's rules, policies, by-laws, and standard operating procedures. While the organization may controlled the formal orientation, they do not control the informal processes and must recognize that individuals do not always interpret information received as it is intended by the organization.

Penrod introduced the term "operating" when referring to volunteer engagement, the impact that volunteers have in communities, and the impact of volunteering on a volunteer's individual growth. Penrod indicated that it is important that volunteers know that their service is meaningful and that they have an impact. The educational process began during the orientation phase but continued throughout a volunteer's tenure with the organization. Penrod believed that the learning processes in which the volunteers are engaged (e.g., new ideas, meeting new people, learning new methods, etc.) are forms of payment for their service. Also included in this component were the accomplishments of the volunteers and the opportunity for them to be engaged in service that is meaningful to the organization, service recipients, and themselves. It is important that the leader of volunteers recognize the accomplishments of volunteers since they may not also acknowledge this fact or recognize the importance of highlighting the accomplishments.

Perpetuating the involvement of volunteers is a concept with which Penrod concluded the L-O-O-P model; it consists of the evaluation of the volunteer experience and recognition for a volunteer's efforts. Evaluation is an important but difficult task, but it must be completed, focus on the tasks completed by the volunteer, and be constructive in terms of the feedback provided. Penrod, like many others, suggested that recognition be consistent with the desires of the individual volunteers and be varied to meet the needs of many. Most important, perhaps, is that the L-O-O-P model suggests that recognition of volunteer efforts should be done throughout a project, and not simply at the conclusion of the project or program year.

Fisher and Cole (1993)

James Fisher and Kathleen Cole recognized the importance of professional development of the volunteer manager since so many were coming into the profession with little previous experience or education directly related to their position's responsibilities. The authors identified and raised the importance of the leadership functions of a volunteer manager; a leader must set direction, encourage others to buy into the direction, and inspire others to become engaged and support the direction/vision. Fisher and Cole incorporated the work of Bennis (1987), who identified key aspects of leadership, including: the leader as a visionary, sharing the vision, fulfilling the vision, and the leader as an advocate. Additionally, Fisher and Cole identified managerial functions important to the volunteer manager and the importance for nonprofit and volunteer organizations to adopt sound management functions.

Fisher and Cole suggested that both personnel management and program management functions were important to the role of the volunteer manager. Personnel management focuses on the identification of volunteer roles and preparing the organization to engage volunteers. Functionally, the manager must work with other units and departments in the organization to identify tasks for potential volunteers and then work with other paid staff supporting the service of volunteers once they are engaged. Additionally, volunteer managers play a key role in relationships within the organization and the community. Program management functions include the ongoing staffing operations and budgeting and fiscal issues that are important to the success of volunteer programs. Overall, the volunteer manager has broad responsibilities for the climate in the organization to ensure that others were prepared from leadership and management perspectives to engage volunteers.

Training and development are critical to the success of the volunteer program in the Fisher and Cole model. Volunteers come to organizations with varying levels of experience and knowledge; thus, it is imperative for the organization to prepare the volunteers to serve in specific roles. Volunteers must learn about the organization, their specific volunteer position, changes and transitions that are likely to take place, and different opportunities for increased responsibility. Supervising volunteers, as others have indicated, is not a one-size-fits-all model. Volunteers have different needs, desires, interests, and motives, and each needs to be considered when designing a supervision strategy within an organization. Volunteer managers need to know if their organization is centralized or decentralized; this helps determine if one or more paid staff would supervise volunteers or if the structure requires volunteers to supervise volunteers. Regardless of who is supervising volunteers, the training, education, and support for those individuals is important and essentially a requirement for it to be successful.

Demonstrating the value of volunteer programs is the final component of the model proposed by Fisher and Cole. The focus is on evaluation and understanding that it may be on the process, the results, or the overall impact of volunteer engagement. The authors described the essential components of an effective evaluation, including the need to identify the goals of the evaluation, who/what to evaluate, data collection strategies, qualitative versus quantitative data analysis and ultimately communicating the results.

Fisher and Cole (1993) stated that "a discussion of the professionalization of volunteer administration often focuses on two major parts: the feasibility of professionalization and the advisability of professionalization" (p. 165). They recognized that the field of volunteer management is broad and the benefits/costs of professionalization are difficult to ascertain. A strong knowledge base, standards for entry into the profession, standards for practice, a distinctive subculture, and awareness in which the public is apprised of activities are important for the professionalization of volunteer management. Volunteer managers should develop their own personal philosophy of volunteer involvement. In addition, their perspectives and philosophies are also important catalysts and influences within their organizations as they evolve and deploy the organizational volunteerism philosophy best suited to fulfilling an organization's strategic vision and mission.

Stepputat (1995)

Arlene Stepputat identified ten overarching categories that are necessary for successful volunteer resource management:

1. Recruitment
2. Application, interview, and screening
3. Orientation and training
4. Placement
5. Supervision and evaluation

6. Recognition
7. Retention
8. Record keeping
9. Evaluation
10. Advocacy and education

Like other authors, Stepputat believed that the role of volunteer manager is unlike any other professional position in an organization and is not clearly understood by many, even those in the nonprofit sector.

Educating and preparing professional volunteer managers is an important component of the Stepputat model, recognizing the need to engage with other paid staff and support their work with volunteers. Additionally, policy development and implementation are key components to the volunteer manager's roles and responsibilities, emphasizing that volunteers are an additional human resource and that the interaction between all other departments/units of the organization will increase the likelihood of success.

A primary role of the volunteer manager, according to Stepputat, is that of advocating for volunteers and volunteerism within the organization and the community. This advocacy is more than simply communicating the importance of volunteerism; rather it also includes taking specific steps to make sure that volunteers are engaged in special programs, training, or recognition events. Additionally, advocacy strategies should extend to understanding state and federal legislation that may affect volunteer engagement and organizational policy development that has implications on volunteer engagement.

Ellis (1996)

Susan Ellis placed a significant emphasis on the executive leaders of an organization and their involvement as necessary for successful volunteer programs, beyond engaging just when something went wrong. Recognizing that the nonsalaried personnel department of an agency is the volunteer program, Ellis argued that it deserved as much attention as the salaried personnel department. Before engaging volunteers, Ellis suggested that organizations must develop a statement of philosophy, goals and objectives, policies, management structure, organizational chart, and what they want to communicate about the organization. Having each of these components in place prior to engaging volunteers results in an organization that is prepared for volunteers, thus significantly increasing the likelihood of success.

Ellis suggested that organizational leaders must allocate adequate resources, since volunteer engagement is not free. Consideration must be given to space and facilities, furniture and equipment, telephone, supplies, travel, postage, insurance, recognition, evaluation, and training/orientation. Another significant expense is the personnel assigned to direct the volunteer program, regardless of the percentage of time that the individual focuses on volunteer management. In addition to many of the expenses just identified, there also are expenses associated with the professional development of paid staff and engagement of advisory and support committees.

Building on the planning and staffing functions that Ellis identified, organizations must prepare for and manage volunteer and employee relationships.

Organizational leaders must plan for those employees who refuse to accept volunteers, perceived threats from paid staff, tension between volunteers and staff, and volunteer resistance. Many, if not all, of these challenges can be overcome with proper planning and education of current paid staff prior to engaging volunteers. Strategies are offered, including incorporating language that emphasizes working with volunteers in paid staff position descriptions, training for paid and volunteer staff, and a clear delineation of roles and responsibilities. Organizational leaders must be cognizant of legal issues associated with issues of confidentiality, employer/employee relationships, liability and injuries, car insurance, board member indemnification, and conflict and dispute resolution. Program leaders must determine not only what to assess but also how to carry this assessment in an ongoing manner. Likewise, organizations should be cautious not to try to compare the accomplishments of volunteers to paid staff since this may cause more challenges; however, it is important to evaluate the service of individual volunteers and the performance of paid staff directly involved in the volunteer program or who are supervising volunteers. Finally, Ellis provided justification for why it is important to calculate the true costs of the volunteer program, including the donated time of volunteers, and supplied work sheets to calculate these into organizational budgets.

Culp, Deppe, Castillo, and Wells (1998)

The *g*enerate, *e*ducate, *m*obilize, and *s*ustain (GEMS) model of volunteer administration built on the models already described as well as the Volunteer Management Cycle proposed by Lawson and Lawson (1987) and the Volunteer Professional Model for Human Services Agencies and Counselors developed by Lenihan and Jackson (1984). Lawson and Lawson focused their work on the religious community and included many of the same components as previously described. Lenihan and Jackson focused their work on community agencies and professional counselors with their model "designed specifically for those who are encouraged by their employer or company to serve in volunteer roles with human service agencies" (p. 37).

The GEMS model consists of four distinct concepts of generating, educating, mobilizing, and sustaining volunteer efforts. Generating includes six phases: conducting a needs assessment, writing position descriptions, and identifying, recruiting, screening, and selecting volunteers. Educating includes the four components of orientating, protecting, resourcing, and teaching. It is worth noting that the "protecting" terminology is unique and includes how an organization addresses risk management broadly, including conflict resolution and appropriate behaviors. The resourcing phase continues the more recent acknowledgment that volunteer management is not free and that there are real and direct costs associated with engaging volunteers.

The mobilizing phase of the GEMS model of volunteer administration includes engaging, motivating, and supervising volunteers. Ken Culp and his coauthors built on and incorporated motivation theory highlighted by Wilson (1976). Finally, the model concludes with the sustaining component that included evaluation, recognition, retention, redirection, and disengagement. Following a more contemporary acknowledgment of the similarities between paid and volunteer staff, the GEMS model recognizes that organizations sometimes have to be orientated again if they are implementing a new volunteer position or receiving a less than desirable evaluation. Additionally, the model recognizes the need to disengage volunteers, either through their own decision or the decision of the organizational leaders. An important component of the GEMS model is that volunteers may enter the model at whatever phase is necessary or that the volunteer resource manager can determine that individuals need to reenter a component at a given time; in other words, the model is not linear.

Comparing the Models: Similarities and Differences

Exhibit 1.1 depicts the volunteer management models discussed in this chapter. In-depth and thorough reviews of each of the previously identified works revealed respective both similarities and disparities among the authors' ideas regarding volunteer management competencies, as well as similar findings and/or suggestions concerning the needed competencies for managers of volunteer programs to be successful (Safrit & Schmiesing, 2004, 2005). Many, if not all, volunteer management models have built on the early work of Boyce (1971) and include in some format the seven components of leadership development that he adopted from the field of adult learning and applied to volunteer management.

It could be argued that, to a degree, all of the models discussed are basically the same, with the only differences being the words used to describe a specific component or that some components are embedded within others and thus not easily identifiable. The authors discussed recognize that volunteer management approaches have to expand beyond a focus on the individual volunteer to address organizational systems as well. Developing a volunteer management model based on best practices, Wilson (1976) focused on the critical practical roles of salaried managers or volunteers, including motivating volunteers; establishing a positive organizational climate for volunteer involvement; planning and evaluating volunteer programs; developing volunteer job descriptions; recruiting, interviewing, and placing volunteers; and effective communications. Another pragmatic approach was proposed by MacKenzie and Moore (1993), who identified fundamental management principles and practices formatted into worksheets to assist the day-to-day manager of volunteers. Ellis (1996) identified components of volunteer management by proposing professional, administrative approaches to volunteer management. Navarre (1989) approached volunteer management from a staff management focus in grassroots volunteer organizations. Navarre's focus included the importance of having written job descriptions; recruiting, interviewing, orienting, and training new volunteers; and volunteer supervision, evaluation, and motivation. Approaching volunteer management in a very similar manner, Stepputat (1995) identified ten overarching categories that were necessary for successful volunteer management, including recruitment; screening; orientation and training; placement; supervision and evaluation; recognition; retention; record keeping; evaluation; and advocacy and education. Finally, Brudney (1990) identified practical components for public agencies to implement in order to mobilize volunteers for public service in communities.

From a purely conceptual approach, several authors developed volunteer management models within the context of the United States Cooperative Extension System. Kwarteng et al. (1988) identified eight conceptual components to volunteer administration: planning volunteer programs; clarifying volunteer tasks; and the

EXHIBIT 1.1 Historical Development of Volunteer Resource Management Components

Naylor (1967)	Boyce (1971)	Wilson (1976)	Navarre (1989)	Brudney (1990)	Penrod (1991)	Fisher & Cole (1993)	Ellis (1996)	Culp et al. (1998)
				Importance of volunteer management		Professionalism		
Inventory of jobs Inventory of volunteers Recruitment Selection Placement	Identification Selection	Establishing positive organizational climate Volunteer job descriptions Volunteer motivation, recruitment, interviewing, and placement	Volunteer job descriptions Recruiting Screening	Designing and organizing programs Attracting and retaining able volunteers	Locating	Developing volunteer roles Establishing organizational climate Recruiting	Planning Staffing	Generating
Induction Training	Orientation Training		Orienting Training		Orienting	Training and development	Legal issues	Educating
	Recognition							
Supervision	Utilization	Planning Communications	Supervising	Planning and managing volunteer programs	Operating	Supervising	Volunteer/ employee relationships Teamwork Legal issues	Mobilizing
				Evaluating cost effectiveness			Budgeting and allocating resources	
Provision for mobilty	Evaluation	Evaluating	Evaluating	Improving service quality and impact Encouraging volunteer involvement	Perpetuating	Evaluating	Evaluation of impact Dollar value of volunteers	Sustaining

Source: Based on Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem, and Gliem (2005).

recruitment, orientation, training, support/maintenance, recognition, and evaluation of actual volunteers. Penrod's (1991) L-O-O-P model suggested these conceptual components of volunteer management: locating and orientating volunteers, operating volunteer programs, and perpetuating volunteer involvement. Most recently, Culp et al.'s (1998) GEMS model built on and reorganized the earlier works of Penrod and of Kwarteng et al. by organizing components of volunteer administration into four overarching categories: *g*enerating, *e*ducating, *m*obilizing, and *s*ustaining volunteers.

Empirically Based Model of Volunteer Resource Management: PEP Model of Volunteer Administration

Prior to 2004, little to no empirical research existed that quantitatively investigated and identified the core competencies needed for managers of volunteers to effectively administer volunteer-based programs and the individuals who serve therein. Safrit and Schmiesing (2004) conducted research to identify the competencies needed based on historical literature and contemporary practices of volunteer administrators, resulting in the PEP model (Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem, & Gliem, 2005). The purpose of their exploratory study was to identify components of volunteer management based on both published literature and contemporary best practices. The researchers developed a qualitative methodology utilizing both deductive content analysis and inductive thematic development (Thomas, 2003). According to Miles and Huberman (1994), "Qualitative researchers usually work with *small* [authors' italics] samples of people, nested in their context and studied in-depth" (p. 27). Kuzel (1992) and Morse (1989) suggested that qualitative samples tend to be purposive (i.e., seeking out specific individuals or types of individuals due to their direct connection or expertise with the focus of the research) rather than random as in broader, quantitative research. Consequently, the researchers utilized practitioner and action research concepts suggested by Jarvis (1999) as well as documented histories of national consulting, program management, and professional leadership in volunteer administration to identify eight current volunteer managers ("practitioners") and 11 current national/international consultants ("experts") to participate in the study. Seven individuals from each group agreed to participate.

The researchers asked the seven practitioners to reflect on their day-to-day successful practices in managing volunteers and, based on their reflections and real-life contemporary experiences, to identify effective components of contemporary volunteer management. Similarly, the researchers asked these experts to read two or three entire documents of published literature on volunteer management, to reflect on their readings, and (based on their reflections and the literature read) also to identify effective components. The researchers developed a theme identification work sheet to facilitate participants' reflections in identifying components of volunteer management and submitting them to the researchers in short words and phrases.

The researchers analyzed the data initially by using constant comparative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). They read and reviewed the volunteer management components identified by both the practitioners and experts and collapsed the initial data into recurring themes using a modified storyboarding technique (Tesch, 1990).

The researchers employed triangulation (Cohen & Mannion, 1985) with two separate groups of volunteer administrators and one group of Ohio State University faculty familiar with volunteerism and qualitative research, in order to strengthen the integrity of the collapsed themes identified, resulting in valid volunteer management components and subcomponents. Based on the data from consultants and practitioners, three categories and nine constructs were identified and included that comprised the conceptual PEP model:

Category I: Personal Preparation
1. Personal and Professional Development
2. Serving as an Internal Consultant
3. Program Planning

Category II: Volunteer Engagement

4. Recruitment
5. Selection
6. Orientation and Training
7. Coaching and Supervision

Category III: Program Perpetuation

8. Recognition
9. Program Evaluation, Impact, and Accountability

Subsequently, the researchers used the PEP conceptual model to ask members of the Association of Volunteer Administration about their perceptions of the importance of each potential competency suggested in the PEP conceptual model (Safrit et al., 2005). The population for the subsequent study was the 2,057 individual members of the Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) as of July 1, 2004, and included 1,889 AVA members from the United States, 98 from Canada, and 70 from other countries. The researchers used a quantitative methodology approach of a mailed questionnaire consisting of 140 individual volunteer management competencies based on the prior qualitative study. A pilot test provided Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for individual constructs that ranged from .73 to .93. Since all values were greater than .70, the researchers determined the questionnaire to be reliable (Stevens, 1992).

The authors achieved a final response rate of 25% (Wiseman, 2003) and followed up with 150 randomly selected nonrespondents (Linder & Wingenbach, 2002; Miller & Smith, 1983); they found no significant differences between respondents and nonrespondents. To determine if the data were appropriate for factor analysis using the principal component analysis technique, a correlation matrix of volunteer management competencies was reviewed for intercorrelations greater than $|0.30|$, and two statistics were computed. Based on the correlation matrix and the statistics calculated, the researchers concluded that the data were appropriate for component analysis.

Two criteria were used initially to determine the number of components to be extracted. First, only components with eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were considered for the analysis. Second, a scree plot of the component eigenvalues was used to identify breaks or discontinuity in determining the number of major components. After initial extraction, a third criterion for the determination of the number of components to extract was whether they possessed meaningful interpretation (simple structure and conceptual sense). The extraction procedure resulted in the identification of seven components underlying the conceptual constructs of volunteer management competencies. The components were rotated using a varimax rotation method with Kaiser normalization to aid in interpretation. A maximum likelihood factor extraction procedure was also used to observe the stability of the components identified in the principal component analysis. This second technique resulted in the delineation of identical factors with similar loadings as the principal component analysis, reflecting stability in the results.

The component loadings in the rotated component matrix were examined to understand and interpret the nature of the seven components. To assist in the interpretation and reduce subjectivity and the likelihood of non-significant items loading on the components, only items with component loadings of |0.40| and higher were considered for naming the seven components (Stevens, 1992). The researchers utilized a qualitative triangulation methodology (Cohen & Mannion, 1985) with themselves and three nationally recognized experts in volunteer management and administration to name the components identified.

The end result was an empirically based model for volunteer management, the first of its kind (as far as the authors can ascertain). Still referred to as PEP, the revised model includes seven components of contemporary volunteer management and administration, with each component reflecting respective requisite professional competencies (see Exhibit 1.2). Together, the seven components accounted for 39.2% of the total variance among the empirical data collected.

The seven components identified in PEP emphasize practically all of the volunteer management competencies identified during the previous 35 years by authors and professional leaders in the field. The four components of volunteer recruitment and selection, volunteer orientation and training, volunteer program maintenance, and volunteer recognition address the large majority of volunteer management concepts that have been identified traditionally for volunteer organizations and programs holistically (Boyce, 1971; Brudney, 1990; Culp et al., 1998; Ellis, 1996; Fisher & Cole, 1993; Navarre, 1989; Penrod, 1991; Stepputat, 1995; Wilson, 1976).

Comparing PEP to Historical Models

As shown in Exhibit 1.3, previous models of volunteer management have not adequately addressed the personal and professional growth of the individual volunteer manager (with the possible exception of Fisher and Cole, 1993, and Brudney, 1990, to some degree). This analysis is supported by the Points of Light Foundation (Allen, 1995):

> *[A]s we have discussed before [regarding volunteer management], volunteer coordinators were, in a way, a missing element. This is not to say that volunteer coordinators are not important—indeed, in an earlier piece we argued that the research leads to a more important role of internal consultant and change agent for volunteer coordinators. Rather, it underscores that it is not the mere presence or absence of a staff position with that title that makes the difference. It is the way the person in the position thinks, what he or she does and what the system is prepared to allow him or her to do—those are the critical differences between the "more effective" and "less effective" organizations. (p. 17)*

EXHIBIT 1.2 PEP (Preparation, Engagement, and Perpetuation) Model for Contemporary Volunteer Management and Administration

Professional Domain	Domain Topic Area(s)	Domain Topic Area Competencies
(Personal) Preparation	Professional development	Self-assess professional knowledge, skills, and abilities; communicate professional development needs to supervisors; participate in local and national professional organizations and conferences; read newsletters, list-serves, and professional journals; seek out formal educational opportunities to enhance professional skills; develop a personal philosophy of volunteer management and involvement; calculate the cost effectiveness of volunteer programs; balance personal and professional responsibilities; manage personal stress resulting from professional responsibilities; develop system for processing paperwork and maintaining files; regularly update stakeholders on the results of evaluations
(Volunteer) Engagement	Volunteer recruitment and selection	Assess organizational climate for readiness of new volunteers; assess organizational needs for volunteers; assess needed skills and abilities for specific volunteer positions; develop selection process consistent with position responsibilities; conduct targeted recruitment of volunteers; match potential volunteers with positions based on skills, abilities, and interests; assess skills/interests of potential volunteers for other positions; reassign volunteers when they are unsuccessful in current positions; promote diversity in volunteer recruitment; include other stakeholders in the volunteer selection process; design recruiting strategies with boards and administrators; evaluate selection process against best-practices
	Volunteer orientation and training	Identify objectives for orientation and training; communicate orientation and training requirements to volunteers; design and conduct ongoing orientation and training for volunteers; design training specific to volunteer responsibilities; identify teaching materials for volunteer training; document volunteer training completed; assess and manage risks associated with volunteer positions; evaluate training/orientation program; develop policies to manage volunteer risks
	Volunteer recognition	Implement ongoing recognition of volunteers; identify volunteers who should be recognized; determine how volunteers will be recognized; plan and implement formal volunteer recognition; keep records of those recognized

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 1.2 (*Continued*)

Professional Domain	Domain Topic Area(s)	Domain Topic Area Competencies
	Program maintenance	Resolve conflicts between volunteers and paid staff; support paid staff when working with volunteers; train and educate current staff to work with volunteers; educate new paid staff on volunteer management; recognize paid staff for participating and supporting the volunteer program; involve paid staff in the recognition of volunteers
(Program) Perpetuation	Resource development	Identify fundraising needs; develop fundraising plans; solicit funds from prospective supporters; build positive relationships with donors; research market for potential volunteers; establish marketing plan and tools for volunteer recruitment; utilize a variety of media to recruit volunteers; implement ongoing recruitment plan
	Program advocacy	Identify a leadership team for the volunteer program; conduct focus groups to identify program needs; represent volunteer interest in program development; promote and provide additional leadership opportunities to potential volunteers; engage volunteers to teach components of the orientation and training process; develop ongoing training needs assessment for paid staff; train staff to select volunteers using acceptable procedures; identify future uses of volunteer program evaluation results; conduct performance evaluation for those assigned to supervise volunteers; develop ongoing training needs assessment for volunteers; educate others on how to evaluate components of the volunteer program; share progress toward goals with current volunteers

Source: Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem, and Gliem (2005).

EXHIBIT 1.3 Comparison of Volunteer Resource Management Components Identified in the Literature with the PEP Model

Safrit et al. (2005)	Naylor (1967)	Boyce (1971)	Wilson (1976)	Navarre (1989)	Brudney (1990)	Penrod (1991)	Fisher and Cole (1993)	Ellis (1996)	Culp et al. (1998)
Professional development					Importance of volunteer management		Professionalism		
Volunteer recruitment and selection	Inventory of jobs Inventory of volunteers Recruitment Selection Placement	Identification Selection	Establishing positive organizational climate Volunteer job descriptions Volunteer motivation, recruitment, interviewing, and placement	Volunteer job descriptions Recruiting Screening	Designing and organizing programs Attracting and retaining able volunteers	Locating	Developing volunteer roles Establishing organizational climate Recruiting	Planning Staffing	Generating
Volunteer orientation and training	Induction Training	Orientation Training		Orienting Training		Orienting	Training and development	Legal issues	Educating
Volunteer recognition		Recognition							
Program maintenance	Supervision	Utilization	Planning Communications	Supervising	Planning and managing volunteer programs	Operating	Supervising	Volunteer/ employee relationships Teamwork Legal issues	Mobilizing
Resource development					Evaluating cost effectiveness			Budgeting and allocating resources	
Program advocacy	Provision for mobilty	Evaluation	Evaluating	Evaluating	Improving service quality and impact Encouraging volunteer involvement	Perpetuating	Evaluating	Evaluation of impact Dollar value of volunteers	Sustaining

Source: Based on Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem, and Gliem (2005).

Two other differences that are worth additional discussion relate to program maintenance and resource development. Perhaps an argument of semantics, program maintenance was not previously included in the historical models. In the PEP model, program maintenance takes a holistic view of the functions related to supervision, performance evaluation, utilization, and overall engagement of the individual volunteer. The competency of resource development is certainly not new to the profession; however, the level of skill and experience needed to be successful likely has increased dramatically in recent years, which is why it has been identified in the research. Resource development goes beyond budgeting and determining the cost effectiveness of a volunteer program to include the overall development and implementation of a comprehensive and contemporary plan to secure resources for the program. The notion of resource development as a significant component of a volunteer manager's position description may be unsettling for some; however, without a comprehensive plan, the ability to support the program and the volunteers adequately is likely diminished significantly. A final component that has some differences from historical models is that of program advocacy that has become a very significant component of the volunteer manager's position. Taking the components of evaluation and sustaining that previous authors identified in their models, the PEP model suggests that one must operationalize those activities so that the volunteer program may grow and be sustainable in local communities.

While there are notable differences between the PEP model and the historical models and concepts previously discussed, there are also similarities. Like most, if not all, models before PEP, the components originally identified by Boyce (1971) are included in this model as well. This notion further validates the importance of those competencies and how they are applicable even in today's complex and often fast-paced environment of engaging volunteers through many different modalities (i.e., short term, long term, episodic, virtual, etc.).

Comparing PEP to Contemporary Models

The Council for Certification of Volunteer Administration (CCVA) is responsible for awarding the credential Certified in Volunteer Administration (CVA) and promoting six core values in volunteer resource management. The CCVA (2008) outlines five core competencies:

1. *Ethics.* Acting in the accordance with professional principles
2. *Organizational management.* Designing and implementing policies, processes, and structures to align volunteer involvement with organizational mission and vision
3. *Human resource management.* Successfully engaging, training, and supporting volunteers systematically and intentionally
4. *Accountability.* Collecting relevant data and meaningfully monitoring, evaluating, and reporting
5. *Leadership and advocacy.* Advancing and advocating individual, organizational, and community goals and volunteer involvement, internally and community-wide

To support the credentialing process and to provide a comprehensive resource, the CCVA uses the book *Volunteer Administration: Professional Practice* (Seel, 2010). The chapters in the book align well with the PEP model of volunteer resource management and focus on:

- Terminology
- Ethics and ethical decision making
- Strategic management
- Operational management
- Staffing and development
- Sustainability
- Meeting management
- Financial management
- Data management
- Evaluation and outcome measurement
- Risk management
- Quality improvement
- Leadership
- Organizational involvement
- Advocacy
- Collaboration and alliances
- Historical perspectives of volunteer management

Exhibit 1.4 includes the competencies identified by CCVA as it compares to PEP and the historical models discussed previously.

Conclusion: Volunteer Resource Management Today and in the Future

Exhibit 1.4 depicts all models of volunteer management that have been discussed in this chapter and compares the PEP model to the CCVA core competencies. There are significant similarities between the two with minor differences noted. Ethics, accountability, and leadership and advocacy from the CCVA core competencies align with the PEP competencies of serving as an internal consultant, personal and professional development, and program evaluation, impact, and accountability. The CCVA core competency of organizational management aligns with PEP program planning. Human resource management, from the CCVA model, aligns with the recruitment, selection, orientation, recognition, training, and coaching and supervision competencies from the PEP model. Differences between the two competency models lie primarily in semantics as both models include the contemporary competencies for an individual to be successful as a volunteer manager.

Research in the field of volunteer resource management continues to expand, specifically related to the required competencies, identification of effective components, and/or level of competence with selected volunteer resource management competencies. Barnes and Sharpe (2009), through a case study, investigated alternatives to traditional volunteer resource management models that would promote lifestyle integration, organizational informality and flexibility, and volunteer-agency

EXHIBIT 1.4 Comparison of Volunteer Resource Management Components Identified in the Literature with the CCVA and the PEP Models

CCVA (2008)	Safrit et al. (2005)	Naylor (1967)	Boyce (1971)	Wilson (1976)	Navarre (1989)	Brudney (1990)	Penrod (1991)	Fisher and Cole (1993)	Ellis (1996)	Culp et al. (1998)
Ethics	Professional development					Importance of volunteer management		Professionalism		
Human Resource Management	Volunteer recruitment and selection	Inventory of jobs Inventory of volunteers Recruitment Selection Placement	Identification Selection	Establishing positive organizational climate Volunteer job descriptions Volunteer motivation, recruitment, interviewing, and placement	Volunteer job descriptions Recruiting Screening	Designing and organizing programs Attracting and retaining able volunteers	Locating	Developing volunteer roles Establishing organizational climate Recruiting	Planning Staffing	Generating
	Volunteer orientation and training	Induction Training	Orientation Training		Orienting Training		Orienting	Training and development	Legal issues	Educating
	Volunteer recognition		Recognition							
Organizational Management	Program maintenance	Supervision	Utilization	Planning Communications	Supervising	Planning and managing volunteer programs	Operating	Supervising	Volunteer/ employee relationships Teamwork Legal issues	Mobilizing
Accountability	Resource development					Evaluating cost effectiveness			Budgeting and allocating resources	
Leadership and Advocacy	Program advocacy	Provision for mobilty	Evaluation	Evaluating	Evaluating	Improving service quality and impact Encouraging volunteer involvement	Perpetuating	Evaluating	Evaluation of impact Dollar value of volunteers	Sustaining

Source: Based on Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem, and Gliem (2005).

collaboration. Hager and Brudney (2004) investigated the adoption of nine practices for volunteer management by charities and congregations. Boyd (2004) conducted a Delphi study to identify those competency areas that would require managers of volunteers to be proficient in the future. Harshfield (1995) investigated the perceived importance of selected volunteer management components in western U.S. schools, while King and Safrit (1998) did likewise for Ohio 4-H Youth Development agents. These research examples demonstrate the significant interest in the field of volunteer management and the need to continue to conduct research to determine best and effective practices that will allow the profession to continue to evolve.

As previously discussed, the literature identified competencies that are certainly consistent across all contexts; however, as volunteerism continues to evolve, it is imperative that the competencies be considered in the right context. It must be recognized that competencies alone do not define the profession or prepare the individual who will be working in the profession. New professionals, and arguably seasoned professionals as well, need to have a chance to practice what is taught in the formal setting, through internships, practicums, and other similar arrangements. Additionally, as new competencies are identified and the field of volunteer management continues to evolve, it is imperative that degree and certificate programs adapt and include in their curriculum the new competencies for the profession to remain relevant and the individuals prepared to enter the workforce.

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CHAPTER 2

Volunteer Demographics

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This chapter explores the concept of volunteer demographics from three perspectives. First it describes volunteer demographics in the United States for 2010 as well as selected demographic trends since 1974. Then the chapter approaches volunteer demographics from the perspective of human development across the life span, with accompanying critical implications for volunteerism and volunteer resource management based on specific periods of human development. Finally, the chapter discusses volunteer demographics based on the contemporary theory of generational cohorts, again with accompanying critical implications for volunteerism and volunteer resource management based on specific generational cohorts.

Volunteer Demographics: Considering Both the Forest and the Trees

According to the Merriam-Webster dictionary (2010), the noun "demographics" is defined as "(plural): the statistical characteristics of human populations (as age or income) used especially to identify markets; a market or segment of the population identified by demographics." Thus, demographics describe a targeted population or subpopulation based on specific social or cultural characteristics, and are especially powerful in helping to market programs and services to that population or subpopulation. Thus, the term "volunteer demographics" refers to the use of identifiable social, cultural, or personal characteristics or traits to better understand volunteers as an overall, holistic targeted subpopulation of larger society. Such demographics are very useful to volunteer resource managers in targeting specific societal populations

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and subpopulations for purposes of recruiting new volunteers, better understanding current volunteers' potential motivations for volunteering, and understanding potential barriers to individuals who may consider volunteering. Examples of typical demographics that can be used for such purposes include age, gender, race/ethnicity, marital status, familial makeup, employment status, highest level of education achieved, total household income, and others.

Ideally, a volunteer resource manager should consider each potential or current volunteer as the unique individual he or she is and identify specific volunteer opportunities and requisite training needs based on that individualization. In reality, however, this ideal approach is often not feasible or practical due to several factors, including (but not limited to) the large numbers of volunteers being supported and other demands on the volunteer resource manager's time. In this chapter, we focus first on selected volunteer demographics as of 2010 in the United States and some identified trends since 1974, based on empirical data collected by government sources. Then we discuss implications for recruiting new volunteers and better supporting current ones from two holistic conceptual approaches, both of which build on combinations of the specific types of demographics described earlier: volunteerism in the context of human development and in the context of generational cohorts.

Snapshot of Selected Volunteer Demographics in the United States

Discussing volunteer demographics over any extended period of time (i.e., multiple years) is somewhat of a challenge, largely due to the absence of consistent data collection by an ongoing research/demographics agency using consistent methodologies (e.g., asking the same questions year after year in the same manner). However, some national agencies have attempted to do so, using valid and reliable data analysis and extrapolation techniques to allow for such longitudinal perspectives.

In 2006, the Corporation for National and Community Service compared selected volunteer demographics between 1975 and 2005 using data collected by the U.S. Census Bureau using the Current Population Survey (CPS). The CPS used a consistent definition of "adult volunteer" as "someone age 16 and older who did work through an organization in the previous 12 months for which they were not paid" (p. 4). Thus, the CPS collected data only regarding formal volunteerism (i.e., volunteerism conducted under the auspices of a formal organization or agency) as compared to informal volunteerism (i.e., volunteerism performed by an individual without any connections to a formal organization or agency). The 2005 statistics utilized came from a pooled CPS data set that combined responses from the 2003, 2004, and 2005 surveys; consequently, data were modified so as to calculate the 2005 volunteer rate compared to those from previous reports.

Still, several interesting trends were identified based on the demographic comparisons from 1974 to 2005:

- Volunteering rates for individuals ages 16 to 19 doubled between 1989 and 2005 to a rate that exceeded the 2005 national volunteer rate. The report authors attributed this enormous growth in volunteerism among teenagers to the growth of school-based service and service-learning programs and to young people's reactions to the events of September 11, 2001, in expressing an increased desire to serve their community.

- There was a 30% increase in the rate of volunteering among midlife adults ages 45 to 64. Suggested reasons for this increase included higher levels of educational attainment and delays in marriage and childrearing.
- The largest increase observed among a specific demographic group during this 30-year period was a 64% increase among Americans age 65 and over. Furthermore, the percentage of these older volunteers contributing 100 or more hours increased by 46%. These surprising statistics were attributed to generational attributes (to be discussed later in this chapter), connections between improved health and volunteerism, and improved education and disposable income levels.

In 2010, the Corporation for National and Community Service once again compiled a snapshot of volunteerism in the United States based on selected demographics. Of course, between the years of 2005 and 2010, the United States experienced a major economic crisis that had resulted in increased needs and demands for government and public sector programs, especially for more vulnerable populations. However, in response to this crisis, the Corporation concluded that during the previous year, 63.4 million Americans had volunteered in their communities (an additional 1.6 million compared to 2008), providing 8.1 billion hours of service with an estimated value of $169 billion. This was the largest single-year increase in the number of volunteers and the volunteer rate since 2003. The increase was largely driven by increased volunteer rates among women (especially ages 45 to 54), married individuals (especially married women), and employed individuals (especially those employed full time). The highest volunteer rates were observed among individuals with children under the age of 18 living at home and individuals with a high school diploma or college degree.

Of course, entire tomes could be written regarding demographic trends in volunteerism. This small section highlights just a few of the more interesting aspects of volunteerism observed among Americans during the past several decades. While such trend analysis is important to volunteer resource managers in placing a respective volunteer program into the larger social context, more important is the ability of a volunteer resource manager to understand specific opportunities and limitations for any individual to volunteer based on larger developmental and social characteristics. Therefore, the remainder of this chapter explores volunteerism based on two holistic premises: (1) stages of human development and (2) generational cohorts.

Volunteerism Across the Life Span: Understanding "Seasons of Service" in Human Development

Volunteering does not happen in a vacuum (Ellis, 2010), and so it stands to reason that major life events and social phenomena that impact society in general will also have an impact on volunteer activity. Volunteers make up practically every "season" of the human life cycle, from childhood, to the teen years, through early and middle adulthood, and well into the senior years. Depending on what life cycle stage volunteer currently are experiencing, they will have unique personal needs and developmental characteristics that must be recognized and respected in order to provide the most positive experience possible for both the individual volunteers and the sponsoring organization.

Although holistic human development can be more easily explored and understood by examining respective individual life "seasons," the true nature of the human life span and the interconnectedness of the respective seasons must be approached not as separate, well-defined episodes but rather as an ongoing human drama wherein one scene blends seamlessly into the following one and each act flows into its successor. This is the paradox of exploring human development across the entire life span; we may study it by dissecting it into its component stages, but we may truly understand it only by combining the stages into the resulting whole. Fisher (1997) commented insightfully on this paradox:

> *[T]he journey from early infancy to senescence is an unfolding of unifying maturational and developmental processes. Viewed as a continuum, this journey appears to be seamless, with one moment flowing into the next . . . For purposes of a more focused study, the observational frame can be shifted, maturational levels can be designated, and these levels can then be viewed individually as a series of connected but somewhat discrete epochs—"the seasons of life." (p. 173)*

Historically, volunteer programs have been developed to address the needs of a single, targeted audience or group. The American Red Cross, one of the most well-known volunteer efforts to come out of the post–Civil war era (Ellis & Noyes, 1990), initially addressed male soldiers' convalescent needs in a society at war. 4-H Youth Development was established originally in the first decades of the 20th century to address the needs of school-age boys and girls in rural agricultural settings (Reck, 1951). In 1974, the hospice movement was founded to provide caring support for terminally ill patients and their families (Ellis & Noyes, 1990).

However, contemporary volunteer organizations most often find themselves simultaneously addressing multiple needs of multiple client groups. This challenging reality of today's not-for-profit environment has encouraged (and even forced!) many volunteer-based organizations to find unique ways to connect the various client groups they serve so as to make best use of increasingly scarce material and human resources. Programs such as the Retired Senior Volunteer Program, Foster Grandparents, and Adopt-a-Grandparent build on the unique skills and abilities of individuals at specific stages of life and their interests to contribute time, energies, and talents to others without concern for financial gain. Such intergenerational programs connect individuals from distinctly unique life stages with each other in order to improve the quality of life for those in need, those uniquely challenged, and society as a whole. The resulting "seasons of service" also serve important functions in helping us better understand, appreciate, and value individuals experiencing life stages different from our own; an intergenerational program not only bridges a generation gap with meaningful interactions but also teaches children some positive aspects of being old (Chen, 1997).

Understanding human seasons of service and promoting volunteerism across the entire life span enable volunteer programs to meet increasing needs of unique client groups while optimizing existing material resources and capitalizing on a growing human resource base: senior volunteers. As Stevens (1998) stated: "The human resource of senior volunteers is alive and well and growing . . . Supporting their efforts through research-based practice directions can further their well-being" (p. 36).

Much like the world of volunteerism, the field of human development organizes life stages, or seasons, to make meaning of growth patterns. The field recognizes that development has three domains or dimensions: physical, social/emotional, and cognitive (Berk, 2008) and that those domains are heavily influenced by many systems working together. Bronfenbrenner's (1986) ecological theory of development postulates that all systems work in tandem in child and human development, so it is important to consider developmental stages and systems of influence when organizing volunteers. Having a foundational knowledge of the three domains of development in all life cycles can help volunteer resource managers know how to best engage volunteers. The three domains of development are intimately intertwined to make up the whole person, and all three areas must be considered to promote healthy development and successful volunteerism at each life stage. The physical domain addresses physical growth and maturation in childhood and subsequent changes throughout adulthood, including gains and losses of motor abilities over the life span. The social/emotional domain relates to emergent relationships with peers, adults, and family as well as one's ability to have self-control and to cope with emotions. Last, the cognitive domain (thinking) involves changes in the mental processes involved in reasoning, perception, languages, learning, and thought.

Child and youth developmental stages have been well studied over the past century. Jean Piaget was one of the first theorists to highlight sequential developmental milestones of human growth and development (Berk, 2008). Piaget's developmental stages have been tested over time, and his theory is still thought of as the quintessential life stage theory (Crain, 2011). Many other theorists have expanded the understanding of child and family development in the three domains. Gesell's (1925) maturational theory helps us understand physical development; Erikson (1959), Ainsworth (1967), Bandura (1977), and Kohlberg (1981) contributed greatly to the social/emotional development. And, of course, Montessori (1954), Piaget and Inhelder (1969), and Vygotsky (1978) are the leading authorities on cognitive development.

Having an understanding of developmental stages is important for volunteer resource managers when determining the best fit for volunteers. Using human development terms, if there is a goodness of fit between the volunteer and the environment, there is a higher chance that the volunteer will do better and stay longer. If, for example, a 15 year-old youth comes to volunteer at a food bank, the volunteer resource manager could consider the physical abilities, social-emotional norms and the cognitive development of this volunteer before placing her in a specific position.

Life Stages

Exhibit 2.1 presents a summary of human developmental characteristics across the life span in the context of volunteer resource management. The next subsections describe in more detail specific life stages across the human development continuum with regard to unique attributes and characteristics related to physical, social-emotional, and cognitive development for that stage.

EXHIBIT 2.1 Connecting Human Development to Volunteerism Across the Life Span

Life Stage (Reference)	Human Development Characteristics Physical/Social-Emotional/Cognitive	Implications for Volunteerism	Potential Volunteer Activities
Infancy Birth–2 years (Berk, 2008)	**Physical:** Rapid brain and body growth Becomes mobile **Social-Emotional:** Social from birth Gain awareness of gender **Cognitive:** Acquire self-recognition Speak first words and phrases	No conscious volunteerism Parental socialization Early exposure to service Develop belief that helping others is important Short-term activities	Parents take infant children as they: Help at the local place of worship Help a neighbor with yard work Help at child's school
Childhood 3–5 years (Berk, 2008)	**Physical:** Improved gross and fine motor skills Improved balance **Social-Emotional:** Parent-child relations dominant Concrete self-concept **Cognitive:** Short attention span Thought guided by perceptions over logic	Short-term activities Active, hands-on activities Encourage individual creativity Cooperative focus (noncompetitive) Close supervision (whole family involved) Success focus (make child feel good about self) Emphasize safety	Help family members or teachers Plant flowers at a park Run errands for elderly neighbor Clean outdoor areas in community Plant a community garden Sing at local nursing home Donate toys or clothes
Preadolescence 6–11 years (Berk, 2008)	**Physical:** Growth is slow and regular Increase in fine and gross motor skills **Social-Emotional:** Enjoys organized games with same sex peers Social comparison among peers and others **Cognitive:** Attention span developing Limited to concrete thinking	Cooperative focus (noncompetitive) Actively engaged Very structured/organized Make activity fun Same-gender groups Need expert guidance	Help plant flowers at a local nursing home or for an elderly neighbor Help serve a meal at local family homeless shelter Rake leaves for a neighbor Play with other children at a local family homeless shelter Collect food or clothes from neighbors

Adolescence 12–19 years (Berk, 2008)	**Physical:** Dramatic growth spurt Reach sexual maturity **Social-Emotional:** Peak peer involvement Adjustment and confusion about self-identity and imaginary audience **Cognitive:** Gains in attention, inhibition Thinking both concretely and abstractly	Mixed gender groups Provide greater responsibility/decision making Career exploration Opportunity to learn about themselves College application/job resume building Sensitivity to individual feelings/perceptions	Conduct a canned food drive for local food pantry Serve as tutor for young child at school or neighborhood Conduct community cleanup day Help organize and conduct voter registration drive As a family, spend Thanksgiving day serving at a local homeless or senior center
Young Adulthood 20–39 (Berk, 2008)	**Physical:** Peak physical functioning Brain development complete **Social-Emotional:** Social networks expand along with romantic relations Career and families launched **Cognitive:** Excellent mental skill and growth in knowledge	Utilize high degree of expertise Need to balance work and family Mentoring younger adults/teens Have long- and short-term volunteer options Include opportunities for social connectedness	Group projects for clubs or families Conduct family volunteer days Volunteer with local youth club or organization Organize volunteer trip to another community
Adulthood and Older Adulthood 40+ (Sigelman & Shaffer, 1995)	**Physical:** Reaction time slows Body begins to slow and weaken **Social-Emotional:** Focus is on family and career Loss of family and significant others Self-reflection increases **Cognitive:** Has many world experiences Increased wisdom	Have long- and short-term volunteer options Include opportunities for social connectedness More disposable time (income) Fill voids in life Need for self-reflection (altruism) Be aware of health limitations	Serve on community board or committee to share expertise Serve as literacy tutor at local school or family shelter Serve as community advocate for local senior citizen issue or concern

INFANCY (0 TO 2 YEARS) *Physical:* Reflexes common, then graduates to more voluntary control; begins to crawl, then walk; early ability to make use of sensory information.

Social-emotional: Social from birth, attachment to caregiver(s); stranger anxiety; simple pretend play; family-centered environment; self-recognition; temperament is foundation for personality.

Cognitive: Sensory-motor period; coos, babble, then first words; recognizes symbols, objects, individuals; acquires object permanence.

CHILDHOOD (3 TO 5 YEARS) *Physical:* Good perceptual abilities; coordination develops and improves; brain growth.

Social-Emotional: Parent-child relationship is dominant; first exposure to schooling; social abilities improve but still egocentric; "pretend" takes off; simple understanding of right and wrong, gender-role understanding.

Cognitive: Preoperational stage; minimal use of memory strategies; language acquisition accelerates; thoughts are perception based with little use of logical skills.

PREADOLESCENCE (6 TO 11 YEARS) *Physical:* Improved motor skills and coordination; slow physical growth; white matter brain development which increases hormone production & improves emotion regulation.

Social-Emotional: Much social comparison among peers; increased involvement with same-sex peers; school influence increases; self-concept forming; enjoys organized games; personality traits become clear.

Cognitive: Limited to concrete mental thinking capacities; can think logically; mastery of words and language; memory improves, attention span developing.

ADOLESCENCE (12 TO 19 YEARS) *Physical:* Dramatic growth spurt; reaching sexual maturity; physical functioning accelerates.

Social-Emotional: Peak peer involvement; attain close friendships; dating begins; parent relations sometimes strained and more nearly equal; adjustment to sexual and self-identity; conventional moral reasoning; conflict of identity versus role confusion.

Cognitive: Can think both concretely and abstractly; able to understand hypothetical thought; gains in information processing.

YOUNG ADULTHOOD (20 TO 39 YEARS) *Physical:* Peak physical functioning with some gradual decline. Begin procreation.

Social-Emotional: Social networks expand along with romantic involvements; careers and families launched; career changes; high risk for psychological problems; increased confidence; family roles change; stable personality; conflict of intimacy versus isolation.

Cognitive: Develop area of expertise; excellent mental skill and growth in knowledge.

MIDDLE ADULTHOOD (40 TO 64 YEARS) *Physical:* Physical declines may begin; need for glasses and hearing aids; female menopause; male climacteric.

Social-Emotional: Career stabilizes; children leave home; responsibility for older and younger generations in family increases; work, relationships, and family dominate; psychological struggles between generativity and stagnation; midlife struggles possible; personality traits remain consistent.

Cognitive: Postformal thought process; gain in most areas, loss in some cognitive abilities; uses logic and intuition.

OLDER ADULTHOOD (65+ YEARS) *Physical:* Physical abilities decline; slower; less strength.

Social-Emotional: Hold great value in social relationships; maybe dealing with intergenerational issues; typically have more free time.

Cognitive: Wide variation of cognitive abilities; some may be near the peak of intelligence while others have slower learning, memory lapses, and declines in cognition; mental abilities capable enough for daily routines.

Connecting Human Development to Volunteerism

Building on a basic understanding of human development, volunteer resource managers may develop and sustain stronger seasons of service through volunteer programs. Such seasons should be targeted toward and built around the unique capabilities, interests, and needs of a focused volunteer corps (e.g., children, teens, older adults, etc.).

At this point, we must acknowledge and affirm the major emphasis in today's not-for-profit sector on building bridges between such focused seasons of service in order to promote intergenerational understanding through volunteering. Wilson, Allen, Strahan, and Ethier (2008) emphasized the importance of providing a positive context for teens as well as the benefits of volunteering to teens. Chen (1997) described an intergenerational program designed to address the fact that "today's children and older people have limited opportunities for meaningful interaction in a country increasingly segregated by age and marked by long distance grandparents and grandchildren" (p. 48). Putnam (2000) defined this idea as "social capital . . . connections among individuals—social networks and the norms of reciprocity and trustworthiness that arise from them" (p. 19). Again, by recognizing and respecting the needs and interests of the respective seasons we are attempting to connect, the resulting volunteer efforts will not only be more appropriate for participants but also more meaningful. Some focused considerations for volunteer efforts for each season of service, as well as a few examples of possible volunteer activities, are described next.

INFANCY (0 TO 2 YEARS) Most individuals would agree that infants are not conscious of volunteering and have no choice whether to volunteer or not volunteer. For infants, being a part of volunteering is to be a part of their parent's volunteering/community socialization. Volunteer opportunities do provide infants with an early exposure to service and can serve as a foundation for developing the belief that helping others is important. Infants who "volunteer" with their parents should be engaged in activities that are short term and may include accompanying parents while they help at a local place of worship or help a neighbor with yard work.

CHILDHOOD (3 TO 5 YEARS) Childhood is the time for children to begin to develop their sense of connection to the world, and it is a wonderful time to get them engaged in the practice of volunteering. Three-to-five-year-olds can assist family members and other adults in short-term volunteer activities that actively engage them in hands-on activities. Such activities should encourage an individual child's creativity and be cooperatively focused rather than competitive with an opportunity for everyone to succeed. Children require close supervision, and activities should emphasize safety. Volunteer activities for this age group may include helping a family member plant flowers at a local nursing home or for an elderly neighbor, raking leaves for a neighbor, or pulling weeds in a community garden.

PREADOLESCENCE (6 TO 11 YEARS) Similar to the childhood group, engaging young school-agers in volunteer activities can begin to build a life of service. Preadolescent youth may be most willing to volunteer when the opportunities are cooperatively focused and allow youth to be actively engaged in the activity. Activities should be very structured and organized with an emphasis on having fun. Youth in this category may respond most positively if they are involved in same-gender groups with adequate guidance from an older teen or adult. Volunteer activities may include contributing to a canned food drive at their school, helping serve a meal at a local family homeless shelter, raking leaves for a neighbor, or playing with other children at a local family homeless shelter.

ADOLESCENCE (12 TO 19 YEARS) Teens are more willing to actively engage in mixed-gender groups and seek greater responsibility/decision making in what volunteer projects to conduct. Volunteer opportunities can enhance teens' career exploration, provide an opportunity to learn about themselves, and be part of a strong college application or job resume. Activities may include delivering food to a family in need, serving as a tutor for a younger child at school or in the neighborhood, planning and conducting a community cleanup day, or organizing a voter registration drive. Peer-to-peer mentoring and mediation programs are also especially appropriate and effective for teen volunteers.

ADULTHOOD Black and Jirovic (1999) presented an excellent discussion of similarities and differences among adult volunteers at various ages. Safrit and Merrill (1998) explored volunteer activities among (adult) Generation X and Baby Boomer generations. Other authors have discussed differences in volunteering between older and younger adults (Fisher, Mueller, & Cooper, 1991; Lee & Burden, 1991; O'Reilly & Caro, 1994). However, we suggest three distinct seasons of service among adults, each with unique assets and opportunities regarding volunteer efforts.

YOUNG ADULTHOOD (20 TO 39 YEARS) Young adults have limited time available and seek quality volunteer opportunities. Volunteer activities that connect volunteerism to work and family would be very desirable. For parents with school-age children, volunteering can serve two purposes: (1) fostering an ethic of service in their children, and (2) giving them more time to be with their children in a meaningful activity. Adults in this category can work with minimal direction and may look at the volunteer activities as a way to expand their skills, meet others, and connect to personal causes/values. Opportunities may include offering to conduct an after-school program to involve kids from the neighborhood, providing leadership to a group of friends to raise money for the local humane society, or encouraging their local place of employment to adopt a school classroom or participate in a local Habitat for Humanity project. Episodic volunteer tasks that can be performed at home or accomplished on one's own time, or started and completed in a short time, may also be desirable.

MIDDLE ADULTHOOD (40 TO 64 YEARS) Organizations should continue to recognize the need for individuals during middle adulthood to balance work and family as volunteer opportunities are developed and shared. For middle and older adult volunteers, a volunteer resource manager should consider professional skill levels and translate them into potential leadership positions. Activities that provide an opportunity for individuals in middle adulthood may include serving on a community board or committee, volunteering with a local youth club or organization, or serving Thanksgiving dinner (with their families) at a local homeless or senior center.

OLDER ADULTHOOD (65 AND OLDER) Adults who are 65 and older often have more disposable time and income and may be looking for ways to fill voids in their lives. In addition, these adults are likely to bring wisdom and a breadth and depth of knowledge that can utilized as well as strong connections to the community. Volunteer opportunities for this age group must consider potential physical and health limitations. Volunteer positions may include fundraising, serving as a literacy tutor at the local school or family shelter, or serving as a community advocate for a local senior citizen concern or issue.

Volunteerism and Generational Cohorts

The study of generational cohorts has become more relevant recently as those eligible for retirement continue to work more years than they perhaps had expected and are joined in the workplace by those just entering (Kehl, 2010). This leads to an environment in which there may be individuals ranging in age from their early 20s to their late 70s who are interacting in close proximity in work or volunteer contexts. This observation alone is not so staggering until we begin to think about the myriad differences in life experiences during that 50-year time span and how such differences impact the individuals volunteering in the organization. For example, people who did not have access to telephones until they were well into adulthood may be interacting with younger volunteers who cannot remember a time without constant cell phone access. By acknowledging the respective generational cohorts represented simultaneously in volunteer organizations, volunteer resource managers can work to alleviate potential challenges and also take advantage of identified strengths of the various generational cohorts.

Understanding Generational Cohorts

Fundamental to applying a generational context to volunteer participation is an understanding of the various recognized generational cohorts and some of their general characteristics. Currently, as many as five distinct generational cohorts are recognized from which volunteers may be interacting in any single volunteer program (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2006). This creates a definite need for volunteer resource managers to be adept at incorporating a multitude of individuals from very different generational perspectives into programs if all of the volunteers are to be appropriately and satisfactorily engaged.

THE GREATEST GENERATION (BORN PRIOR TO 1926) The early lives of the Greatest Generation were strongly impacted by the two world wars and the Great Depression (Kehl, 2010). They lived with parents who taught them to be frugal, to save for the future, to be responsible stewards of their possessions, and to work together for the common good. Their work centered on a strong work ethic and a chain-of-command, hierarchical approach to management. As employees, these individuals went to work for a company as young people, fully expecting to retire from that same company. Their framework of identity was very local with limited options or interest in mobility and relocation. Televisions, airplanes, and personal computers are all new inventions to these individuals who grew up without access to these and other technologies; even telephones were not common during their childhood. These individuals respect authority and value experience, expecting the same from others.

TRADITIONALS (OR SILENT GENERATION) (BORN BETWEEN 1926 AND 1945) Traditionals or members of the Silent Generation were strongly impacted by World Wars I and II as well as the Korean conflict (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). The Great Depression, the New Deal, and wartime rationing were also realities for these individuals. In the workplace, Traditionals do not appreciate complaints or whining and expect those who come with complaints to also offer solutions. They typically have a strong work ethic and like to learn new skills as needed to complete assigned tasks successfully. Traditionals tend to be loyal, to respect authority, and to value experience when seeking out leaders (Calhoun & Strasser, 2005).

BABY BOOMERS (BORN BETWEEN 1946 AND 1964) The Baby Boomer generation is named because of the population explosion that followed World War II (Kehl, 2010). Authors more recently have divided this group into an early cohort (1946–1955) and a late cohort (1954–1965) (Kehl, 2010; Kiger, 2010). The later cohort is referred to as Generation Jones in deference to the concept of "jonesing," or desiring more, which is often the mantra of the Baby Boom cohort (Kiger, 2010). Describing the generational cohort of Baby Boomers includes acknowledging that the Vietnam War, Woodstock, free love, self-expression, open drug use, and civil rights unrest were all components of their formative years (Thau & Heflin, 1997). These individuals like being on teams, are not necessarily interested in the status quo, and place great emphasis on personal fulfillment. They have worked at multiple jobs at a variety of work sites and are interested in a career path but see that path as developing across multiple arenas. These are individuals who have been workaholics and who have worked hard to be ensure that their children have more than they personally had (Kalita, 2008). The later cohort of Generation Jones really seems to combine some Baby Boom qualities with those of later generational cohorts. These individuals remember gas rationing, Vietnam veterans returning home, televisions in homes, the Kennedy and King assassinations, and the first walk on the Moon. Their early school years were the first in a desegregated system, so their views of diversity and fair treatment may be different from those of the early Boomers. These individuals tend to value technology as a convenience rather than a necessity and tend to be more reliant on phones, voice mail, and other technologies than early Boomers (McNamara, 2010).

GENERATION X (BORN BETWEEN 1965 AND 1982) Members of Generation X have always had access to television, radio, and other entertainment media (Kehl, 2010). Divorce became more common and more accepted during this time period, so more Generation Xers grew up in single-parent homes (Raines, 1997). From an early age, these individuals became more independent and self-reliant as they came home from school and managed their own time until parents or other caregivers returned (Merrill, 2003). More than in any previous generation, these individuals have higher levels of education and are more motivated by achievement and instant gratification (Muchnick, 1996). They have a relatively short attention span (having come of age in an environment saturated by visual media) and possess a cautious worldview. Unlike previous generations, this cohort also seeks a work and family balance (McKee & McKee, 2008).

GENERATION Y (OR MILLENNIALS) (BORN BETWEEN 1983 AND 2000) The Generation Y cohort was strongly impacted by the Challenger explosion and the tragic events of September 11, 2001, and for them school violence is the norm (Kehl, 2010). For their entire lives, television news has been available and broadcast 24/7, creating an immediacy of information access and a global view that previously had not existed. These individuals thrive on technology and are masters at multitasking (McKee & McKee, 2008). They expect to have fun at work and will in fact leave a position if they do not enjoy doing it. They require flexible hours, like working on teams, and expect to be able to dress casually in a work environment (Kehl, 2010).

GENERATION Z OR THE INTERNET GENERATION (BORN AFTER 2000) It remains to be seen how the Generation Z cohort will develop (Kehl, 2010). Children today they have never known a time when their country was not at war, have had access to technology from the time of their birth, and have been born into a global recession. It will be interesting to watch as this generation contends with the challenges of social media and public presence of personal information. These individuals have been posted to YouTube and other social sites by their parents and grandparents in ways that previous generations cannot even imagine, so it is a given that technology will play a major determining role in their lives.

Connecting Generational Cohorts to Volunteerism

While much of the work currently available about generational cohorts is derived from observation and anecdotal evidence, the generalizations provide a basis from which to build theoretical approaches to better manage volunteer programs and to support volunteer involvement across the entire generational spectrum. Indeed, many volunteer resource managers must bridge the divide that exists between themselves and their specific generational cohort and other generational cohorts in order to operate volunteer programs on a daily basis. In everything from how volunteer resource managers post available positions to recruit volunteers, to how they communicate with volunteers, from designing volunteer role descriptions to recognizing outstanding volunteer service, every aspect of a volunteer program is impacted by the reality that such a diverse generational array of potential volunteers exists. Developing strategies for working with each cohort can contribute significantly to successful program implementation (see Exhibit 2.2).

Involving members of the Greatest Generation and Traditionals most likely will include activities that are not as physically demanding as those of younger volunteer cohorts. These are also among the most experienced volunteers and probably will enjoy such tasks as working with advisory committees, assisting with specialized projects (e.g., tax preparation, disaster preparedness, etc.), and educational coaching or tutoring. Volunteers in this generational cohort may also be seeking social connections, so providing group activities or supporting group outings could be a valuable tool in volunteer job satisfaction. These volunteers also may find themselves living a great distance from grandchildren and may be interested in working with children of ages similar to those of their grandchildren in an effort to stay connected to that age group. These volunteers usually are retired and may have time available during the traditional workday when others who are still in the workforce do not.

Baby Boomers may be very interested in leadership development or in utilizing professional skills as they participate in volunteer activities. These individuals are looking for opportunities to challenge themselves as they use their skills to solve problems, improve the world around them, and generally make a difference. They are not interested in work that is not challenging (Fixler, Eichbert, & Lorenz, 2008). Volunteer positions for Baby Boomers might include serving as volunteer middle managers to lead teams of volunteers working on specific projects, updating or revising volunteer program policies or guidelines, or creating a new initiative to increase fundraising success in the coming year. Boomers expect a lot of themselves and of their peer volunteers, so they generally will have high standards for any activity they undertake.

Members of Generation Jones are interested in many of the same types of opportunities that interest Baby Boomers. However, these later Boomers still may be building resumes and so may be more interested in leadership roles and titles, such as chair of an advisory committee or key leader for an initiative. Many of these volunteers may have school-age children due to the trend toward later marriage and child bearing, so their volunteer work could focus more on activities that involve their children or their children's favorite activities (McNamara, 2010). Many youth development organizations (e.g., 4-H, Boy/Girl Scouts, Y-Guides/Princesses, etc.) are led by Generation Jones volunteers as they support their children's participation. Many of these organizations offer professional or personal development programs for these adults to gain proficiencies to better serve their communities while also recognizing them for this additional achievement. One example is serving as a master volunteer in a subject matter area or as a trained facilitator, which elevates these volunteers into leadership roles among their peers.

Generation Xers are more motivated by opportunities that are project or time specific. Many individuals in this cohort are getting married, starting families, and building professional careers. Their volunteer interests are often tied to career building. Typically, members of this cohort seek episodic volunteer opportunities that do not require ongoing participation and that require shorter time commitments (Merrill, 2004). These individuals often are most comfortable connecting through

EXHIBIT 2.2 Connecting Generational Characteristics to Volunteerism

Generational Cohort	Critical Shaping Events or Phenomenon	Cohort Characteristics	Implications for Volunteerism	Potential Volunteer Activities
The Greatest Generation (Born 1927 and earlier)	World Wars I and II Great Depression Rationing and scarcity Poverty Unemployment	**General** Embrace structure Strong work ethic and personal values Cost-conscious Duty, sacrifice **Work** Effective, efficient workers Chain of command **Communication** Face-to-face conversation Snail mail and handwritten notes	Provide handbook with specific policies, guidelines, etc. Use systematic approach to keeping orderly, logical office and work area Help volunteers see how their work supports the common good Include social opportunities for volunteers to connect with one another	Reading or literacy work with children or adults General office assignments Working with advisory teams or councils
The Traditionals or the Silent Generation or the Veterans (Born 1926–1945)	World Wars I and II Great Depression Korean conflict Economic growth Cold War McCarthyism	**General** Respect authority Loyalty Dislike complainers Views may be politically incorrect **Work** Strong work ethic Like to learn as they go See experience as necessary for leadership positions **Communication** Face-to-face conversation Snail mail Will read printed newsletters, papers, etc.	Provide clear guidelines for standard operating procedures Place in positions that clearly respect the work and leadership experiences of these volunteers Provide training opportunities to support current and/or future work	Serving on advisory committees or special task forces Tutoring or literacy programs Assisting with afterschool programs General office assignments

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 2.2 (*Continued*)

Generational Cohort	Critical Shaping Events or Phenomenon	Cohort Characteristics	Implications for Volunteerism	Potential Volunteer Activities
The Baby Boomers (Born 1946–1964)	Vietman War Woodstock Political unrest Civil rights movement Social protests and rioting Experimentation	**General** Enjoy being on a team Don't like change but can manage it Extremely analytical Do not like having integrity questioned "It's all about me!" **Work** Multiple employers Like solving problems Tend to be workaholics High expectations of coworkers Interested in "career path" **Communication** Freedom of expression Prefer phone calls to e-mails Memos are popular	Want to utilize professional skills in volunteer activity Not happy with positions that are not challenging Enjoy participating in professional development opportunities Like to reinvent traditional volunteer roles	Chairing committees Serving on advisory councils or special task forces Serving as key leaders or middle managers for a team of volunteers
Boomers Subset: "Generation Jones" (Born 1954–1965)	Gas rationing Watergate and Nixon resigning Inflation Oil embargo Televisions in homes from childhood Kennedy and King assassinations First Moon walk	**General** Accepting of change Independent **Work** Equate work with personal fulfillment Interested in "jobs" that contribute to "career path" **Communication** Read body language as component of message Prefer e-mails to phone calls	Not necessarily interested in team or group assignments Value variety and want to learn new skills Enjoy creating new or unique roles in organization to accomplish goals Want to be acknowledged for uniqueness	Master volunteer or lead facilitator roles Assisting in updating current manuals, forms, systems, etc. Chairing annual event

Generation X (Born 1965–1982)	AIDS Color television Divorce more common, leading to more single parent homes Relatively independent and self-reliant Reaganomics Fall of the Berlin Wall Challenger explosion	**General** Enjoy technology Often incentive driven Success driven Seek balance in work and family/social lives Mobile Well educated Cautious worldview Prefer grassroots approach to top-down systems **Work** Need feedback from supervisors Short meetings only, and only when necessary Like telecommuting Prefer cash to pats on the back Interested in "job" rather than "career path" **Communication** E-mail, instant messaging, texting Short, to the point Need to be informed	Episodic activity offers flexibility and short-term, project-focused work desired by Gen X More "cause" driven rather than organizational commitment Need to see results of their work fairly quickly	Home repair or renovation projects Playground builds "Day of service" activities with groups of others and with instant gratification of project completion in short term Participant or volunteer with races or festivals to raise funds for identified cause
Generation Y or Millennials (Born 1983–2000)	Cultural diversity September 11, 2001 School violence much more common 24-hour news feeds—images of violence common	**General** Embrace technology—have never known life without technology Value group processes May be somewhat spoiled Easily bored Not especially respectful of elders	Interested in the social aspects of volunteering Tend to support philanthropy but demand accountability	Developing Web site or social media presence for the organization as member of media team Leading episodic activities with groups of younger teens

EXHIBIT 2.2 (*Continued*)

Generational Cohort	Critical Shaping Events or Phenomenon	Cohort Characteristics	Implications for Volunteerism	Potential Volunteer Activities
Generation Y or Millennials (*Continued*)		**Work** Expect work to be fun Expect to focus on solutions Need flexible work atmosphere Like being on teams Seek creativity Expect to wear casual attire **Communication** Texting, instant messaging, e-mail, mobile phone apps Like visuals rather than reading	Be prepared for these volunteers to engage in social media communications with, for, and about your organization	Creating virtual fundraiser utilizing Web and social media to build support for an identified cause
Generation Z or Generation @ (Born after 2000)	Technology available in homes 24/7/365 Never known a time when the U.S. was not at war Global recession	**General** Exposed to more information at an earlier age than previous generations May consider themselves more mature than others Already have definite ideas about the impact individuals can have **Work** NA **Communication** Instant messaging, text, e-mail parents and/or youth	Like working with small groups of peers to tackle projects Necessary to include parents or guardians or to provide adequate supervision Limitations due to some insurance or risk management requirements	Accompany parents and/or siblings to participate in service activities like gardening, planting flowers, etc. Visit retirement homes with family or other young volunteers to support residents Trick or treat for a cause (e.g., collecting funds or canned goods rather than candy at Halloween)

virtual volunteer networks through which a small cadre of paid and volunteer staff manage an online system for volunteers to connect for days of service or short-term (i.e., episodic) project work. These virtual networks allow individuals to connect with others who have similar interests, explore a variety of volunteer activities without committing to long-term participation, and contribute to the community in a meaningful way. As these individuals begin to start families, their volunteer interests often turn to activities that can be opportunities for the entire family to work together. Combining their enjoyment of episodic projects with their interest in family might make these individuals ideal candidates for community improvement events, fundraising for organizations that support activities in which they or their children are interested, and assignments that can be completed remotely.

Volunteer activities for Millennials might include asking them to utilize their technology and/or social media savvy to support the volunteer organization. These tasks allow for creativity, acknowledge the volunteers' skills and interests in technology, and also provide a necessary service for the organization. These volunteers are also an ideal age to be mentors, tutors, or coaches for younger youth. Often, direct service activities help provide social networks and give these volunteers opportunities to develop additional communication skills (McKee & McKee, 2008). In many communities, members of this cohort are required to participate in community service or service learning activities as a component of their formal educational program of study, whether middle school, high school, or college. It will be important for volunteer resource managers to think carefully about supervision, age-appropriateness of activities, and potential transportation challenges with this generational cohort.

Finally, as children today, Generation Z volunteers may be found in some volunteer organizations. As such, the first overwhelming consideration must be safety and age-appropriateness, but it is important to note that fostering an ethic of service at an early age contributes to developing a sense of responsibility and duty that leads to a lifetime of engaged service (Golombek, 2006). These youngest volunteers are old enough to visit elderly persons in a retirement center, to help gather summer harvests from small community gardens, and to participate in simple fundraising walks, festivals, or events. Finding appropriate volunteer activities for this age group can be challenging but can also be well worth the investment as they often return as older youth and adults to continue to serve others through volunteer activity.

Summary: Considering the Big Picture

Human development involves a complex, interconnected series of physical, cognitive, and affective components spanning the time between birth and death. When collapsed into generational cohorts based on year of birth, the interconnectedness of human development becomes even more apparent. Together, in various combinations, sequences, and contexts, they form a larger stage on which the theater of volunteerism is enacted. Regardless of the volunteer's stage of life and/or generational cohort, a volunteer resource manager must balance the needs and abilities of the individual volunteer with the task at hand. Understanding seasons of the human life cycle as well as the strengths and desires of the unique generational cohorts will better prepare volunteer resource managers to put the right actors on stage at the best time of the overall production. Thus, a volunteer resource manager can better understand the whole by examining its component parts yet can best appreciate the parts by reflecting on the synergistic whole. Still, the volunteer resource manager as director must keep in mind certain overall stage directions that will move the drama along while engaging the cast and benefiting the audience. Some specific strategies to consider include:

- Educate each volunteer about the others with whom they will be working to increase awareness and lead to greater acceptance among and between respective generational cohorts and stages of life. Conduct joint trainings that allow individuals to share and discuss strengths and weaknesses, values and stressors, with each other so they begin to communicate across generational lines and understand individuals in other life stages.
- Do not make too many stereotypic assumptions about the cohorts and life stages. There are Traditionals who are excellent with all sorts of technology, and there are Millennials who prefer to disconnect from technology from time to time. There are older adults who would like to lead a group rock climbing, and there are college students who prefer indoor, sedentary assignments. Remember, as discussed earlier in the chapter, each volunteer is an individual.
- There is no single answer to communication challenges (Scheid, 2010). This fact translates into the need for a volunteer resource manager to communicate in a variety of ways, offering an array of opportunities for individuals to select the processes that work best for them. Involving volunteers in the design of communication strategies can help create a more effective system that reaches its maximum potential.
- Do not be afraid to give Gen X and Millennial volunteers opportunities to utilize social media to gain visibility for the organization. Kanter and Fine (2010) remind us that even when publicity is negative in nature, if people are discussing the organization, we have an opportunity to engage them in the conversation to correct any misunderstandings and to share our messages. The idea of putting messages out for public response without really knowing what that response might be may cause angst among Jones, Boomer, or Veteran cohort volunteers or staff. With Gen X and Millennials, it is viewed as a way to start a conversation that may lead to an even better position for the organization in the long run. Volunteer resource managers must overcome both a fear of the technology and of the inexperience of younger volunteers.
- Evaluate the necessity of policies and procedures such as dress codes and standardized work schedules. In some situations, guidelines must be followed from a policy, risk management, or higher-level protocol. In many instances, however, volunteer resource managers require certain behaviors because things have always been done that way. With many Millennial and Gen X volunteers, flexibility and creativity (and casual dress codes) make their volunteer assignment more interesting and fun. That can result in higher retention rates and increased volunteer hours.
- Remember that volunteers who feel valued and who are given meaningful work are more likely to continue volunteering, regardless of their generational cohort or stage of life. The volunteer resource manager's challenge is to spend adequate

time in the screening and placement of volunteers to ensure that unique skills are recognized and each volunteer is given an appropriate assignment.
- To the extent possible, create a volunteer work environment that allows for choice and that supports the volunteers as individuals. Limit bureaucracy, tighten the chain of command, and give volunteers as much autonomy as the system, within reason, allows. Again, this strategy cuts across generational lines and stages of human development
- Adopt a personal volunteer resource management style that fosters individual achievement and communicates respect for the competence of volunteers. Effective volunteer resource management is about connecting individuals and their unique capacities to accomplish the tasks for which they have been recruited, not about their age, stage of human development, or generational cohort. The volunteer resource manager is the role model from whom others in the organization who engage volunteers will take their cues to establish volunteer positions in their departments or units. Lead by showing by example that volunteers are trusted to excel.

The true challenge facing volunteer resource managers is pulling together all aspects and cohorts of human society, from the very youngest to the most senior citizens, in order to build on their unique abilities and insights in addressing the challenges facing our citizens and communities (Safrit & Merrill, 1999). Putnam (2000) concluded that Americans must move beyond social, political, and professional individual identities to connect with people who are different from ourselves; we would add stage of life and generational identity to further his call for strengthening America through volunteerism.

This seemingly overwhelming task is not unlike the heritage American art of quilting. As "quilters," volunteer resource managers must piece together intricate individual "quilt blocks" composed of unique designs, colors, and textures that comprise individual seasons of service and generational cohorts within the overall human experience. However, while each individual quilt block is, in itself, a significant and valued work of art, the true challenge to the quilter is deciding how to lay out the overall quilt, building on the opportunity for each block to highlight and reflect the beauty of the blocks around it. Thus, the true beauty in the final, resulting quilt lies within the synergy of the combined individual blocks. As quilters, we, too, must design beautiful, individual seasons of service, each of which contributes to and connects with the larger tapestry of life.

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CHAPTER 3

Preparing the Organization for Volunteers

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Volunteers play a vital role in the activities and services of hundreds of thousands of nonprofit and governmental agencies. As demands on these organizations have increased and the financial resources available to them have declined, the use of volunteers has become even more critical. National surveys commissioned by the Independent Sector, a nonprofit coalition of some 600 organizational members concerned with documenting, recognizing, and promoting philanthropy and voluntary action, bear out the scope of this remarkable phenomenon. According to the results of a national survey conducted in 2001, 44 percent of adults over the age of 21, about 83.9 million people, volunteered with a formal organization in 2000 for an average of 3.6 hours per week. In all, they contributed over 15.5 billion hours to recipient organizations, the equivalent of over 9,000 full-time employees. If these institutions had to pay for the donated labor, the price tag would have reached a staggering $239.2 billion (Independent Sector, 2001).

The Independent Sector no longer commissions national surveys of volunteering; fortunately, annual surveys of volunteering in the United States have become available thanks to the Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS). CNCS sponsors an annual supplement to the September 2009 Current Population Survey (CPS), consisting of about 60,000 households, that obtains information on the volunteer behavior of the nation's civilian noninstitutional population age 16 and over. Volunteers are defined as persons who are not paid for work done (except for expenses) through or for an organization. By this definition, the results of the latest (2009) survey show that about 63.4 million people, or 26.8 percent of the population, volunteered through or for an organization at least once between September 2008 and September 2009 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). Discrepancies in the methodology and findings of the Independent Sector Surveys and the Current Population Surveys cannot be resolved directly. Regardless, both surveys document tremendous levels of volunteering in the United States.

The key to tapping the vast pool of energy, talent, and goodwill captured in these statistics lies in preparing the host organization for volunteer activity. The leaders of many nonprofit and public agencies have taken the appropriate steps to institute a sound volunteer program, and their organization, clients, and volunteers all benefit as a result. Other programs, however, founder on the lack of knowledge or effort necessary to provide the essential groundwork for the participation of nonpaid workers. Problems such as uncertain volunteer recruitment, ineffectual assignment, paid staff resentment, or, worse, a disbanded program, often stem from initial failures to plan for and accommodate an unconventional workforce. This chapter shows that with a modicum of forethought and commitment to volunteer involvement, these maladies are preventable.

The chapter discusses strategies that organizations can use to lay the foundation for an effective volunteer effort. The focus is on *service volunteers*, people who donate their time to assist other people, or the operations of the host organizations, directly, rather than on *policy volunteers*, citizens who assume the equally vital role of sitting on boards of directors or advisory boards of nonprofit organizations. (Other chapters in this book deal with policy volunteers.) The strategies presented in this chapter counsel agency leadership to:

- Set reasonable expectations concerning volunteers.
- Establish an explicit rationale and goals for the volunteer program.
- Involve paid staff in designing the program.
- Implement a structural arrangement for housing the volunteer program and integrating it into the organization.
- Create positions of leadership for the program.
- Develop job descriptions for the tasks to be performed by volunteers.
- Design systems and supports to facilitate citizen participation and volunteer program management.

Setting Reasonable Expectations for Volunteers: Weighing the Benefits and Costs of Volunteer Participation

The leadership of any organization that enlists volunteers or contemplates their introduction needs to have realistic expectations concerning just what nonpaid workers can achieve as well as the difficulties they may occasion. Volunteers cannot "save" an organization that may suffer from other problems, and they can even make matters worse if organizations fail to plan for their involvement and management. Although well intended, an agency that puts out a call for citizen volunteers without due consideration of the additional demands thus created for orientation, training, management, and evaluation quickly learns that it has increased rather than lessened its burdens. Without sufficient preparation prior to volunteer involvement, organizational leadership courts disaster.

The first step in placing the volunteer program on a firm footing is to set and communicate reasonable expectations. The appraisal should be candid in evaluating both the accomplishments and the challenges envisioned from the program.

Organizational members must realize that, like any other resource, this one entails a mix of disadvantages and advantages.

Potential Disadvantages of Volunteer Involvement

Potential drawbacks to a successful volunteer program fall into three general categories: inadequate funding for the program, possible liabilities of volunteers as workers, and political or labor issues that might arise with volunteers.

FUNDING THE VOLUNTEER PROGRAM The first potential problem is that of funding an ongoing volunteer effort. Although the labor donated by citizens to nonprofit and governmental agencies is not compensated monetarily—one of the strengths of the approach—the support structure essential to making productive use of this labor does require resources and expenditures. Given popular but misleading conceptions of volunteers as a free resource, agency leadership may not be prepared financially or psychologically to underwrite necessary program investments. For example, reimbursing volunteers' work-related expenses, purchasing liability insurance protection, providing orientation and training, and initiating a recruitment campaign all entail costs for the organization. Another hidden cost is paid staff time, nearly always at a premium, that must be devoted to the administration and management of volunteers. A member of the Organizing Committee for the Olympic Games in Sydney, Australia, reports that the average cost of recruiting and training a new volunteer at the 2000 Olympic games was AUD $700 (Hollway, 2001–2002).

VOLUNTEERS AS WORKERS A second set of possible difficulties concerns the perceived shortcomings of volunteers as workers. Familiar criticisms accuse volunteers of poor work, high levels of absenteeism and turnover, and unreliability in meeting work commitments. The decision to seek volunteers presupposes that a sufficient supply of willing citizens exists to meet the demands of organizations that desire productive labor. With the growing dependence of the public and nonprofit sectors on volunteers, however, recruitment, rather than any putative liabilities of volunteers as workers, may well pose the most serious obstacle to the approach (Brudney, 1990a). In some service domains, volunteers have proven so difficult to locate and recruit that hiring paid personnel can turn out to be a more attractive option (Brudney & Duncombe, 1992).

POLITICAL AND LABOR ISSUES Volunteer programs may precipitate political and labor tensions that threaten to undermine the benefits of the approach. For example, if top organizational officials or department heads and supervisors lend only weak or nominal support to the program, they send the wrong message to both paid staff and volunteers about the legitimate role and value of the citizen participants. Lack of support can exacerbate apprehensions of paid staff, jeopardize working relationships crucial to program success, and trigger objections from unionized personnel. Employees may also fear that organizational use of volunteers may inadvertently fuel popular misconceptions regarding the number of paid staff needed simply to meet work obligations, let alone to perform with full effectiveness.

Potential Advantages of Volunteer Involvement

Despite potential problems, the introduction of volunteers can offer substantial compensating benefits to public and nonprofit organizations in four primary areas: achievement of cost savings or cost effectiveness, expansion of organizational capability, improvements in community relations, and enhancement of service quality.

ACHIEVEMENT OF COST SAVINGS OR COST EFFECTIVENESS Most notably in the public sector, the advantages of volunteer involvement that have stimulated greatest attention focus on possible budgetary savings and gains in cost effectiveness. In this domain especially, organizational leaders should take care not to overstate expectations. Because a volunteer program necessitates expenditures of its own, as discussed, popular claims that the approach can remedy budget deficits appear highly exaggerated. In fact, unless cuts are identified and exacted elsewhere in the agency budget, the addition of volunteers to an organization can marginally increase monetary outlays.

Nevertheless, a well-designed—and managed—volunteer program offers definite economic advantages to public and nonprofit organizations. The total cost to an organization of introducing volunteers, including program support, is relatively modest, especially when compared to the cost of paid employees (including wages and benefits, etc.). Although displacing paid personnel with volunteers is not an ethical or recommended strategy, by adding volunteers to its existing workforce an organization can boost the amount or quality of the services it delivers for a fixed level of expenditure or limit the expenses necessary to achieve a given quantity of services (Karn, 1982–1983, 1983). Although practitioners often refer to this advantage as *cost savings*, a more apt term is *cost effectiveness*.

EXPANSION OF ORGANIZATIONAL CAPABILITY A second advantage of volunteer involvement is the potential to augment agency capacity. Applied creatively, the labor, skills, and energy donated by citizens can enable organizations to provide services that would otherwise not be possible, increase the level or types of services or programs offered, maintain normal agency operations in emergency and peak-load periods, and test new initiatives or innovations. A well-designed volunteer program also facilitates more productive use of paid staff time: Volunteers can relieve highly trained service providers of routine duties, freeing them to concentrate on the tasks and responsibilities for which their professional background and expertise best qualify them. In this way, volunteers increase organizational capability to do more with the resources available.

IMPROVEMENTS IN COMMUNITY RELATIONS A volunteer program can also yield substantial benefits to the community. Citizen participation within an agency can build the job skills and work experience of volunteers, promote greater awareness of the pressures and constraints faced by service organizations, and generally improve relations with the community. In the public sector, volunteers have often proven to be gifted advocates of agency interests who help to further organizational missions and win increased appropriations (e.g., Brudney, 1990b; Marando, 1986; Walter, 1987). A study of literacy programs in California found that library administrators who enlisted volunteers were successful in their strategy to extend their base of activities, develop and consolidate political support among elected officials and the larger community, and enhance the credibility and attractiveness of library programs (Walter, 1993). Volunteer involvement presents additional avenues to strengthen ties with the community through such activities as soliciting advice and guidance from citizen participants. As one volunteer states, "Frontline volunteers . . . know what's going on and are more willing to tell you what is as distinguished from what you might prefer to hear" (Williams, 1993, p. 11). With the bright light of publicity they bring, catastrophes, disasters, and emergencies ("C, D, and Es") can attract volunteers from long distance. More commonly, though, volunteers live reasonably close to where they donate their time; as a result, they typically possess some familiarity with local resources and formal and informal helping networks, which facilitates organizational outreach and case finding in the community.

ENHANCEMENT OF SERVICE QUALITY Finally, the involvement of volunteers holds the potential to raise the quality of services offered by nonprofit and public agencies. Targeted volunteer recruitment may identify citizens with specialized skills not possessed by employees (e.g., legal, computer, accounting, and engineering) who can improve agency services and programs (McCurley, 2005). In addition, many volunteers find personal contact with service recipients rewarding; in national surveys, the motivation expressed most frequently for volunteering is to do something useful to help other people (e.g., Hodgkinson, Weitzman, Toppe, & Noga, 1992; Independent Sector, 2001). By devoting detailed attention to agency clients—time that employed personnel frequently lack given their other responsibilities—volunteers help personalize and enhance the delivery of services. Several scholars argue that volunteers help to humanize organizational services, lending them a more individual and informal quality conducive to maintaining client self-esteem and confidence (e.g., Clary, 1987; Naylor, 1985; Wineburg & Wineburg, 1987).

Realistic Expectations for Volunteer Involvement

Ideally, research would long ago have settled the issue of just how frequently each of these advantages and disadvantages is achieved by organizations that incorporate volunteers. Armed with that information, organizational leadership could readily anticipate the likely pitfalls and benefits of the approach and plan accordingly. Unfortunately, scant research has attempted to answer this question. A few studies have systematically evaluated the effects of volunteer involvement across large, representative samples of organizations. In 2003, Gazley and Brudney (2005) undertook a survey of city and county governments in Georgia regarding their volunteer management practices. In 2004, the Urban Institute conducted a survey on this same topic administered to a representative sample of 1753 charities nationwide (Hager & Brudney, 2004). The surveys thus encompass both public and nonprofit organizations. We present and examine the results of these two surveys in Exhibits 3.1 and 3.2. (In the first edition of this *Handbook*, I analyzed data from a national sample of local governments in the mid-1980s [Duncombe, 1985] and Georgia local governments in the early 1990s [Brudney, 1993]. Those results are less current but offer much more detailed information on the perceived advantages and disadvantages of volunteer involvement across large, well-defined samples.)

EXHIBIT 3.1 Perceived Disadvantages of Volunteer Involvement in the Delivery of Services

Perceived Disadvantages	2003 Georgia Survey* (*N* = 241–249)	2004 U.S. National Survey (*N* = 1271–1344)	
		Big Problem	Small Problem
Funding the Volunteer Program			
Lack of funding for volunteer program	49%	28%	32%
Lack staff to train/supervise volunteers	43%	23%	34%
Volunteers as Workers			
Getting enough people to volunteer	20%	24%	43%
Unreliability	8%	—	—
Poor-quality work	3%	—	—
Absenteeism, unreliability, or poor work habits by volunteers	—	6%	43%
Political and Labor Issues			
Public employees resist volunteers	25%	—	—
Volunteers take away paid jobs	4%	—	—
Resistance on the part of paid staff or board members	—	3%	14%
Volunteers are more trouble than they are worth	2%	—	—

*Combined responses "agree" and "strongly agree" on a five-point scale.

— Indicates that the item was not included in the survey.

EXHIBIT 3.2 Perceived Advantages of Volunteer Involvement in the Delivery of Services

Perceived Advantages	2003 Georgia Survey* (*N* = 241–249)	2004 U.S. National Survey (*N* = 1271–1344)	
		Big Problem	Small Problem
Cost Savings or Cost Effectiveness			
Cost savings	89%	67%	26%
Expansion or Organizational Capacity			
Capacity to provide services otherwise could not provide	88%	60%	31%
Expansion of staff in emergencies	75%	—	—
Improvements in Community Relations			
Increased public support for programs	85%	63%	33%
Program advice from volunteers	72%	—	—
Stronger relationships with nonprofits	81%	—	—
Enhancement of Service Quality			
Improved quality of services and programs	84%	68%	29%
More detailed attention to clients	—	59%	35%
Specialized skills possessed by volunteers	—	35%	43%

*Combined responses "agree" and "strongly agree" on a five-point scale.

— Indicates that the item was not included in the survey.

DISADVANTAGES REALIZED Comparison of these data is limited by the fact that the items included in the two surveys do not overlap as much as one might like, and the response scales differ. Nevertheless, the findings across the surveys seem comparable with respect to the perceived costs and benefits emanating from the participation of volunteers in the delivery of services. As Exhibit 3.1 shows, in both samples the most common drawback reported by officials is lack of funding for the volunteer program: 49% of the Georgia government respondents report lack of funding as a "disadvantage," and 28% in the national nonprofit sample consider funding a "big problem." In addition, nearly the same percentages in the respective samples, 43% of the Georgia sample ("disadvantage") and 23% of the national nonprofit survey ("big problem"), point to another resource issue, lack of staff to train and supervise volunteers.

The problem encountered next most frequently in these data is "getting enough people to volunteer," that is, recruitment, reported by one-fifth of the Georgia sample (20%) and one-fourth of the national nonprofit survey (24%). These results represent a significant departure from other surveys of organizations regarding volunteer involvement, which generally show recruitment as the greatest obstacle to a viable volunteer program.

If the organizations in these samples offer any guide, the shortcomings sometimes attributed to volunteers as workers seem to occur less often. Only 8% of the governments in the Georgia sample pointed to the "unreliability" of volunteers as workers and 3% to "poor-quality work" as disadvantages in their organizations. In the national sample, just 6% of the respondents cited "absenteeism, unreliability, or poor work habits by volunteers" as a "big problem," although a much larger group (43%) called it a "small problem."

Among local governments in Georgia, one of the political and labor difficulties sometimes associated with volunteer involvement occurred with some frequency: One-quarter of the sample (25%) cited as a "disadvantage" that "public employees resist volunteers." Just 4% felt that "volunteers take away paid jobs," and 2% opined that "volunteers are more trouble than they are worth." By contrast to the Georgia sample, only 3% of the national nonprofit sample labeled "resistance on the part of paid staff or board members" as a "disadvantage" of having volunteers.

ADVANTAGES REALIZED Exhibit 3.2 presents the results of the two surveys relating to the advantages of volunteer involvement. With respect to the percentages of respondents, the perceived benefits show much less deviation or spread than the perceived disadvantages or problems displayed in Exhibit 3.1 (with the exception of a single item administered to the national nonprofit sample, "specialized skills possessed by volunteers," which ranks well below the other responses with respect to frequency of occurrence). The most common benefit perceived from volunteer involvement is "cost savings," reported by 89% of the officials in Georgia as an advantage and by two-thirds (67%) of the national nonprofit sample who said that it had been realized to a "great extent" (another 26% said it had been realized to a "moderate extent").

Large percentages of the respondents also cited advantages of volunteers in expanding the capability of their organizations: 88% of the Georgia local governments reported that volunteers had enabled them to provide services that they otherwise could not provide; 6 in 10 of the national nonprofit sample (60%) said that this advantage had been realized to a "great extent" (31% to a "moderate extent"). Three-fourths of the Georgia sample (75%) found that volunteers allowed their organizations to expand staff in emergencies (no comparable item in the national survey).

The participation of volunteers in these organizations appears to have a positive effect on relations with the community. Eighty-five percent of the Georgia local officials stated that volunteer involvement had led to increased public support for their programs; 63% of the national nonprofit sample said that this advantage had been realized to a "great extent." In the Georgia sample, 72% of the local governments said that they had benefited from program advice from volunteers. In addition, 81% of the Georgia local governments indicated that volunteer involvement had produced stronger relationships with nonprofit organizations.

According to the respondents, volunteers also contributed to advantages with respect to perceived enhancements in the quality of services. Large percentages of both the Georgia sample (84%) and the national nonprofit sample (68%) cited the benefit of "improved quality of services and programs." Fifty-nine percent of the national nonprofit sample reported that volunteers allowed the charity to devote more detailed attention to agency clients. Finally, more than a third of the national nonprofit sample (35%) identified specialized skills that volunteers bring to the agency.

MIX OF ADVANTAGES OVER DISADVANTAGES Given the findings from these two large surveys, one based on a sample of government-based volunteer programs and the other a national sample of charities, what can organizational leadership reasonably expect their organization to achieve from volunteer involvement? Although particular results may vary from one organization to the next, the findings support four conclusions.

1. *Leaders might anticipate the greatest difficulty in securing necessary resources for the volunteer program, including both monetary support and paid staff time.* (Results presented in the earlier version of this chapter showed that obtaining liability insurance can also present a problem. Before introducing volunteers, organizations are well advised to undertake a risk management process to determine the extent of exposure to injury or legal action, and possible remedies).
2. *At least in the sample of Georgia local governments, employees may resist volunteers,* an observation registered by fully one-quarter of the respondents (25%). Other possible political/labor issues noted in Exhibit 3.1 do not seem to be a problem, however.
3. *The perceived benefits accruing from volunteer involvement show much less variation within the Georgia government and the national charity samples than the disadvantages.* The percentages of respondents reporting these benefits are relatively high—upward of 70% in the Georgia sample and 60% in the charities sample (with the exception of "specialized skills possessed by volunteers," reported by 35%). These results suggest that organizations are likely to reap the benefits of volunteer involvement in the areas of: cost savings or cost effectiveness, expansion of organizational capability; improvement in community relations; and enhancement of service quality. Although more research would be needed to confirm a conclusion, the consistency in the advantages reported versus the variability in the disadvantages may suggest that the benefits to be expected from volunteer involvement are relatively reliable and that the disadvantages are

more idiosyncratic—meaning that organizations can take positive action to avert or alleviate them.

4. *The benefits of volunteer involvement appear to outweigh the costs,* as intimated by these findings and demonstrated more convincingly in Exhibits 3.1 and 3.2. Citizen participation in the delivery of services certainly has its limitations (and detractors), but these drawbacks seem to be encountered with much lower frequency than the anticipated benefits. The great similarity in results from two distinct surveys, with different samples (public and nonprofit), items and time points, reinforces this interpretation. Nevertheless, because the potential benefits of volunteer involvement are not realized universally and disadvantages sometimes occur, organizational leaders must work toward an optimal mix. To begin, they should establish a persuasive rationale for the volunteer program.

Establishing the Rationale and Goals for the Volunteer Program: Making Volunteer Involvement Matter

A nonprofit organization may be eager for fresh input and innovation and enthusiastic about the potential contribution of citizens. No matter how overburdened it may be or how constrained in its human and financial resources, however, its efforts to incorporate volunteers should not begin with recruitment. In fact, Susan J. Ellis (1994) titles the opening chapter of her book on this subject "Recruitment Is the Third Step." The first step, treated in this section, is to determine why the organization wants volunteers; the second, discussed in a later section, is to design valuable work assignments for them (Ellis, 1994, pp. 5-6). Before it is ready to begin recruiting volunteers, an agency must lay the groundwork for their sustained participation.

The foundation for a successful volunteer program rests on a serious consideration by the agency of the rationale for citizen involvement and the development of a philosophy or policy to guide this effort. The organization should determine the purposes for introducing new participants into the organization. The basic motivations can be separated into two major categories: economic and noneconomic.

Economic Motivations

As Exhibit 3.2 demonstrates, volunteers assist organizations in achieving a variety of objectives. Especially during periods of fiscal stringency, top organizational officials may fix too narrowly on cost savings as *the* rationale for volunteer involvement. As mentioned, this aspiration is misleading for two reasons. First, although the labor of volunteers may be donated, a volunteer program requires expenditures for recruitment, orientation, training, insurance, reimbursement, materials, and other items. Second, for volunteers to create cost savings, cutbacks must be made in the agency's budget. If the cutbacks come at the expense of paid staff, the results are lamentable and predictable in the form of resentments and antagonisms that have subverted volunteer initiatives in the past.

From an economic perspective, what volunteers offer an organization is the capacity to realize more productive application of existing funds and person-power. With a relatively small investment of resources, volunteers have the potential to increase the type, level, and quality of services that an agency can deliver to clients and to facilitate the work of paid staff members. Although costs are not spared in this situation, to the degree that volunteers improve the return on agency expenditures, they extend the resources available to the organization to meet pressing needs for assistance and services.

Noneconomic Motivations

Noneconomic motivations may also drive a volunteer program. The leadership of a nonprofit organization may enlist volunteers to interject a more vibrant dimension of commitment and caring into its relationships with clients; or the goal may be to learn more about the community, nurture closer ties to the citizenry, stimulate useful feedback and advice, and strengthen public awareness and support. An agency may seek volunteers to identify and reach clients inaccessible through normal organizational channels. Volunteers may be needed to provide professional skills, such as computer programming, legal counsel, or accounting expertise, not possessed by paid employees. The purpose may be to staff a pilot program otherwise doomed to fiscal austerity, expand services to a broader clientele, or upgrade programs or provide other assistance. Enhancing responsiveness to client groups and the larger community may offer still another rationale.

Volunteers also enjoy a well-earned reputation for success in soliciting donations to causes and organizations. Because the pubic regards them as neutral if dedicated participants who will not directly benefit from monetary or in-kind contributions, agencies very frequently enlist citizens for this purpose. In a 1989 national survey, about one-half (48%) of all volunteers reported assignments in fundraising (Hodgkinson et al., 1992, p. 46). More recent survey research on volunteers shows that fundraising ranked first by frequency of mention as a volunteer assignment in surveys conducted in 1996 and 1994 (tied in 1994 with assisting the elderly, handicapped, social service recipients, or homeless not as part of an organization or group), although the percentages are much more modest (7.3% and 4.8%, respectively), likely due to differences in question wording (Hodgkinson & Weitzman, 1996, p. 34).

Rationale for Volunteer Involvement

That the list of possible purposes for establishing and maintaining a volunteer program is lengthy attests to the vitality of the approach. Each agency will have somewhat different reasons that should be formalized in a general statement of policy or philosophy to guide volunteer involvement. Although no single rationale can apply to all organizations, some useful examples of these statements can be found in Exhibit 3.3. Organizations typically combine several such statements in their policy or philosophy for volunteer involvement.

An explicit statement of goals advances three important components of program design and functioning.

1. *It begins to define the types of volunteer positions that will be needed and the number of people required to fill these roles.* Such information is at the core of eventual recruitment and training of volunteers.

EXHIBIT 3.3 Examples of Statements of Organizational Philosophy Guiding the Involvement of Volunteers

- This agency welcomes volunteers to provide a human touch and individual dignity in all dealings with clients.
- Volunteers extend agency resources to serve a broader clientele.
- This agency seeks volunteers not only to further our mission but also to make the work of paid staff more productive.
- Volunteers represent this organization in the community.
- This agency values volunteers for the work they perform as well as the advice and guidance they offer.
- Volunteers bring distinctive skills to this organization that would otherwise lie beyond its means.
- Volunteers help this organization to do its job with greater efficiency, quality, and compassion.

2. *It aids in delineating concrete objectives against which the program might be evaluated, once in operation.* Evaluation results provide essential data to strengthen and improve the program.
3. *A statement of the philosophy underlying volunteer involvement and the specific ends sought through this form of participation can help to alleviate possible apprehensions by paid staff that the new participants may intrude on professional prerogatives or threaten job security.* Perhaps the only thing as destructive to the mission of a volunteer program as paid staff questioning the "real" reasons for volunteer involvement is the citizens themselves harboring similar doubts regarding their "true" purpose to the organization. Clarifying the goals for voluntary assistance can dampen idle, typically negative speculation and begin to build a sense of program ownership on the part of employees (and volunteers), especially if paid staff are included in planning for the volunteer program.

Involving Paid Staff in Designing the Volunteer Program: Smoothing the Way toward Effectiveness

In most organizations, designing and implementing a volunteer program entails changes in standard practices and routines. For example, funds must be found and committed to the effort, linkages formed to integrate the program into the organization (see the section on "Housing the Volunteer Program: Integrating the Volunteer Program into the Organization" later in this chapter), job positions and working relationships modified, and policies devised and approved to accommodate the citizen participants. Because these changes are ambitious and require authorization by those at higher levels of the organizational hierarchy, the involvement and support of top officials is crucial to the creation and vitality of the volunteer program (e.g., Ellis, 1996).

This group of top officials is not the only one that should play an active role in defining the mission, philosophy, and procedures governing the volunteer effort. Paid staff members and, if they are already known to the agency or can be identified, volunteers should also be included in program planning and implementation (Brudney, 1990).

Participation by Paid Staff Members

A touchstone in the field of organizational development is to include individuals or groups who will be affected by a new policy or program (stakeholders) in its design and achievement. Participation adds to the knowledge base for crafting policy and inculcates a sense of ownership and commitment instrumental to gaining acceptance for innovation.

Because incorporation of volunteers into an agency can impose dramatic changes in the jobs and working relationships of employees, the involvement of paid staff is especially important. The sharing of needs, perspectives, and information among agency leadership, employees, and prospective volunteers that takes place is pivotal. In the joint planning process, the parties work to overcome differences and reach agreement on how the volunteer program can be most effectively designed, organized, and managed to pursue its mission and goals. Participation by paid staff members helps to alleviate any concerns they might have concerning a volunteer initiative and its implications for agency clients or the workplace.

If employees have a bargaining agent or union, their representatives should be included in these discussions. Union involvement may complicate the process, but it is indispensable nonetheless. It may turn out that rather than flatly opposing volunteer involvement, unions simply may want demarcations of paid versus nonpaid work. In one of the few studies that asked specifically about the role of unions, none (0%) of a sample of 250 managers of volunteer programs in city and county governments in Georgia cited "union objections to volunteer involvement" as a perceived disadvantage to volunteer involvement (Brudney, 1993). Georgia is a low unionization state, but the finding is still arresting.

A central purpose of the joint planning meetings and discussions is to develop policies and procedures governing volunteer involvement that are endorsed by all parties. These guidelines should address the major aspects of the volunteer program and work-related behaviors; the following is a list of these areas. This information should be readily available in a booklet or manual distributed to all volunteers and employees.

Aspects of the Volunteer Program that Should be Addressed in Agency Policy

- Application procedures
- Provision of orientation and training
- Probationary acceptance period and active status
- Rights and general standards of conduct
- Task assignment and reassignment
- Attendance and absenteeism
- Performance review
- Benefits
- Grievance procedures
- Requirements for record keeping, including requirements for confidentiality

- Reimbursement of work-related expenses
- Use of agency equipment and facilities, including conditions of access to the organizational intranet
- Supervision and retention

Note: A more detailed review of agency policy, and the need to include it in the organization's volunteer manual, can be found in Chapter 12, Communicating with Volunteers and Staff.

Although some observers may question the need for published standards of organizational conduct as somehow inimical to the spirit of help freely given, this step is a positive one for the agency as well as for the volunteers. In one study, organizations that distributed notebooks with all written policies, formal job descriptions, and training manuals to citizen participants had the lowest rates of volunteer turnover; by contrast, the organization that failed to provide any of this information witnessed the highest turnover (Pearce, 1978, pp. 276–277). Explicit policies show that the agency takes seriously the participation of volunteers, values their contribution to the organizational mission and goals, and wants to maintain collaborative working relationships. Equally important, formal guidelines greatly assist in removing arbitrariness from directing volunteers, defusing potential conflicts, handling problem situations on the job, protecting volunteer rights, and managing for consistent results.

Empowerment of Volunteers

Because volunteers may not be known to an agency prior to inception of a program, they may miss the initial discussions concerning program planning, design, and implementation. Once the volunteer program is launched and in operation, however, they should have input into decisions affecting it. Just as with paid staff, citizens are more likely to accept and endorse organizational policies and programs, and to generate useful input regarding them if they enjoy ready access to the decision-making process. Participation is key to *empowerment* of volunteers. The term connotes a genuine sharing of responsibility for the volunteer program with citizen participants; more attentive listening to volunteer ideas and preferences; and greater recognition of the time, skills, and value provided to organizations through this approach. Empowerment is thought to result in increased feelings of personal commitment and loyalty to the volunteer program by participants and hence greater retention and effectiveness (Naylor, 1985; Scheier, 1988–1989).

Housing the Volunteer Program: Integrating Volunteer Participation into the Organization

For the benefits of volunteer involvement to be fully appreciated and achieved by an organization, the volunteer program must be linked to the structure of the agency. A nonprofit organization may be able to accommodate a few volunteers informally or episodically on a case-by-case basis as the demand for them or interest in them arises. Integrating larger numbers of volunteers in an ongoing working relationship, however, requires adaptations in organizational structure. Nonprofit agencies can select from among several alternative structural configurations for this purpose according to their needs. In order of increasing comprehensiveness, these arrangements encompass ad hoc volunteer efforts, volunteer recruitment by an outside organization with the agency otherwise responsible for management, decentralization of the program to operating departments, or a centralized approach. Each option presents a distinct menu of advantages and disadvantages.

Ad Hoc Volunteer Efforts

Volunteer efforts may arise spontaneously in an ad hoc fashion to meet exigencies confronting an organization, especially on a short-term basis. Normally, citizens motivated to share their background, training, skills, and interests with organizations that could make good use of them are the catalyst. Fiscal stress, leaving an agency few options, may quicken the helping impulse. The Service Corps of Retired Executives (SCORE), an association of primarily retired business people who donate their time and skills to assist clients of the U.S. Small Business Administration (SBA), began in this manner in the early 1960s. Retired business executives approached the SBA to offer assistance in meeting the demands of a huge constituency (Brudney, 1986). The responsiveness and alacrity with which an ad hoc effort can be launched and operating are inspiring: Within six months of its inception, SCORE supplied 2,000 volunteers to the SBA. Crisis and emergency situations can provoke an even more spectacular response, mobilizing huge numbers of volunteers in a remarkably short time.

Spontaneous help from citizens can infuse vitality (and labor) into an agency, alerting officials to the possibilities of volunteerism. Offsetting these advantages, however, is the fact that only selected parts or members of the organization may be aware of an ad hoc citizen effort and thus be able to avail themselves of it. In addition, because energy levels and zeal wane as emergencies are tamed or fade from the limelight of publicity or attention, the ad hoc model of volunteer involvement is very sensitive to the passage of time. A volunteer *program* requires a sustained rather than a sporadic commitment from citizens. The organization must develop a support structure to nurture the contributions of citizens and to make them accessible to all employees. Unless the agency takes steps to institutionalize participation, it risks squandering the long-term benefits of the approach. Almost from the start, the SBA and the SCORE volunteers worked to develop an appropriate structure. The partnership has served the agency well, generating a continuous stream of volunteers to the SBA (12,400 in 2010). Since the inception of the SCORE program in 1964, SCORE volunteers have conducted more than 322,000 counseling sessions and provided counseling to more than 8.5 million business owners (Service Corps of Retired Executives, 2010).

Reliance on Other Organizations

A second option sometimes open to nonprofit and public agencies is to rely on the expertise and reputation of an established organization, such as the United Way and its affiliates, or a volunteer center or clearinghouse, to assist in recruiting volunteers. The agency retains internally other managerial responsibilities for the program. Since recruitment is the most fundamental function and one of the most difficult (see Exhibit 3.1), regular, professional assistance with this task can be very useful, particularly for an agency just starting a volunteer program. Some private business firms seeking to develop volunteer programs for their employees have extended this model: They have contracted with local volunteer centers for help not only with recruitment but also with other central program functions, such as volunteer placement and evaluation.

When an agency contracts out for the provision of a function, maintaining quality control presents a necessary caution. Relying on other organizations to assist with the volunteer program is no exception. Agencies responsible for recruiting must be familiar with the needs of the organization for voluntary assistance, lest volunteers be referred who do not meet the desired profile of backgrounds, skills, and interests. A recruiter may also deal with a number of client organizations, so that the priority attached to the requests of any one of them is unknown. More importantly, trusting recruitment exclusively to outsiders is a deterrent to developing the necessary capacity in-house, which itself is a central element of a successful volunteer program. By all means, organizations should nurture positive relationships with agencies in the community to attract volunteers and for other purposes (Brudney & Lee, 2008); however, they must avoid total dependence on external sources and endeavor to build managerial competencies internally.

Decentralized Approach

Volunteer involvement can also be decentralized to individual departments within a larger organization, each bearing primary responsibility for its own volunteer effort. The main advantage offered by this approach is the flexibility to tailor the program to the needs of participating organizational units and to introduce volunteers where support for them is greatest. Yet, duplication of effort across several departments, difficulties in locating sufficient expertise and resources to afford multiple volunteer programs, and problems in coordination—particularly restrictions on the ability to shift volunteers to more suitable positions or to offer them opportunities for job rotation and enrichment across the organization—are significant liabilities.

In the public sector, lamentably, the decentralized approach can unwittingly generate disincentives for managers to introduce volunteers. Top agency officials may mistakenly equate nonpaid work with "unimportant" activities to the detriment of a department's (and a manager's) standing in the organization, or they may seize on the willingness to enlist volunteers as an excuse to deny a unit essential increases in budget and paid personnel. As mentioned, one purpose of involving top management, employees, and volunteers in designing and implementing the volunteer program is to avoid such misunderstandings.

Despite these limitations, the decentralized approach may serve an agency quite well in starting a pilot or trial program, the results of which might guide the organization in moving toward more extensive volunteer involvement. Alternatively, a lack of tasks appropriate for volunteers in some parts of the agency or, perhaps, strong opposition from various quarters may confine volunteer assistance to selected departments.

Centralized Approach

The final structural arrangement is a centralized volunteer program serving the entire agency. With this approach, a single office or department is responsible for management and coordination of the program, while volunteers actually are deployed and supervised in line departments of the organization. The office provides guidelines, technical assistance, screening, training, and all other administration for volunteer activity throughout the agency. The advantages of centralization for averting duplication of effort, assigning and transferring volunteers so as to meet their needs as well as those of the organization, and producing efficient and effective volunteer services are considerable. The program demands broad support across the organization, especially at the top, to overcome any concerns that may be raised by departmental staff and possible limitations in resources. When such backing is not forthcoming, the other structural arrangements may serve an agency quite well.

Creating Positions of Program Leadership: Providing Responsibility and Direction for the Volunteer Effort

Manager of Volunteer Resources

Irrespective of the structural arrangement by which the volunteer program is integrated into agency operations (ad hoc method, reliance on other organizations, decentralized model, or centralized approach), the program requires a visible, recognized leader. All program functions, those discussed both in this chapter and in the rest of this *Handbook*, benefit from the establishment and staffing of a position bearing overall responsibility for leadership, management, and representation of the volunteers. The position goes by a variety of names, such as volunteer administrator or volunteer coordinator, but these titles can leave the mistaken impression that the position is not paid. To avoid misunderstanding and, more important, to indicate the significance of the role, here it is called the manager of volunteer resources (MVR). In this chapter we focus primarily on the programmatic responsibilities of the MVR, even though this official—and volunteers—can contribute to the organization and the fulfillment of its mission in other ways.

STAFFING THE POSITION OF MANAGER OF VOLUNTEER RESOURCES The manner by which the MVR position is staffed sends a forceful message to volunteers and employees alike regarding the significance of the program to the agency and its leadership. Organizations have experimented with an assortment of staffing options for the office, including appointment of: volunteers, employees from the human resources department or section, personnel with other duties, and combinations of these officials. (Lamentably, some organizations apparently do not make a formal appointment, as discussed later in this chapter). No other staffing method so manifestly demonstrates a sense of organizational commitment to the program and its priorities as does a paid MVR position. A paid position lodges accountability for the program squarely with the MVR, presents a focal point for contact with the volunteer operation for those inside as well as outside the organization, implements a core structure for program administration, and rewards the officeholder in relation to the success of the volunteers.

Findings from the Urban Institute's national study of charities (Hager, 2004) indicate that staff time devoted to volunteer management is typically low, however. Only three out of five charities reported having a paid staff person who worked on volunteer coordination. Even among these paid MVRs, one in three had not received any training in volunteer management, and half spent less than 30% of their time on volunteer coordination.

POSITIONING THE MVR IN THE ORGANIZATIONAL HIERARCHY Establishing the office of the MVR as close as possible to the apex of the agency's formal hierarchy conveys a similar message of resolve, importance, and purposefulness. The MVR should enjoy prerogatives commensurate with other positions in the organizational hierarchy with similar scope and depth of responsibility, including participation in relevant decision and policy making and access to superiors. In this manner the incumbent can represent the volunteers before the relevant department(s) as well as the organization as a whole, promote their interests, and help to ensure that officials appreciate their value and contributions to the organization.

RESPONSIBILITIES OF THE MVR In their performance-based certification process for administrators of volunteer programs, the Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) recognized four functional areas in which this official should demonstrate competence. Although the AVA no longer exists, the competencies identified still have merit. Much like any other manager in the nonprofit or governmental sectors, this official should be skilled: in program planning and organization; staffing and directing; controlling; and agency, community, and professional relations. James C. Fisher and Kathleen M. Cole (1993, pp. 22–24) add a fifth area: budgeting and fundraising.

The breadth and significance of these functions substantiate the need for a dedicated MVR position. Among the chief job components, this official is responsible for promoting the program and recruiting volunteers—critical tasks demanding active outreach in the community and highly flexible working hours. The incumbent must communicate with department and organization officials to ascertain workloads and requirements for volunteer assistance. Assessing agency needs for volunteers, enlarging areas for their involvement, and educating staff to the approach should be seen not as a one-time exercise but as ongoing activities of the MVR. The MVR interviews and screens applicants for volunteer positions, maintains appropriate records, places volunteers in job assignments, supports employees in supervising volunteers, and monitors performance. The office coordinates the bewildering array of schedules, backgrounds, and interests brought by volunteers to the agency and matches participants with the particular areas in which their labor, skill, and energy can be used to the mutual advantage of citizens and the organization.

The MVR is the in-house source of expertise on all facets of volunteer involvement and management. The position bears overall responsibility for orientation and training, as well as evaluation and recognition, of volunteers. Because employees frequently lack previous experience with volunteers, training may be necessary for them as well to make citizen involvement most effective. Finally, as the chief advocate of the program, the MVR endeavors not only to express the volunteer perspective but also to allay any apprehensions and facilitate collaboration between paid and nonpaid staff.

Fisher and Cole (1993, pp. 15–18) find that the responsibilities of the MVR vary depending on whether the organization adopts a "personnel management" or a "program management" approach to volunteer involvement. In the personnel management approach, the organization deploys volunteers across many functions and departments, and their principal accountability is to the paid staff member to whom they have been assigned. Hospitals, museums, zoos, social service agencies, theater companies, schools, and other organizations where volunteers have many different responsibilities often use this approach. Here the MVR does not supervise or evaluate the volunteers but supports the efforts of the paid staff members who work directly with them. The MVR assists staff in developing volunteer training and in learning and applying appropriate techniques for supervision, record keeping, performance review, and problem solving.

In the program management approach, volunteers are concentrated in one function or department of the organization, usually central to the agency mission. For example, many institutions create volunteer auxiliaries for fund-raising and other purposes, or deploy volunteers in a single organizational unit, such as community relations, client counseling, or intake services. The U.S. Small Business Administration uses the program management approach with regard to its Service Corps of Retired Executives volunteer program; SCORE members are deployed only for management counseling/assistance in the agency and for no other function. In this approach, the MVR performs all of the volunteer management tasks, including training, supervision, record keeping, and evaluation. Regardless of whether an organization uses the personnel management or the program management approach to volunteer participation, the MVR is responsible for job design, recruitment, interviewing, screening, placement, orientation, and recognition.

Other Positions of Program Leadership

Given the scope and importance of the job responsibilities discussed, as a volunteer program increases in size, the burden on one official to provide all aspects of management and leadership can become onerous. Thus, organizational officials should consider creating and establishing other positions to assist the MVR.

One option is to employ paid staff for this purpose. Another fruitful option is to design career ladders for volunteers, a succession of positions for citizens leading to increased opportunities for personal growth and development in the volunteer program (Fisher & Cole, 1993, pp. 65–66, 74–76). As one prominent example, highly committed and experienced volunteers might assume greater responsibility for major facets of the program, such as orientation, training, mentoring, and resource raising. This method not only facilitates program leadership but also carries motivational benefits for volunteers interested in expanding their personal and leadership skills.

Developing Job Descriptions for Volunteer Positions: Sharing the Workplace

The essential building block of a successful volunteer program is the job description. It is the primary vehicle for recruiting volunteers, reassuring employees, and meeting organizational and client needs. "The importance of a volunteer job description cannot be overstated. The job description is the agency's planning tool to help volunteers understand the results to be accomplished, what tasks are involved, what skills are required, and other important details about the job" (McCurley, 1994, pp. 515–516). The essential volunteer management processes—recruiting, interviewing, placing, supervising, training, and evaluating—are based on the information contained in the job description.

Despite the importance of this program element, no intrinsic basis exists to create a position, or classify an existing one, as paid or volunteer. Even among agencies that have the same purpose or mission or that work in the same substantive or policy domain (e.g., child welfare, culture and the arts, adult recreation, etc.), a given position can be categorized differently. For example, while one social service agency may have all client counseling done by peers (unpaid citizens), in a second agency paid employees handle this function. An environmental advocacy organization may hire a paid computer programmer; another nonprofit organization in the same policy field may use a well-qualified volunteer for this task instead. Similarly, some nonprofit organizations employ receptionists or secretarial personnel, while others have willing volunteers to staff these positions. Even the position of MVR can be paid or unpaid.

Because no firm basis exists to classify a position as paid or volunteer, agencies sometimes use both categories of personnel in a given job. For instance, community-supported day-care centers often have on staff a mixture of paid and unpaid attendants for the children; local fire departments, too, commonly use both paid and volunteer firefighters. Without access to organizational records, it may not be possible for clients to determine who is paid and who is not. Within an agency, moreover, job definitions can change over time, so that volunteers give way to paid employees for some positions and gain responsibility from them in others. In sum, whether a position is paid or unpaid at a given time depends on organizational needs and history, not on an inherent distinction or rule regarding compensation (or noncompensation).

Job Design Process

Because no inherent basis exists to classify a task or position as paid or nonpaid, the *process* by which work responsibilities are allocated in an agency is the crucial element in job design. As elaborated earlier, the most enduring foundation for an effective volunteer program is for top agency officials and employees (and, if possible, volunteers) to work out in advance of program implementation explicit understandings regarding the rationale for the involvement of volunteers, the nature of the jobs they are to perform, and the boundaries of their work (Brudney, 2010; Ellis, 1996; Wilson, 1976). The result should be a general agreement that designates (or provides the foundation for distinguishing) the jobs assigned to volunteers and those held by paid staff.

The next step in the job design process consists of a survey of employees, or personal interviews with them, to ascertain key factors about their jobs and to make them aware of the potentially helpful contributions of volunteers to their work. Surveys or interviews should seek to identify those aspects of the job that employees most enjoy performing, those for which professional expertise is required (such as an advanced degree or certification), those that they dislike, and those for which they lack sufficient time or qualifications. The survey or interview should also probe for areas in which employees feel the organization should do more, where the needs of clients remain unmet, where staff support (whether paid or unpaid) would be most welcome, and where novel or different organizational projects could be undertaken were greater time and skills available. Since employees often lack background information regarding the assistance that volunteers might lend to them and to the agency, the survey or interview (or, alternatively, in-service training) should provide resource material regarding volunteers, such as a listing of the jobs or functions that nonpaid staff are already performing in their agency or in similar organizations (cf. Ellis, 1994, pp. 11–12; McCurley & Lynch, 1989, pp. 27–28).

This process should help to dispel popular stereotypes and misconceptions regarding volunteers. For example, volunteer positions are not necessarily in supportive roles to employee endeavors, and paid staff can facilitate and support the activities of volunteers rather than the reverse. Volunteer jobs do not signify menial work: Many organizations rely on donated labor for highly technical, professional tasks such as accounting, economic development, and computer applications. Volunteer jobs yield economic value: Incumbents provide skills that might otherwise be unattainable to an agency.

The delegation of tasks among paid and nonpaid staff members should take into account the unique capabilities that each group might bring toward meeting organizational needs and goals. The allocation of work responsibilities can also change and evolve over time. To allocate work responsibilities at a particular point in time, Ellis (1996, pp. 89–90) recommends that the agency reassess the job descriptions of all employees. Prime candidates for delegation to volunteers are tasks with these characteristics:

- Those performed periodically, such as once a week, rather than on a daily or inflexible basis
- Those that do not require the specialized training or expertise of paid personnel
- Those that might be performed more effectively by someone with special training in that skill
- Those for which the position occupant feels uncomfortable or unprepared
- Those for which the agency lacks in-house expertise

The culmination of the task analysis should be a new set of job descriptions for employees and a second set for volunteers that are sensitive to prevailing organizational conditions. Paid staff members are primarily assigned important, daily functions, and volunteers handle tasks that can be performed on a part-time basis or that make use of the special talents and skills for which they have been recruited. The goal is to achieve the most efficient deployment of both paid and nonpaid personnel. The respective tasks should be codified in formal job descriptions not only for paid but also for nonpaid workers, with the stipulation that neither group will occupy the positions reserved for the other.

Job Descriptions for Volunteer Positions

The International City/County Management Association advises local governments that "volunteer job descriptions are really no different than job descriptions for paid personnel. A volunteer will need the same information a paid employee would need to determine whether the position is of interest" (Manchester & Bogart, 1988, p. 59). That advice applies equally to nonprofit organizations seeking volunteers. Although a variety of attractive formats are possible, the information contained in the job description is fairly standard. A model that might be used in any organization is presented next.

Model Job Description for Volunteer Positions

- Job title
- Purpose of the position
- Benefits of position to occupant
- Qualifications for position
- Time requirement (e.g., hours per week)
- Job site or location
- Proposed starting date (and ending date, if applicable)
- Job responsibilities and activities
- Authority invested in the position
- Reporting relationships and supervision

Note on Volunteer Recruitment

The most persuasive mechanism for the recruitment of prospective volunteers is the availability of nonpaid positions that appeal to their needs and motivations for donating their time. In this context, much of the literature concentrates on the motivational aspects of challenge and accomplishment, personal growth and development, interesting and meaningful work, and career exploration and advancement. Surely, officials might endeavor to design positions for nonpaid—and paid—staff alike with these factors in mind.

Such a preoccupation can easily leave the impression, however, that *every* volunteer job must present close contact with clients, ample opportunity for self-expression, access to program planning and decision making, ready means for acquisition of job skills, and so on. That implication is erroneous. For example, the aversion of many volunteers to positions of greater authority and responsibility is documented with depressing regularity. A more fitting conclusion is that like employees, volunteers are richly diverse in their needs and goals. As a consequence, nonprofit and public organizations will enjoy success in recruiting them to the degree that agencies offer a range of jobs to appeal to a diversity of motivations. An organization should no more allocate exclusively routine, repetitive tasks to volunteers than it should place them solely in highly ambitious work assignments. Volunteer recruitment is discussed more fully elsewhere in this *Handbook*.

Designing Systems and Supports to Facilitate Citizen Participation and Program Management: Preparing for Volunteer Involvement

Comparable Guidelines for Employees and Volunteers

A pioneer in the development of volunteer administration as a field for professional practice and research, Harriet H. Naylor (1973) counseled, "Most of the universally recognized principles of administration for employed personnel are even more valid for volunteer workers, who *give* their talents and time" (p. 173, emphasis in original). Steve McCurley and Rick Lynch (2006) agree that the volunteer program will need to develop basic personnel-related systems and operate with essential policies and procedures for intake, management, evaluation, record keeping, and so on. They counsel, "If you have a question about the content of a policy or procedure, refer to the policies and procedures that the agency uses for paid staff. The rules should be a similar as possible: *When in doubt, copy*" (McCurley & Lynch, 2006, p. 37, emphasis in original).

The job descriptions for volunteer positions already discussed offer a good example. A seasoned volunteer administrator concurs: "One should not have different qualifications for staff than one has for volunteers doing the same work" (Thronburg, 1992, p. 18). By setting standards as high for volunteers as for paid staff, an agency engenders trust and credibility, increases respect and requests for volunteers from employees, a healthy work environment, and perhaps most important, high-quality services (McCurley & Lynch, 1989, 1997; Wilson, 1984). This course helps to prevent treatment of volunteers as second-class citizens, that is, "second place" to paid staff. In addition to job descriptions for volunteer positions, an organization must have systems and supports in place to build and sustain a thriving volunteer program.

Application and Placement Systems

The application and placement process further illustrates the parallels between administration for paid and nonpaid personnel. The organization must develop application forms for volunteer positions and have them readily available for citizens attracted to them. The MVR or appropriate official reviews the application and schedules an interview with the candidate. The primary purpose of the interview is to ascertain relevant competencies, skills, and interests as well as pertinent background and qualifications of citizen applicants and to evaluate an appropriate matching to the needs of the organization (as specified in the volunteer job descriptions). In addition, the interview should be used to gather from the prospective volunteer ideas and suggestions for new positions that take advantage of distinctive talents or expertise brought by volunteers. Should a match look promising for both volunteer and organization, the applicant is often invited for a second interview, this time with the prospective department head or supervisor. If all goes well, a placement should result for the volunteer. If not, just as for paid employees, the organization maintains the applications on file for other openings. As with paid personnel, agencies will often stipulate a probationary period for incoming volunteers to evaluate the success of a placement.

Education and Training Systems

Members new to an organization, whether paid or nonpaid, cannot be expected to possess great knowledge about the agency initially: They require an orientation. The organization should arrange for orientation activities for volunteers and employees to address such topics as the overall mission and specific objectives of the agency; its traditions, philosophy, and clientele; operating rules and procedures; the rationale, policies, and standards governing volunteer involvement; and the roles and interface of paid and nonpaid staff members. As mentioned, distributing a booklet or manual containing the relevant information during orientation sessions is very helpful.

Some volunteer positions do not require training—that is, specific instruction or education—to perform or perhaps only brief on-the-job exposure (e.g., scheduling appointments, filing documents, or cleaning facilities). Many others have a great need for formal education (e.g., drug abuse counselor, dispute mediator, or computer programmer). In the latter case, the organization must ensure through the application and placement processes that the volunteer possesses the requisite competency, or must provide for the training needed, either in-house or in conjunction with an educational institution.

Management and Record-Keeping Systems

Just as for paid personnel, an organization should have record-keeping systems for its volunteer workers. These systems log important information about the volunteer, including personal background, areas of interest and competency, education and training, and preferred assignments. An agency will also need to maintain records with regard to the volunteer's relationship, experience, and performance with the organization, for example, the initial visit, entry interviews, job assignments, performance evaluations, and other feedback (e.g., from clients, paid staff, other volunteers, etc.). Computer software has been developed expressly for this purpose that can not only relieve the MVR of much of the paperwork burden but also facilitate and enliven the management function. Utilization of this software can aid enormously in keeping track of the skills, preferences, and availability of volunteers and matching them with suitable opportunities for placement and personal growth and development in the organization.

Evaluation and Recognition Systems

Organizations that rely on the assistance of volunteers may be reluctant to appear to question through performance evaluation the worth or impact of well-intentioned helping efforts. The fears of organizational leadership notwithstanding, volunteers have good reason to view assessment in a favorable light.

A powerful motivation for volunteering is to achieve worthwhile and visible results; performance appraisal can guide volunteers toward improvement on this dimension. No citizen contributes her or his time to have her or his labor wasted in misdirected activity or to repeat easily remedied mistakes and misjudgments. That an organization might take one's work so lightly as to allow such inappropriate behavior to continue is an insult to the volunteer and an affront to standards of professional conduct underlying effectiveness on the job. For many who contribute their time, moreover, volunteering presents an opportunity to acquire or hone desirable job skills and/or to build an attractive resume for purposes of paid employment. To deny constructive feedback to those who give their time for organizational purposes, and who could benefit from this knowledge and hope to do so, is a disservice to the volunteer.

Several mechanisms are feasible for the performance evaluation. Frequently, the supervisor to whom the volunteer reports conducts the review, or the responsibility may rest with the MVR, or with both of these officials. To complement the agency-based perspective, volunteers may also prepare a self-assessment of their experience, accomplishments, and aspirations in the organization. The assessment should tap their satisfaction with important facets of the work assignment, including job duties, schedule, support, training, opportunities for personal growth, and so on.

Regardless of the type of evaluation, the goal should be to ascertain the degree to which the needs and expectations of the volunteer and the agency are met, so that job assignments can be continued, amended, or redefined as necessary.

The program should not only create systems for volunteer evaluation but also stress the importance of recognizing volunteer service. Recognition should follow naturally from performance appraisal. Agency officials might recognize and show their appreciation to volunteers through a great variety of activities: award or social events (luncheons, banquets, ceremonies), media attention (newsletters, newspapers), certificates (for tenure or special achievement), expansion of opportunities (for learning, training, management), and, especially, personal expressions of gratitude from clients and employees. A heartfelt "thank you" can be all the acknowledgment that many volunteers want or need. Others require more formal recognition. The MVR should make letters of recommendation available to all volunteers who request them. Recognition is a highly variable activity that, optimally, should be tailored to the wants and needs of individual volunteers.

Conclusion

In their eagerness to reap the benefits of volunteer participation, organizational leadership may overlook the groundwork necessary to create and sustain a viable volunteer program. Although understandable, this tendency can jeopardize the potential advantages of the approach and increase problem areas. To prepare the organization for volunteers, officials should set reasonable expectations concerning volunteers, establish an explicit rationale and goals for the volunteer program, involve paid staff in designing the program, implement a structural arrangement for housing the program and integrating it into the organization, create positions of leadership for the program, develop job descriptions for the tasks to be performed by volunteers, and design systems and supports to facilitate citizen participation and volunteer program management. To the degree that leadership undertakes these activities, the organization should avoid the potential pitfalls and generate the considerable benefits of volunteer involvement.

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CHAPTER 4

Shaping an Organizational Culture of Employee and Volunteer Commitment

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One of the most serious challenges for leaders in the contemporary workplace whether for-profit, nonprofit, or government, is a lack of commitment to the organization on the part of its workforce. *Employee commitment*, as a construct, has been defined and refined over the past 40 years. After extensive study, Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) offered a comprehensive definition that will be used throughout this chapter. Using the term "organizational commitment," they defined the concept as "the relative strength of an individual's identification with and involvement in a particular organization" (p. 27). Their model was comprised of three components: (a) a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values, (b) a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and (c) a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization. They claimed that when an employee's commitment to the organization is defined in such a way, the construct includes much more than mere passive loyalty; rather, it describes an active relationship, and commitment can be deduced not only from what an individual purports to believe or think but also from his or her actions. In other words, loyalty is not enough; neither is hard work; nor is it enough to deeply believe in the goals and values of the organization. Commitment to the workplace includes all three components.

Research over the years has linked employee commitment to job performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism, personal and organizational values fit, organizational citizenship, intention to leave the organization, and turnover. Deterioration of employee commitment can have serious consequences in these areas, and these consequences can swiftly become manifested in organizations.

It is interesting to take a closer look at one of these components: a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization, or loyalty. The roller-coaster ride of employee loyalty over the past decade bears out the pervasiveness of what is arguably an ongoing crisis in contemporary organizations. After the downsizings and reengineerings, not to mention the gutting of middle management of the late 1980s and throughout the 1990s, by 2001, only 24% of workers professed loyalty to their organizations, indicating that they intended to remain with the organization for two years or more, according to Walker Information's biennial Loyalty Report (2010). That percentage of loyal employees bumped to 30% in 2003 and to 34% through both 2005 and 2007, and reached 43% in 2009. The slow economy of the early years of the decade followed by the economic implosion of 2008 and the resulting record levels of unemployment certainly have been factors in this attitudinal change, although there are likely other changes going on in the workplace contributing to this positive shift.

Even with such a significant increase in loyalty numbers, the implications are still not good for a workforce in which nearly six out of ten workers are not loyal. According to Walker Information's Loyalty Report (2010), 81% of loyal employees can be expected to execute their company's stated business strategies through their day-to-day work, while only 39% of those not loyal will do so. Of the loyal, 92% concur that they work to make the business successful, compared to 49% of those in the disloyal categories. Similarly, 89% of the loyal workers will help colleagues with heavy workloads, while only 60% of those in the disloyal categories will do so.

Organizations are not disappearing, and organizations are comprised of people who make a difference between success and failure. While organizations may look considerably different than they did a decade or two ago, their viability and their success is predicated on a core of people who are committed employees, who strongly believe in the organization's goals and values, who are willing to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization, and who strongly desire to maintain membership in the organization.

The reduction of workplace effectiveness due to low employee commitment presents a problem for leaders. The challenge these leaders face is to shape the organizational culture such that employees choose to share the organization's values, advance its purposes through hard work, and remain with the organization.

Organizational Culture: What It Is and Why It Matters

During the decade of the 1970s, a new school of organizational thought developed that viewed organizations as cultures instead of machines. According to Bolman and Deal in *Reframing Organizations* (1997), some people claim that organizations *have* cultures, and others maintain that organizations *are* cultures. The concept of organizational culture has its roots in cultural anthropology, and one of the earliest definitions of culture dates from the 1948 work of Herskowitz, a cultural anthropologist who suggested that culture is a construct that describes "the total body of belief, behavior, knowledge, sanctions, values, and goals that make up the way of life of a people" (cited in Hawkins, 1997, p. 418). In 1973, Geertz expanded this observation, suggesting that culture is "an historically transmitted pattern of meanings embodied in symbols, a system of inherited conceptions expressed in symbolic forms by means of which men communicate, perpetuate and develop their knowledge about and attitudes toward life" (cited in Hawkins, 1997, p. 418). Gareth Morgan, in *Images of Organization* (1998), observed that the term "culture" derives metaphorically from the concept of tilling the earth—of cultivation—and that it further refers to "the pattern of development reflected in a society's system of knowledge, ideology, values, laws, and day-to-day ritual" (p. 112). Simply put, different groups of people have different ways of life. And so it is in organizations, according to the organizational culture school of thought, which was catapulted into the consciousness of organizational managers through the 1982 work of Tom Peters and Bob Waterman, *In Search of Excellence*, which linked the status of organizational excellence to a strong, unifying culture that embraced a shared vision.

In their 1982 work, *Corporate Cultures*, Deal and Kennedy, admitting that they employed some poetic license in their use of a 1966 definition given by Marvin Bower, former managing director of McKinsey & Company, defined the informal elements of culture simply as *the way we do things around here*, a description nearly identical to the oft-quoted 1978 definition of Ouchi and Johnson of *how things are done around here* (cited in Hawkins, 1997, p. 419). Hawkins, however, suggested these types of definitions are reductive and simplistic and suggested that that might be fine behaviorally, but it ignored deeper levels of culture, such as roots of motivation, emotions, and mind-set.

Perhaps the definition that best captures the enormity of the construct of organizational culture comes from Edgar Schein (1992), who summarized that culture is "[a] pattern of shared basic assumptions that the group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems" (p. 12). Culture, Schein suggested, synthesizes all of an organization's rituals, climate, values, and behaviors into a coherent whole, and it is "hard to define, hard to analyze and measure, and hard to manage."

Kotter and Heskett's (1992) studies confirmed that strong corporate cultures could have a significant effect on an organization's long-term economic performance and that corporate cultures inhibiting strong performance develop easily, *even in firms that are full of reasonable and intelligent people.* (p. 11). Herzlinger (1999) suggested that culture, though it is not readily observable, is the most important key to organizational success, and Fisher (2001) identified culture as "the invisible hand that controls behavior by touching everything and everyone" (p. 27). According to Herzlinger, "When these cultured organizations become uncultured—by distancing themselves from their internalized values, attitudes, and approaches—they falter" (1999, p. 108). Sims's (2000) case study of Warren Buffett's turnaround of Salomon Brothers in the wake of the company's ethical failings and bond trading scandal of 1991 is a classic example of an organization having become *uncultured.* Buffett's turnaround revealed how a leader is able to influence, and even wholly transform, an organizational culture.

It is enormously important to understand the concept of organizational culture, and it is enormously difficult to make genuine culture changes. Lewis, French, and Steane (1997) offered that culture contributes to what makes an organization different from all others: "It is the essence of an organization—its character, its personality. It is therefore long-term and very difficult to change" (p. 279). Schein (1992) added that culture change, or changing basic assumptions, is "difficult, time-consuming, and highly anxiety provoking. This point is especially relevant for the leader who sets out to change the culture of the organization" (p. 27). In a subsequent article, Schein (1996) further suggested the extent of this difficulty, in that "the examples of successful organizational learning tend to be short-run adaptive learning—doing better at what we are already doing—or if truly innovations, tend to be isolated and eventually subverted or abandoned" (p. 11). He added that culture is one of the hardest things to manage in a time of constant change and suggested that "[t]he challenge is in conceptualizing a culture of innovation in which learning, adaptation, innovation and perpetual change are the stable elements" (p. xiv). Indeed, if an organization is able to harness these elements as the standard and stable core of the culture, particularly the slippery element of change, that culture could well enable the organization to survive and thrive in the uncertain postindustrial, postmodern world we live in.

Cameron and Quinn (1999) described culture and culture change through the competing values framework and its related measurement tool, the Organizational Culture Assessment Instrument (OCAI). This framework was initially developed from research on effectiveness in organizations in which 39 indicators were identified and then grouped into four main clusters. Within the framework there is differentiation among organizations along a dimension that indicates that some organizations are effective while emphasizing flexibility, discretion, and dynamics, while other emphasize stability, order, and control. A second dimension distinguishes between criteria that indicate effectiveness through an emphasis on an internal orientation, integration, and unity, as opposed to an emphasis on an external orientation, differentiation, and rivalry.

The four quadrants formed by the polarized dimensions each represent a different set of organizational effectiveness indicators, or that which people value about organizational performance. The culture types that emerge within the framework are the *clan* culture, with an internal and organic focus; the *hierarchy* culture, with an internal and control focus; the *adhocracy* culture, with an external and organic focus; and the *market* culture, with an external and control focus. Various profiles emerge through the diagnosis of the OCAI to indicate the dominant culture type, according to Cameron and Quinn, and in the several thousand organizations that they studied, over 80% were characterized by one or more of the culture types identified by the framework. Those that did not have a dominant culture type either tended to be unclear about their culture or emphasized nearly equally the four different cultural types.

Schein (1999) soundly criticized consultants and academics who touted culture concepts and theories through questionnaires that produced numbers and profiles, permitting organizations to be deposited into tidy categories. He suggested that these little boxes only contained some of the superficial elements of culture. While they are not incorrect labels, "they are fairly useless because they do not reflect the cultural forces that matter" according to Schein; the forces that matter "cannot be dug out with simple measures; they cannot easily be classified into typologies because they tend to be unique patterns reflecting the unique history of the organization" (p. xiv).

Further noting survey instruments that purport to measure culture deal with items such as teamwork, manager-employee relationships, communication, perceived autonomy or empowerment, innovation and creativity, Schein observed that many culture change programs suggest reducing layers of supervision, creating improved communications, engendering commitment and loyalty, and encouraging teamwork and empowerment. He suggested that these prescriptions are dangerously narrow and that the way people relate to each other is only a small part of what culture covers. According to Schein, the deeply embedded elements of culture may be missed entirely. He advocated for a complete and realistic assessment of all aspects of an organization's culture and set forth what he considered to be a more realistic and streamlined view of the makeup of organizational culture: "Culture is the sum total of *all the shared, taken-for-granted assumptions that a group has learned throughout its history*" (1999, p. 29), yet he then stated that this was an abstract definition and not particularly helpful in fully understanding culture.

Cultural assumptions, according to Schein (1999), do not only revolve around the internal workings of the organization; they must also, and more important, involve how the organization sees itself relative to its different environments. Boyd and Begley (2002) also suggested that corporate culture must serve both the needs of internal integration as well as external adaptation. According to them, internal integration includes the different ways that people, processes, and systems interface; and external adaptation refers to the organization's fit within the larger environment. Cultural control, they suggested, is achieved through value congruence; therefore, efforts to achieve this congruence are necessary to "get employees on board—assimilation—and connect their day-to-day activities directly to cultural pillars—activation. In addition, the culture must reconcile the organization's strategy with its environment—appropriateness—and facilitate the organization's ability to accommodate change—adaptiveness" (p. 15).

Denison (1996) discussed two primary schools of thought that have emerged in the organizational culture literature, that of: researchers who consider culture to be purely subjective and qualitative and those who attempt to use a functionalist paradigm and quantitative methods. When culture studies began in the 1980s, "culture" appeared to be the code word for the subjective nature of organizational existence, and its study represented a philosophical rebellion against the dominant functionalist or scientific paradigm, a reaction that Denison suggested was a result of the growing influence that postmodernism exerted on social sciences. According to Denison, this response to "pervasive positivism, quantification, and managerialism of mainstream organizational studies," (p. 619) helped to begin a reexamination of the foundations of organizational studies. Denison concluded that the paradigm wars could be overcome by viewing differences as being interpretive, and he suggested that the perspective of culture researchers expanded significantly as a result of studying culture in ways that included both quantitative methods and combined quantitative and qualitative methods. The construct of culture, he argued, can be best understood through the continued integration of both methods and the continued borrowing from theoretical foundations and research strategies from both traditions.

Martin (2002) also argued for an integrated approach to studying culture, suggesting that it might be wise to examine less the way culture is defined and focus on how it is operationalized. She suggested that three perspectives exist in research methods that are used in what she termed the *culture wars*: the *integration* perspective, the *differentiation* perspective, and the *fragmentation* perspective. She contrasted these perspectives on three dimensions: orientation to consensus, relation among manifestations, and orientation to ambiguity. The integration perspective exemplifies organization-wide consensus, consistency, and excludes ambiguity;

her metaphor is that of a solid monolith, "seen the same way by most people, no matter from which angle they view it" (p. 94). The differentiation perspective manifests consensus on the subcultural level with inconsistencies among interpretations, and ambiguity is found only outside of the various subcultures, which may exist in harmony, conflict, or indifference to one another; the metaphor is that of "islands of clarity in a sea of ambiguity" (p. 94). The third perspective Martin identifies is that of fragmentation, in which the culture clearly exhibits a lack of consensus, relationships are neither clearly consistent nor inconsistent, and ambiguity forms its core. Martin's metaphor is that of individuals who are each assigned a light bulb, and these different light bulbs flicker on or off resulting in various light patterns, depending on where each individual stands on any given issue at any given time (p. 94).

In her approach, Martin (2002) argued that the three perspectives complement each other in a precise manner because each of the perspectives takes a different position on the three dimensions, and if one uses all of the perspectives, a greater range of insights is available. Each perspective has its own blind spots that the collective three-perspective approach does not have. Martin disagreed with descriptions of culture that reflect anything that is *shared*, maintaining that culture cannot be shared but is relative to each individual.

Ashkanasy (2003) strongly criticized Martin for her dismissive attitude toward the functionalist perspective and the quantitative methods that are used within it while suggesting that the three-perspective model Martin described "reflects the logical position that all phenomena are a function of (a) what we know and can measure, (b) what we don't know, but could measure if we did, and (c) what we cannot know and cannot measure" (p. 255). While Ashkanasy concurred with Martin that culture must include the differentiation and fragmentation perspectives, he fundamentally disagreed that research restricted to any single perspective is necessarily flawed. Scientific knowledge, he argued, "progresses through development and testing of general rules, and understanding of human phenomena requires us to strive to make an inroad into what is as yet unknown, and also to attempt to understand the nature of and ambiguity inherent in what cannot be known" (p. 257).

In direct contrast to Martin, Schein (1992, 1999) maintained that culture clearly includes *shared* basic assumptions and that it manifests on three levels: *artifacts*, *espoused values*, and *basic underlying assumptions*. Artifacts are those organizational structures and processes that are visible yet hard to decipher; espoused values are the organization's strategies, goals, and philosophies, or its espoused justifications; and the organization's basic underlying assumptions are the unconscious perceptions, beliefs, thoughts, and feelings that are taken for granted yet serve as the ultimate source of values as well as action. Schein (1999) asserted that culture content makes a crucial difference in three areas: (a) external survival issues, (b) internal integration issues, and (c) deeper underlying assumptions.

External survival issues, according to Schein (1999), include: mission, strategy, and goals; means, or structure, systems, and processes; and measurement, or error-detection and correction systems. Internal integration issues include common language and concepts, group boundaries, and identity; the nature of authority and relationships; and the allocation of rewards and status. As part of the deeper underlying assumptions, Schein identified human relationships to nature, the nature of reality and truth, the nature of human nature, the nature of human relationships, and the nature of time and space. These elements, he maintained, are unique in every culture and cannot be sufficiently measured by any survey tool; in this regard, Schein specifically cited instruments by Cameron and Quinn (1999), Goffee and Jones (1998), and Hofstede (1991).

Conversely, Goodman, Zammuto, and Gifford (2001) used the competing values framework and tools of Cameron and Quinn's (1999) OCAI in their study of culture and its relationship to employee commitment, job involvement, empowerment, job satisfaction, and turnover intent. Three of the quadrants carried different names, albeit the same descriptors: *group* rather than *clan* culture; *rational* rather than *market* culture; *developmental* rather than *adhocracy* culture; and *hierarchical* rather than *hierarchy* culture. In detailing each, they noted that the hierarchical, in valuing stability and control, emphasizes vertical communications, centralized decision making, and formal coordination, with members' roles defined and enforced formally through rules and regulations. The group culture is primarily concerned with morale and human relations, and there is emphasis on horizontal communications, decentralized decision making, teamwork and participation; structurally there are fewer control systems and less emphasis on formal coordination. The rational culture places value on productivity and efficiency. Focused on achievement, this type of culture stresses more formal coordination and control as well as centralized decision making. In the developmental culture, growth and adaptability are emphasized, much as group culture horizontal communications are stressed, and the coordination and control systems are informal.

Goodman et al. (2001) echoed the warning that overemphasizing any one of the cultures could produce dysfunctional organizations; for example, an overemphasis on group culture could produce an irresponsible country club, overemphasis on hierarchical orientation could produce a frozen bureaucracy, overemphasis on rational orientation could produce an oppressive sweat shop, and overemphasis on developmental orientation could produce a tumultuous anarchy. Thus, the competing values framework makes it clear that organizations must embrace elements of each of the four cultures and that the relative balance of these four cultural orientations within a given organization's culture has a pronounced impact on how its members view their quality of life at work. The findings produced by Goodman et al. indicated that group culture values positively correlated to employee commitment, job involvement, empowerment and job satisfaction and negatively correlated to turnover intent; hierarchical culture values negatively correlated to employee commitment, job involvement, empowerment and job satisfaction and positively correlated to turnover intent. Other relationship patterns indicated that the control/flexibility dimension of the framework was more important than the internal/external dimension relative to these outcomes.

While they generally found that organizations supporting group culture values experience greater quality of work life, Goodman et al. (2001) provided the caveat: "[T]his does not mean that an ideal culture should only focus on group values. It is not an either/or choice, but a case of the relative balance of the cultures that will vary depending on the organization's definition of success" (p. 64). The incorporation of valued outcomes is reflected by each of the four cultural types; however, in terms of enhanced quality of work life, group cultural values have the advantage. They suggested that the cultural profile could help to identify imbalances, as well as an ideal state, and from this analysis strategies for improvement could be generated.

The paradigm wars regarding the culture construct continue. Both the definition and the operationalizing of the culture construct are complex, controversial, and confounding. The model described in the next section, while fundamentally based on Schein's definition of culture, breaks with his aversion to the use of instrumentation through the creation and use of a survey tool that attempts to analyze, in Schein's words, cultural forces that matter, and views culture across physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual dimensions.

Measuring Culture: A Four-Dimensional Model and Analysis Tool

While there are a myriad of frameworks and metaphors that may be used to describe an organization and explore its culture, a useful way to view basic assumptions, major tenets, and organizational structures is from the perspective of the human being—living, thinking, learning, producing, self-organizing, self-reflective, contemplative; hence the PIES (*p*hysical, *i*ntellectual, *e*motional, and *s*piritual) model. Use of this model and metaphor includes the assumption that human beings are comprised of four dimensions: a physical dimension, or body; an intellectual dimension, or mind; an emotional dimension, or heart; and a spiritual dimension, or soul. The integration of these four dimensions into a balanced whole is necessary to produce an effective organization as well as to produce an effective human being. Each of these dimensions may be useful for exploring the enculturation process of an organization's members and the progressive moving from one level of organizational culture to another.

While the four dimensions of the PIES model in human beings and likewise organizations are linked in many ways, it is interesting to look at various aspects of each dimension and their applicability to organizations. Similar to the human body, the organizational body is suited for a variety of tasks and is made up of many parts. Each part has a function, is interrelated with the other parts, and none is superior though they may perform more complex activities.

In the physical dimension, in addition to structure, one may also consider the issue of health. It is necessary to maintain health through attention to each part of the body as well as to the interdependencies of the parts. The body seeks homeostasis, as does an organization. If it is seriously out of balance, pathology sets in and illness or death is the result. Although the body is self-organizing and self-repairing, it needs proper food, regular exercise, dietary supplements, regular medical visits to ensure early detection of problems, medication as necessary, and an appropriate lifestyle to ensure physical health and well-being. A full fitness program is important to prolong vitality, strength, flexibility, skills, and attractiveness. Additionally, preventive measures regarding safety as well as health must be in place to minimize the risk of injury, whether self-inflicted or externally inflicted. Regarding age, *things break down.* Maturity should be considered an asset, renewal tended to, and vitality monitored; however, life should not be prolonged once it is no longer worth living. A *living will* arrangement should allow for pulling the plug if death is imminent. There is no sense in continuing life support once physical life, for all practical purposes, is gone.

Caring for one's physical appearance is also important, but too much time spent on surface grooming may be narcissistic. An obsession for the way one looks may cover an emptiness or lack of substance within, just as too much organizational makeup may hide reality, look fake, and be indicative of self-absorbed behavior rather than attention to purpose. Appearance may indicate other issues as well: Figurative fat may equate to pathology, greed, laziness, and overindulgence; excessive thinness may indicate frailty, weakness, or disease.

The physical dimension also represents the use of the senses, each of which can be looked at metaphorically. The eyes are used primarily to observe and confirm what is real and where problems might be located as well as where beauty and productivity are found. The ears hear the message; they listen to the customers, the markets, and respond accordingly. Taste may be used to try new flavors, to savor the familiar, to spit out the distasteful and avoid harmful substances. The olfactory sense allows for "smelling the roses" as well as noting the rotten smells that alert us that all is not well. Finally, the sense of touch is the means to figuratively maintain contact with those closest to the organization. This sense also allows for monitoring the texture of the organization, whether smooth, rough, or patterned. The physical dimension has a nearly endless stream of metaphorical implications.

Human beings also possess minds. The organization, like the human being, must exercise its mind through learning activities or risk atrophy. It should be constantly learning and growing, distilling information from data, and converting what it deems as truthful and useful information into knowledge while guarding against misinformation and information overload. The intellect is the seat of creative thinking, of imagination, of new ideas. Without new and ever-increasing knowledge, the organization merely subsists; it does not grow intellectually. This dimension also represents the survival protection Morgan (1998) described as holographic imaging, allowing function regardless of loss because of knowledge redundancies. Another application of this metaphor is to express the difference between right- and left-brain functions in an organization and resultant compensations. Further, the domain of the mind is subject to pathologies that may cripple the body—anxiety, depression, and schizophrenia to name only a few mental illnesses that, if not appropriately treated, will result in physical damage.

An organization, like a human being, metaphorically possesses a heart. This is not the heart of the physical dimension that pumps blood to the rest of the body. In this dimension, "heart" refers to the seat of compassion, passion, and caring within the human being and within the organization. It represents the emotions that all individuals and all organizations possess, display, may enjoy, and must control. The heart represents love, for others and for self. It beats constantly, as caring should be constant. When it stops, death occurs. An organization that does not care about its purposes, its customers, or its workers is not alive. If the organization's only sense of being derives from its profit motive, it is a cadaver—functional for some specific purposes, perhaps, but not alive to the world around it. The heart translates love into action and produces results that benefit the greater good of society.

Similar to a human being, an organization may be metaphorically described as possessing a soul. The soul is even more ephemeral than the heart. It too cannot be seen. It is the inner guide of the person or the organization; it is the connection to a divine purpose, the conduit for inspiration. The soul is about character, depth, values, and beliefs; it is about integrity, courage, and fortitude. The soul is apparent in how organizational or individual intentions are made manifest through activities and actions.

Metaphor helps us to understand things partially what we cannot understand fully, such as feelings, morality, aesthetics, and spiritual awareness. The humanity metaphor is particularly applicable to today's organizations because infinite differences and choices abound. Organizations may be astoundingly complex, amazingly simple, or utterly ambiguous. The depth of the humanity metaphor, viewed from the four dimensions—physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual—can address and adapt itself to these paradoxical levels of complexity, ambiguity, and simplicity. While no single metaphor can fully explain the object of its comparison, the humanity metaphor can be used effectively in those areas not traditionally explored by other organizational metaphors, particularly technical and mechanistic organizational approaches. Of these, Margaret Wheatley (1999) suggested that the most fundamental of human dynamics are generally ignored completely, such as the need to trust in one another, the need for work that is meaningful, the desire to make a difference and to be appreciated for one's contributions, and the need to be a part of changing those things that affect us. These aspects, and more, may all be addressed through the use of a humanity metaphor because, as with the potentialities of human beings, the possibilities of this metaphor's comparisons are endless.

The order in which one would typically progress in the organizational enculturation process would be from the physical to the intellectual; from the intellectual to the emotional; and, finally, to the deepest level of enculturation, the spiritual level. In other words, the process would move from the physical engagement in the organization of the body, next of the mind in the intellectual dimension, followed by the heart and the emotional dimension, and finally the soul itself in a spiritual level of organizational enculturation. While the progression logically takes place in this order, it is possible that some people may never progress beyond the first level; others may never progress beyond the second level or the third. Few may actually reach the deepest level of spiritual engagement in an organizational setting. Further, dysfunction may occur when a level is skipped—for example, the intellectual level. However, the farther an organization can successfully engage its individual members through each of these levels, the more powerful the notion of organizational culture can manifest itself in positive and profound ways to produce favorable and sustained organizational results.

The moving to each deeper dimension of culture is dependent on a number of variables. First, as Schein would remind us, the ever-changing processes of creating and managing culture are at the core of leadership and make one aware that *culture* and *leadership* go hand in hand. They are two sides of one coin. Much responsibility also rests with the individual as well as the organization's willingness and ability to accept Schein's elements of learning, adaptation, innovation, and perpetual change as the stable elements of the overall culture. William Guillory, author of *The Living Organization: Spirituality in the Workplace* (1997), recommended enrollment in a compelling vision, continuous learning, and the establishing of a spiritually sourced value system that would ensure a culture in which humanistic practices would require no explicit business justification. Michael Thompson, in *The Congruent Life: Following the Inward Path to Fulfilling Work and Inspired Leadership* (2000), observed that, increasingly, the human desire for meaning and purpose in life is found by many through the work they do. He suggested that this is becoming true of many professions, no longer just in the social services or ministry, and he further urged that finding meaning and value in the workplace will not just be a nice thing for organizations of the 21st century, it will become essential to meet future challenges with which organizations will be faced.

According to a survey reported in *Communication World* (IABC 1996–1997) while *organizational culture* was considered a *key to success* by 52% of executives surveyed, and *culture change* topped the list of major changes that 48% had faced in the previous three years, only 38% indicated that they measured their culture change initiatives, while 86% claimed their culture change programs were successful. These data suggested that there is confusion regarding the definition of "culture," but somehow it is understood to be important to an organization's success. It is easy to claim success—86% did so—without having to produce data, quantitative or qualitative, that would substantiate the feeling or hunch that success was indeed the outcome of a culture change initiative. The general failure to quantify results of culture change may indicate anything from the lack of an appropriate measurement tools to a resistance or unwillingness to search for further understanding of the elusive thing that is culture.

The PIES Culture Analysis Tool (CAT)—presented in Exhibit 4.1 at the end of this section—was created with its base in the humanity metaphor and the PIES organizational model (Smith, 2004). While it must be noted that much of the tool's development was the direct result of employee interaction, observation, focus groups, and informal surveys compiled and synthesized over many years, multiple other sources contributed to its formation. The tool reflects Schein's clinical research model, representing a high level of researcher involvement, a great deal of qualitative data, and a maximal level of subject involvement. A fundamental assumption reflected his urging that one can best understand a system by trying to change it, a cornerstone of its foundation. The tool has synthesized elements from many sources, including Schein's three levels of culture—artifacts, espoused values, and underlying assumptions; Bolman and Deal's (2001) four frames—structural, human resource, political, and symbolic; and Morgan's use of metaphor and multiple metaphors. Lebo's (1997) cultural inventory work in diversity awareness and sensitivity was considered to ensure items of this nature were prominently included; results from Levering and Moskowitz's (1998) studies were examined to identify potential items for the tool, particularly the physical dimension; and items were drawn from Mitroff and Denton's (1999) groundbreaking empirical work in measuring the spiritual dimension of the workplace.

Further inspiration was found in breakthrough thinking, such as that of Bolman and Deal (2001), who called for "a revolution in how we think about leadership and how we develop leaders. Most management and leadership development programs ignore or demean spirit . . . In matters of spirit, wisdom and experience count far more than technique or strategy" (pp. 174–175). Similarly, Schwartz (1996) offered that wisdom is derived when one moves beyond rational intention, surrenders to one's internal intuitive nature, and finds a way to integrate everyday life what generally appear to be contradictory perspectives. In his work on community building within the workplace, Pinchot (1998) declared without reservation that loyalty to organizations and happiness are dependent on the time we spend at work in a strong organizational community.

The measurement of organizational culture is not only extremely difficult; it may also be extremely uncomfortable, particularly when one considers including the measurement of organizational soul or workplace spirituality. As individuals and organizations are better able to discern between religion and spirituality, this issue may become less controversial. Eventually it may become common and ordinary to accept that people are most effective when they are able to express each of their human dimensions in the work environment—and that this engagement is fully connected to the success of the organization. In his foreword to Mitroff and Denton's (1999) groundbreaking work in the area of workplace spirituality, Warren Bennis (1999) highlighted their findings that organizations and individuals who perceive that they are more spiritual produce more, are more creative, and are more adaptive. They are energized to perform because work is not just about coffee breaks, vacation time, and stock options. Bennis (cited in Mitroff & Denton) pointed out that these spiritual organizations are enlivened by meaning, wholeness, and in believing that their work is connected to something beyond themselves.

The PIES CAT identifies three levels of enculturation in each of the four dimensions—physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual—with responses color-coded to create a visual presentation that represents the enculturation of the individual member as well as the overall enculturation of the organization as a whole. The tool was structured to contain 60 basic 7-point Likert-type scale questions, 15 exploring each of the four PIES dimensions. The questions are repeated to enable a gap analysis comparison of one's ideal organization to one's perception of current reality, increasing the 60-item questionnaire to 120 total items. Graphically the organization may be represented in a pie chart. Each pie slice represents an individual and is subdivided into four parts to represent each of the dimensions: The outermost of the four sections of the pie slice, and therefore the outermost ring formed in the resulting pie, represents the physical dimension; the next section, the intellectual dimension; the following section, the emotional dimension; and the innermost of the four sections represents the spiritual dimension.

Assembling all the different pie slices into the organizational pie gives a graphic representation of where the organization stands culturally along each of the four dimensions as defined by the tool, both the ideal organization and the current reality as perceived by the members. The colors are borrowed from a typical streetlight. Green represents a favorable reaction to the culture, or positive enculturation along that dimension; yellow represents a neutral zone; and red represents an unfavorable reaction to the culture, or a lack of enculturation along the specific dimension. The neutral zone includes not only the actual neutral category—*neither important nor unimportant* in the section of employee attitudes regarding an ideal organization; and *neither agree nor disagree* in the section of employee attitudes regarding their current organization—but also includes the nearly neutral categories of both *slightly important* and *slightly unimportant* and *slightly agree* and *slightly disagree*. This presentation format provides a user-friendly feature for an organizational leader to obtain an overall visual picture of the attitudes of his or her employees toward an ideal organization as well as their perceived current reality—the gap analysis made visual.

Through research study and subsequent commercial use, the PIES CAT has been found to have a high degree of reliability, and the correlation and regression data analyses demonstrated a strong, positive, and linear relationship between employee commitment and organizational culture when tested together for correlation. Further, the analyses indicated similar strong, positive linear relationships between each of the four dimensions of culture, including the physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual dimensions, and indicated that the combination of all four dimensions produced stronger correlation than any individual dimension.

Exhibit 4.1 lists items that are those currently used in the PIES CAT for organizational culture analysis. Volunteer managers may find it helpful to use a modified version of the tool for understanding their organization's culture from their volunteers' perspective.

EXHIBIT 4.1 **Physical, Intellectual, Emotional, and Spiritual Culture Analysis Tool**

Part 1: The Ideal Workplace

Directions: Please indicate your response to each question with the number that corresponds to your answer according to this key:

1—Not a factor at all; 2—Moderately unimportant; 3—Slightly unimportant; 4—Neither important nor unimportant; 5—Slightly important; 6—Moderately important; 7—Very important

I believe the IDEAL workplace should

1. Be physically pleasant to work in.
2. Allow me to personalize my workspace.
3. Allow me to have a workspace that is respected by other members as my personal space.
4. Have a common space where I can meet informally with colleagues.
5. Have easy accessibility to a pleasant out-of-doors environment.
6. Be flexible enough to accommodate personal emergencies that take me away from my workspace briefly.
7. Offer flexible working hours.
8. Allow me to access my workspace after hours or on weekends.
9. Be maintained at a comfortable temperature.
10. Be free of uncontrolled noise levels.
11. Have employee compensation and benefits that are reasonably competitive with similar organizations.
12. Have employee manuals that are useful as reference tools when I have general organizational questions that apply to everybody.
13. Allow me access to information technology that helps me do my job better.
14. Encourage me to use my vacation time for rest and relaxation, but allow me to "bank" it for later use if I choose.
15. Make visiting guests feel welcomed.
16. Provide learning opportunities to help me do my job better.
17. Provide work that is intellectually stimulating.
18. Give me the opportunity to learn new things.
19. Provide an environment in which I do not find myself watching the clock.
20. Provide work that I like being involved with.
21. Have a management team that has the appropriate business skill to ensure the organization gets the job done while remaining financially healthy.

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 4.1 (*Continued*)

22. Help me to understand the overall mission of the organization.
23. Help me understand the values that my organization holds.
24. Help me understand how my job fits into the big picture of my organization.
25. Encourage me to find ways to improve my performance.
26. Include employees in decision-making activities that affect the organization.
27. Encourage me to be comfortable bringing forward a point that may be critical of the way we do something.
28. Encourage open communications throughout the organization.
29. Help me understand how the work I do contributes to making my organization better.
30. Encourage me to suggest ways for the organization to improve its overall performance.
31. Value the differences among our organization's members.
32. Be so enjoyable that I'd sometimes come in on my own time, or stay late, or work through lunch just because I wanted to, without regard to getting extra pay or compensatory time.
33. Display items on our common walls that are uplifting and inspiring rather than depressing or irrelevant.
34. Make me feel good about being affiliated with our organization.
35. Treat employees without bias regarding race/ethnicity.
36. Treat employees without bias regarding age.
37. Treat employees without bias regarding gender.
38. Treat employees without bias regarding physical capabilities (as appropriate for the job).
39. Encourage and help me be successful in doing my job.
40. Have co-workers that care about me when I have a personal problem.
41. Be managed by people who care about me when I have a personal problem.
42. Have co-workers that pitch in and help each other when someone has a work-related problem.
43. Trust me to determine whether casual or formal business dress is appropriate on any given work day.
44. Have managers that value my contribution to the work of the organization.
45. Encourage mutual respect throughout the organization.
46. Enable me to understand how being a part of this organization helps to make other people's lives better in some way.
47. Encourage me to think creatively when doing my job.
48. Encourage me to do the right thing, not just to do things right.
49. Allow me to practice principles of my own faith without infringing on beliefs of others.
50. Help me grow in knowing and understanding myself better at a deeper level.
51. Encourage me to feel like I'm a contributing part of an interdependent and interrelated team, knowing that I'm helping other team members in one way or another.
52. Encourage me to believe that life holds endless possibilities for people to make a positive difference in the world.
53. Help me to understand that our actions have consequences and we can influence events in ways we may never even be aware of.
54. Encourage me to believe that if I set my mind to doing something, I may be able to accomplish it even if it seems almost impossible.
55. Encourage me to believe that I am on earth to leave the world a better place because of my existence.

EXHIBIT 4.1 **(*Continued*)**

56. Be an integral part of one's life; that is, work should be rewarding, fulfilling, even fun.
57. Have things like ceremonies, events, rituals, or organizational stories that make me feel like I'm part of something special.
58. Encourage me to believe that there is a plan for my life that I may or may not be aware of right now.
59. Encourage me to believe there is some sort of higher power at work in the universe, regardless of the words I may choose to describe it (such as God, Spirit, Source, Allah, the Transcendent, the Divine).
60. Provide work that I may actually feel called by some sort of higher power to do

Please go to the next section and complete the questions as they relate to your current workplace.

Part 2: My Current Workplace

Directions: Please indicate your response to each question with the number that corresponds to your answer according to this key:

1—Strongly disagree; 2—Moderately disagree; 3—Slightly disagree; 4—Neither agree nor disagree; 5—Slightly agree; 6—Moderately agree; 7—Strongly agree

My CURRENT workplace

61. Is physically pleasant to work in.
62. Allows me to personalize my workspace.
63. Provides me a workspace that is respected by other members of the organization as my personal space.
64. Has a common space where I can meet informally with colleagues.
65. Allows me easy accessibility to a pleasant out-of-doors environment.
66. Is flexible enough to accommodate personal emergencies that take me away from my workspace briefly.
67. Offers flexible working hours.
68. Allows me to access my workspace after hours or on weekends.
69. Is maintained at a comfortable temperature.
70. Is free of uncontrolled noise levels.
71. Provides employee compensation and benefits that are reasonably competitive with similar organizations.
72. Has an employee manual that is useful as a reference tool when I have general organizational questions that apply to everybody.
73. Provides me with access to information technology that helps me do my job better.
74. Encourages me to use my vacation time for rest and relaxation, but I'm also able to "bank" it for later use if I choose.
75. Makes visiting guests feel welcomed.
76. Provides me with learning opportunities to help me do my job better.
77. Provides me with work that is intellectually stimulating.
78. Gives me the opportunity to learn new things.
79. Provides an environment in which I do not find myself watching the clock.
80. Provides work that I like being involved with.

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 4.1 (*Continued*)

81. Has a management team that has the appropriate business skill to ensure the organization gets the job done while remaining financially healthy.
82. Helps me to understand the overall mission of my organization.
83. Helps me understand the values that my organization holds.
84. Helps me understand how my job fits into the big picture of my organization.
85. Encourages me to find ways to improve my performance.
86. Includes me in decision-making activities that affect the organization.
87. Encourages me to be comfortable bringing forward a point that may be critical of the way we do something.
88. Encourages open communications throughout the organization.
89. Provides work for me that contributes to making my organization better.
90. Encourages me to suggest ways for the organization to improve its overall performance.
91. Values the differences among our organization's members.
92. Makes me want to come in on my own time, or stay late, or work through lunch just because I want to, without regard to getting extra pay or compensatory time.
93. Displays items on our common walls that are uplifting and inspiring rather than depressing or irrelevant.
94. Makes me feel good about being affiliated with our organization.
95. Treats employees without bias regarding race/ethnicity.
96. Treats employees without bias regarding age.
97. Treats employees without bias regarding gender.
98. Treats employees without bias regarding physical capabilities (as appropriate for the job).
99. Encourages me and helps me be successful in doing my job.
100. Encourages a culture in which my co-workers care about me when I have a personal problem.
101. Encourages a culture in which management cares about me when I have a personal problem.
102. Encourages a culture in which co-workers pitch in and help each other when someone has a work-related problem.
103. Trusts me to determine whether casual or formal business dress is appropriate on any given work day.
104. Values my contribution to the work of the organization.
105. Encourages mutual respect throughout the organization.
106. Helps me understand how my being part of this organization helps to make other people's lives better in some way.
107. Encourages me to think creatively when doing my job.
108. Encourages me to do the right thing, not just to do things right.
109. Allows me to practice principles of my own faith without infringing on beliefs of others.
110. Helps me grow in knowing and understanding myself better at a deeper level.
111. Makes me feel like I'm a contributing part of an interdependent and interrelated team, knowing that I'm helping other team members in one way or another.
112. Encourages me to believe that life holds endless possibilities for people to make a positive difference in the world.
113. Helps me to understand that our actions have consequences and we can influence events in ways we may never even be aware of.

EXHIBIT 4.1 (*Continued*)

114. Encourages me to believe that if I set my mind to doing something, I may be able to accomplish it even if it seems almost impossible.
115. Encourages me to believe that I am on earth to leave the world a better place because of my existence
116. Is an integral part of my life; that is, work is rewarding, fulfilling, even fun.
117. Holds ceremonies, events, rituals, or has organizational stories that make me feel like I'm part of something special.
118. Encourages me to believe that there is a plan for my life that I may or may not be aware of right now.
119. Encourages me to believe there is some sort of higher power at work in the universe, regardless of the words I may choose to describe it (such as God, Spirit, Source, Allah, the Transcendent, the Divine).
120. Provides work that I feel called by a higher power to do.

Monitoring Organizational Culture: A Leadership Responsibility

Leaders at all levels within an organization should familiarize themselves with the concept of culture. It is an important responsibility of leadership to maintain an effective organizational culture, to modify the culture as required, or to effect wholesale transformational change should that become necessary. Culture maintenance and transformation is difficult work, perhaps the most challenging of a leader's responsibilities. In addressing the implications of this era of unprecedented change for the entire field of organizational leadership and management, Morgan (1998) urged leaders to get below the surface of their organizations to understand what is happening at deeper levels, developing and taking their own position rather than depending on flavor-of-the-day trends. He contended that it is a key competency for leaders to read and understand what is happening within their organizations and that it is particularly critical during times of nearly overwhelming change.

Organizational culture is an elusive concept, one that is not easily defined, much less analyzed and measured, and with even greater difficulty treated as a *thing* to be managed, changed, or transformed. Organizational culture, however, is the controlling force enveloping an organization, and this force, or source, contributes to employee commitment, or lack of commitment, as well as to the myriad of consequences associated with employee commitment, both positive and negative. The correlation established between culture and commitment further underscores a culture mandate for leadership. Employee commitment, if it is not *the* most important factor, is one of the most important factors for contemporary organizations, regardless of size or model. Employee commitment is linked to job performance, job satisfaction, absenteeism, personal and organizational values fit, organizational citizenship, intention to leave the organization, and turnover. A decline of employee commitment will have serious negative consequences, and it does not take long for these consequences to show up in organizational behaviors. The commitment and culture relationship is strong. Response to such correlation could be to deny its validity claims, but that reaction would not be prudent for a leader when the future of the organization depends on responsible projections based on accessible information and knowledge. Leaders must arm themselves with information from overall areas needing culture maintenance, modification, or transformation as well as on targeted aspects of culture wherever problems are pinpointed, such as decision making and decision sharing, understanding the value of creating meaning and purpose for employees though the work they do, or on issues of truth and trust.

The responsibility for this learning and for the action that must follow it is part of leadership. Additionally, leaders must remember that the work can be very difficult, prolonged, and may produce high levels of anxiety, in both the organization and the leader. Knowing that many change efforts are doomed to failure, leaders must understand that addressing organizational culture is not for the faint of heart. Learning and acting are matters of the will. Leaders must be willing to ask the questions and sincerely listen to answers that are not always easy to accept; most important, they must be willing to act on the knowledge acquired to promote a culture in which the needs of the employees—physical, intellectual, emotional, and spiritual—are better satisfied.

The PIES CAT is a simple tool, but its simplicity is its potential effectiveness. If used by organizational leaders who have the will and the courage to discern areas that fall short of employee expectations and needs, its simplicity provides the power to propel a leader into action—in one arena or in several. While primarily designed as a diagnostic tool, the PIES CAT, in itself, could be considered an intervention technique, in that its administration sets up an expectation among employees that leadership cares enough to ask the tough questions and, therefore, actually may plan to address the responses and do something. Care must be taken that this expectation is addressed, or the tool's use could breed or further cynicism and doubt in an organization that may already be at risk. More important, however, the PIES CAT is a tool that may identify the need for any number of different interventions or for a multifaceted intervention, one in which various issues are identified within the organization and systematically addressed according to priority order. The PIES CAT does not prescribe a particular intervention; however, it helps an organizational leader understand that intervention is necessary and what kinds of interventions may be necessary. PIES CAT results may run the gamut of necessitating special interventions from organizational systems advisors, such as compensation and benefits specialists, information and technology professionals, and organization development consultants, to human systems advisors, such as conflict management experts, leadership coaches, diversity trainers, burnout and renewal guides, or workplace chaplains. The PIES CAT does not write the prescription, but it does diagnose single issues, multiple issues, related issues, or perhaps whole categories of issues in the various critical dimensions of culture.

While it is the responsibility of organizational leaders to use this information to enable their organization to survive and thrive during times of uncertainty, it is further the responsibility of leadership to do so through the people who believe in the organization's values and goals, who work hard to maintain those organizational values and achieve those organizational goals, and who intend to remain with the organization—the employees who are *committed* to the organization. Viewing their organization's culture through the lens of the four-dimensional perspective of the PIES CAT can assist leaders in fulfilling their responsibility for creating or maintaining the kind of organizational culture that engenders employee commitment.

Implications for Volunteer Resource Managers

There is wisdom to be discerned and applied by volunteer resource managers from the study of organizational culture. While the relationship clearly exists between employee commitment and organizational culture, these findings can also be considered relative to volunteers, the unpaid workers whom nonprofit and public-serving organizations are privileged to mobilize and engage.

Though volunteers may be drawn initially to an organization because of its compelling mission, or through a charismatic leader, or because the job fit seems an ideal match of the skills they have to offer, it will not take long for them to experience the organization's culture. Whether they will choose to accept and strongly believe in the organization's goals and values, whether they will be willing to work hard on behalf of the organization, and whether they will develop a strong desire to stay with the organization will be largely determined by the invisible hand of the organization's culture. The organizational culture can turn them on to the organization, fire them up, and sustain them despite a lack of the obvious benefits that can at least purchase the loyalty component of commitment from paid staff.

Organizational culture can also turn volunteers off quickly, and turn-off soon turns them away to other options, whether other volunteer positions in different organizations or simply other leisure-time options. It is not difficult for people entering an organization to get the feel of how other people are treated, how they feel about their work, and the ways that they respond to each other and to organizational leadership. While some volunteers may work hard in spite of the culture, it is not likely that they will remain either committed or loyal for long unless they are somehow able to compartmentalize what they love about the organization and how they may be negatively perceiving the culture and its impact on them.

This is not to say that subcultures do not exist in organizations. A particularly effective volunteer resource manager may suffer under the effects of an oppressive organizational culture yet produce a subculture into which the volunteer is introduced and happily remains. If the volunteer's function is limited to this subculture, if he or she is protected from a larger culture, it is entirely possible that he or she may stay with the organization, work hard, and support its larger goals and values.

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CHAPTER 5

Maximizing Volunteer Engagement

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One of the most distinctive features of the nonprofit sector is its voluntary nature. Nonprofits do not coerce people to work within the sector nor do they possess the right to mandate the use of their services (Frumkin, 2002). For nonprofit organizations, "free choice is the coin of the realm. Donors give because they choose to do so. Volunteers work of their own volition" (p. 3).

As an unpaid workforce available to further the goals and to help meet an array of needs in resource-constrained organizations, volunteers represent one of the critical competitive advantages of the nonprofit sector. And while public-sector (and, to a much lesser degree, even private-sector) organizations also utilize volunteers, unpaid workers proliferate in the nonprofit sector, where an estimated 80% of organizations report the use of volunteers in service capacities (Hager, 2004).

Despite the idiosyncrasies of volunteer involvement, remarkably few organizations possess the knowledge to maximize this advantage. Equally few nonprofit decision makers understand the basic constructs of volunteer engagement. Likewise, many in top leadership positions do not know what they might expect from an engaged volunteer workforce, nor are they aware of the critical importance of an infrastructure designed to facilitate and support community engagement.

With intentional planning and vision setting, effective volunteer management can maximize volunteer participation; manage diverse volunteer interests and resources; facilitate productive relations among staff, volunteers, and clients; protect organizations against volunteer-related liabilities; and ensure voluntary labor connects with organizations' strategic goals. To reach this goal, organizations must begin by acknowledging the diversity of roles and motivations in their volunteer workforce.

Today's volunteers offer nearly unlimited potential to the agency that is willing to move beyond traditional conceptions of volunteer roles. Several efforts have been made to segment the volunteer population. One is the distinction between *policy* and *service* volunteers discussed by Jeffrey Brudney in Chapter 3. In this context, policy volunteers serve as strategic advisors to a nonprofit, while service volunteers are engaged in the tactical work of the organization. Such segmentation provides a helpful start in refining a definition of volunteers as a group, but still lacks sufficient granularity.

In Chapter 11, Nancy Macduff discusses "episodic" volunteers in contrast to continuous service volunteers and emphasizes that episodic volunteers do not evaporate at the end of their service: Many provide specialized skills on an annual basis. The master of ceremonies for the annual gala, for example, might play that role for decades as his or her only interaction with an organization. The episodic nature of the work does not lessen the value of the involvement or the volunteer's commitment to the organization's mission. Alternatively, an episodic volunteer may offer many hours of service in a short time frame, such as a student's internship over spring break. While these services are time-limited, they still provide valuable resources to nonprofits and should be recognized for the valued investment they are.

These distinctions begin to segment volunteers into categories of similar services. To manage volunteers effectively, nonprofit leaders need to examine the patterns found in these groups of volunteers at a more detailed level. What types of volunteers are most successful with different tasks? How should the work of various volunteers be recognized to reflect their contributions to the organization? What draws these populations of volunteers to their work? How can a nonprofit sustain long-term engagement with a diverse array of volunteers?

To define these groups further, the Volunteer Champions Initiative formulated The Volunteer Involvement Framework™ (see Exhibit 5.1). The Framework takes a broader view of volunteer engagement, considering both the needs of the organization and trends in present-day volunteerism. This perspective correlates the work that needs to be done in an organization with the management strategies needed to support that work and combines it with the volunteers' particular interests, motives, levels of commitment, and time availability. The Framework provides a starting point for examining the organization's current levels of involvement and creates a blueprint for planning for more extensive community input.

Understanding Volunteer Motivations and Trends

Volunteerism is multifaceted. Not only do people serve for a multitude of reasons, today's volunteers serve in a variety of ways and with various expectations for the return on their investment of energy and time. Additionally, not all people who serve without expectation of remuneration gravitate to the term "volunteer." Students may talk about *internships* or *community service* requirements. Teachers may seek *service-learning* opportunities in area nonprofits. Men tend to describe their service by the functions they perform (*coach, trustee*), while women have historically been more connected to the term "volunteer." Theological interpretations of service vary. Some religiously motivated volunteers feel *called to serve,* while others say they are compelled to *live out their faith,* and still others seek to promote *social justice* through service. Professional associations may talk about *public interest* work or pro bono opportunities. The very act of expanding the vocabulary associated with volunteer work opens up new ideas for envisioning service.

Research on volunteerism provides interesting insights. Volunteering in 2009 was at a 30-year high, with a large annual increase over 2008. The bulk of this

EXHIBIT 5.1 **The Volunteer Involvement Framework: Overview of Types of Volunteers**

		← CONNECTION TO SERVICE →	
		Affiliation Focus	Skill Focus
← TIME FOR SERVICE →	Short Term Episodic	**Examples of Service** Corporate days of service with work teams Weekend house-build by a local service club Park clean-up event or trail maintenance Work crew for annual event **Traits of Volunteers** Strong sense of connection to the cause, work group, club, or organization. Generally expects a well-organized event (materials and instructions immediately available to perform task, etc.). May be using service opportunity to investigate a particular organization. May be part of a service group or meeting service requirements of a school, workplace, or club. May have unrealistic/naive expectations about the ability to impact clients or long-term work of the organization. May prefer to identify with their service club or company rather than the nonprofit being served.	**Examples of Service** A one-time audit of an organization's finances by a professional accountant A sports club teaching a youth group a particular skill and hosting youth for an event A person opening his/her home for a fundraiser A student completing a degree requirement. **Traits of Volunteer** Seeks a service opportunity tailored specifically to engage the volunteer's unique skill, talent, or resources. May be any age, although slightly more likely to be adults with higher levels of skills/education. Likely expects mutuality, i.e., a peer-to-peer relationship within the organization (accountant to treasurer; event host to ED; etc.) May seek to negotiate timing of service. Appreciates recognition that is tailored to the unique demands of the position. May prefer to think of self not as a "volunteer" but an intern, pro bono consultant, etc.

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 5.1 (*Continued*)

		← CONNECTION TO SERVICE →	
		Affiliation Focus	Skill Focus
← TIME FOR SERVICE →	Long Term Ongoing	**Examples of Service** Youth mentor Troop leader Sunday School teacher Environmental sustainability advocate Hospice visitor Park host or docent Thrift store manager Auxiliary member or trustee **Traits of Volunteers** Committed to the group or organization and the cause or mission it represents. Often willing to perform any type of work for the cause, from stuffing envelopes to highly sophisticated service delivery. May need specialized training to prepare for the service opportunity (e.g., literacy tutoring, etc.) May feel a special affinity to the organization because of past benefit, family connection, or other personal allegiance. May be any age, although age may segment type of cause most likely championed. May be ideologically motivated (religious, political, environmental, etc.) to champion a cause or issue. Appreciates regular recognition, both formal and informal. Often uses personal pronouns to talk about organization (me, we, us, our) In addition to strong motivations for service, may well be key donor	**Examples of Service** Pro bono legal counsel No-cost medical service by a physician, EMT, nurse, counselor, etc. Volunteer fire fighting Loaned executive Board member **Traits of Volunteers** Similar to the quadrant to the left in commitment. Generally prefers to contribute through skills and training they bring to the cause or organization. May elect to contribute talents through specialized service or may contribute their time through policy and leadership roles such as board governance, visioning, etc. Often expects volunteer management that reflects the cultural norms of the given specialty or skill. Often combines their talent with dedication to the cause, although the talent brought to the cause may supersede an allegiance to the mission. May have historical ties to the organization or cause and/or may have a family member (or self) who has benefited from the services of organization. Expects staff support, assistance with resources necessary to the job, and recognition for work performed.

EXHIBIT 5.2 The Volunteer Involvement Framework: Considerations for Managing Volunteers

		← CONNECTION TO SERVICE →	
		Affiliation Focus	Skill Focus
← TIME FOR SERVICE →	Short Term Episodic	**Necessary Volunteer Manager Traits** Good project leader with solid planning and project-management skills, attention to detail Strong interpersonal skills: diplomatic, flexible, and accessible Should be a good spokesperson for the cause: knowledgeable and passionate Has time to interface with group liaisons **Other Considerations** Collect contact information on volunteers to follow up with other service and giving opportunities Consider rotating management task among existing staff members who meet qualifications (but be sure at least one person is maintaining oversight, centralized records) Budget adequate funds for project-related resources including refreshments for work groups and possible recognition memorabilia	**Necessary Volunteer Manager Traits** Strong human resources skills, respect for volunteer and job-sculpting expertise Marketing skills to lead targeted recruitment effort; should be able to tell the organization's story and to relate the specific task to your mission Flexible, with willingness to adapt a project to volunteer's expectations and time constraints Open and available for follow-up and able to monitor progress collaboratively **Other Considerations** These volunteers expect to be treated as respected equals, not as subordinates Nonprofit should be open to sharing relevant information as the volunteer gains knowledge of the agency, earns trust, and prepares for the task

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 5.2 (*Continued*)

		← CONNECTION TO SERVICE →	
		Affiliation Focus	Skill Focus
← TIME FOR SERVICE →	Long Term Ongoing	**Necessary Volunteer Manager Traits** Has significant time to devote to volunteers Is knowledgeable about overall organization and its future direction Has strong interpersonal and organizational skills and genuinely likes people Continuity of leadership and institutional history helpful **Other Considerations** These volunteers require a comprehensive volunteer infrastructure (e.g., dedicated staff person with not less than 20 hours per week dedicated to working with volunteers) Budget to cover necessary program expenses (e.g., volunteer expense reimbursement, regular recognition, etc.)	**Necessary Volunteer Manager Traits** Usually the management person most closely aligned with volunteer's (or volunteer committee's) skill area must oversee work **Other Considerations** As with quadrant on the left, dedicate considerable infrastructure to support these efforts (including necessary time and attention of executive director and/or board members) Allocate time for personal staff interactions with skilled volunteers to support their efforts and to learn from their observations Mechanisms to keep volunteers in the organizational informational loop and resources to ensure an appropriate work station, expense reimbursement, and recognition are critical

increase was in women between 45 and 54 years of age who are married and employed. Together with other volunteers, they constitute a workforce numbering more than 63 million. Volunteering increases with higher employment rates, and is lower in areas with higher poverty rates.

Some researchers find even higher levels of engagement. For example, according to Independent Sector (2001), when all volunteer involvement is accounted for—not only in charitable organizations but also in religious groups, schools, communities, and informal neighborhood groups—the total unpaid labor contribution climbs even higher. Estimates of the value of volunteer labor suggest the United States benefits from the equivalent of $239 billion of unpaid staff time or the equivalent of a full-time workforce of 7.2 million employees (Wing, Pollak, & Blackwood, 2008). (For specific information about volunteering in your community, Volunteering in America offers excellent state- and city-level data at its interactive Web site: www.VolunteeringInAmerica.gov).

Volunteers continue to be more well educated, more likely to have families, and more socially connected than the population as a whole. They also have distinct interests and needs. For example:

- *Episodic volunteer opportunities.* Those with limited time but an interest in doing service on a temporary basis are being drawn to events such as daylong house-builds with Habitat for Humanity, community park trail maintenance days, or special vacations featuring "voluntourism" away from home.
- *Service linked to the private sector.* Corporations and business groups, working to bolster their community involvement, do so by participating in programs to "adopt a" school or stretch of highway, complete a "day of service," create technological brain trusts for nonprofits in need, or encourage employees to join self-guided "hands-on" service opportunities, often facilitated by a local volunteer center or United Way.
- *Youth and student service.* Students competing to build their resumes and enhance their college applications are motivated to help their communities, frequently spending long hours in unpaid internships, engaging in service-learning or participating in service clubs and youth groups.
- *Opportunities for those who have left the labor force.* The most educated group of retirees in history—as well as the growing number of adults having children later in life, who may have left the workforce temporarily but seek to apply their knowledge in giving back—are increasingly available to devote their skills, time, and resources to volunteering.
- *Virtual volunteer work.* While we generally think of volunteering done in person and on-site, today's technologically inclined volunteers also find ways to contribute service via the Internet. These virtual volunteers, like persons appearing at the office, may be willing to perform a one-time service (e.g., revise an organization's Web site) or to sign on for an extended time commitment, such as serving as an online mentor.

From all these trends emerges a picture of a national community of volunteers poised to provide talent, labor, and opportunity to any organizational leader savvy enough to capture this workforce and capitalize on that which drives their service.

Understanding the changing face of volunteers in America as well as the top motivations for volunteering provides an essential foundation for applying the Volunteer Involvement Framework strategically to maximize volunteer contributions.

The Volunteer Involvement Framework

The Volunteer Involvement Framework captures contemporary themes in volunteer engagement and organizes this information for prioritizing and decision-making purposes. The tool—developed with assistance from nonprofit leaders—enables executive-level decision makers to identify their current volunteer-engagement practices, examine additional service possibilities, and identify appropriate staffing and other management considerations. The Framework guides agency leaders as they set organizational direction, providing a useful visual schematic that helps organize strategic thinking about volunteer engagement. In short, the Framework examines the full range of options available for creating a volunteer-engagement system tailored to meet the unique needs of nonprofit organizations.

The Framework is a simple two-by-two matrix. The horizontal "connection" columns distinguish between the two predominant orientations of volunteers currently in the marketplace. The first of these is the "affiliation-oriented" volunteer. This person gravitates to a service opportunity in order *to associate* him- or herself—with the cause or the mission or purpose of the organization, or with the group or network of friends engaged in the service. For these volunteers, the orientation to the type of nonprofit, or the friends or colleagues with whom they will serve, is of greater significance than the type of work being done. By contrast, the "skill-oriented" volunteer, represented in the rightmost column, is a person who is more likely to express an interest in or a connection with the *type of work performed* as a volunteer. This person views the skills that he or she brings to service as paramount and wants to offer this specialized expertise to the organization.

The vertical "time" dimension of the matrix captures the person's availability for service. The top row represents a *short-term* service commitment. "Short term" may indicate a short stint of service (volunteering that occurs over a determined number of hours in one day or weekend), or it may suggest a specific, time-limited focus, where the volunteer signs on for a specific project that is limited in nature (although the project may occur on an annual or some other recurring basis). This volunteer is frequently called an episodic volunteer. The bottom row of the framework represents the person who agrees to serve on a regular, *ongoing* basis, potentially making a *long-term* service commitment.

In the sample Framework in Exhibit 5.1, each quadrant contains examples of voluntary service that typify that area of volunteer experience, followed by a synopsis of the more common traits and motivations for service. Despite the boundaries to be discussed, it is worth noting that the Framework's four quadrants are not mutually exclusive and that the distinctions between them are fluid, flexible, and permeable. A volunteer may elect to serve in all four ways over a lifetime. Likewise, an agency or organization will want to examine opportunities for service that fall within each quadrant, thereby providing a maximum level of flexibility when recruiting volunteers.

In the remainder of this chapter, the Framework serves as a basis for conceptualizing a sustainable volunteer engagement program in four stages:

1. *Understanding volunteer motivations and trends.* Looking at the research on who volunteers are and what drives them
2. *Creating a vision for volunteer engagement.* Thinking broadly about the four quadrants and how to plan for them
3. *Maximizing your investment in volunteers.* Management/personnel strategies and a process for moving from vision to reality
4. *Minimizing challenges and embracing opportunities.* Advice and resources that address executive directors' top concerns about volunteer engagement

This chapter and its references contain resources to assist with further development of a specific community-engagement program, including online tools and assessments. Additionally, Exhibit 5.4 (at the end of the chapter), which contains a worksheet for notes on an organization's particular use of and/or plans for volunteers, allows for customization of The Volunteer Involvement Framework to meet an organization's needs.

Developing a Vision for Volunteer Engagement

Identifying who volunteers is only one step of a larger process—a process that, in fact, does not begin with recruiting volunteers. Instead, the process begins with an internal assessment and analysis of your organization. Giving forethought to how and where volunteers fit within your organization's larger mission, and how a vision for volunteer engagement fits with other strategic goals, creates a solid foundation for success. What follows is a template for planning or for reassessing your volunteer-engagement strategy.[1]

Step 1: Begin with an Open Mind

An important precursor to vision setting is an examination of biases. Nonprofit leaders sometimes get stuck in modes of thinking that limit the possibilities of volunteers within their organizations. A key ground rule for guiding your analysis is to remember that *there are no tasks volunteers cannot do.* A person with the requisite skills, abilities, licenses, training, and time can perform any job. Medical personnel volunteer their time at clinics performing all the duties ascribed by their training; attorneys perform pro bono work on a regular basis; trained community members serve as firefighters, auxiliary police, and poll workers without pay; some nonprofits are run by full-time, nonsalaried executive directors. The list is endless. While it is certainly true that few people have this level of extended

[1] For a more detailed accounting of executive leadership in volunteerism, see S. J. Ellis, *From the Top Down: The Executive Role in Volunteer Program Success* (Philadelphia, PA: Energize, Inc., 1996), which served as a key source in the development of this chapter.

time to contribute, the fact is that a person may do any job, and perform equally to those with a salary, on a volunteer basis—provided an organization's leadership is open to such limitless possibilities.

Likewise, *people from all walks of life volunteer.* Overlooking any segment of the community unnecessarily closes a door to possible volunteers. Keep in mind that some of the nation's most active volunteers include senior citizens, not to mention the contributions of people with disabilities, people with limited incomes, parents of young children, and even children themselves—any of whom may be willing to serve in a variety of capacities, from hands-on frontline assistance to policy development and board service. When it comes to working with young volunteers, child labor laws do *not* preclude young people from volunteering (Ellis, Weisbord, & Noyes, 2003), so nonprofits frequently engage even elementary students in age-appropriate endeavors on behalf of organizations. Research tells us that young people, particularly those who volunteer with members of their family, become lifelong volunteers (Musick & Wilson, 2008; Rehnborg, Fallon, & Hinerfeld, 2002). Thus, engaging families and youth can help provide a vital community resource for years to come.

Step 2: Include Staff and Board in the Process

Comprehensive community-engagement initiatives benefit greatly from the input and active planning of key stakeholders and staff. One of the best ways to prevent resistance to volunteers is to include staff and board members in the planning process from the beginning. Including staff in the planning process enables employees to explore the nuances of service and helps to prepare them to expand their reach through volunteers. And board members, themselves volunteers, may fail to see the connection between their type of governance or policy volunteering and the more direct-service opportunities offered to other volunteers. The planning process acts an exercise in staff/board development, leading these key stakeholders to begin thinking strategically about volunteers, to articulate a shared language around community engagement, and to explore how volunteers fit within the organization's core values and mission. Thus, engagement becomes not just about the community outside of the organization but also an exercise in building internal community.

Step 3: Take Stock

Because volunteer engagement does not exist in a vacuum, plans for community involvement should be integrated within the existing strategic plan for your organization's future direction. The most important question to ask when contemplating a community-engagement initiative is: What is the work that must be done to achieve the mission and goals of our organization? Asking this question ensures that volunteer opportunities fit within the overall objectives of the organization and the plan for moving forward. Additionally, the question benefits volunteers, who surely care whether their time and talents make a difference. Volunteers thrive when they can see that the work they perform is central to the organization: work that impacts the organization's bottom line—its mission.

Step 4: Move from Vision to Logistical Reality

Practice wisdom tells us that there are four keys to making a plan or system operational:

1. A vision that guides the plan
2. Clear targets for progress (i.e., goals and objectives for action)
3. A qualified person responsible for overseeing the plan
4. The allocation of financial resources to support the plan

The vision for the plan emerged through your planning process. In examining opportunities for community engagement, the planning committee identified ideas that fit the needs and concerns of the organization. Look back at that stage of development and see if any underlying themes or ideas emerged that guided your decision making. Capturing those concerns succinctly and framing them into a guiding vision or philosophy is important. This guiding vision should be developed into a strategy or mission statement for community engagement, or some other brief document that is circulated and made widely available. This document will provide direction and serve as a touchstone when important decisions need to be made.

From that statement of vision, a set of clear goals to achieve should flow naturally. By creating measurable statements of intent, including short-term objectives and long-term anticipated outcomes, the planning committee will define the nature of the work to be accomplished. This exercise of refining priorities and goals will present an opportunity for staff and board to weigh in with a reality check: Where will the resources come from to support these objectives? Who will shepherd the civic-engagement initiative through its various stages?

Selecting a point person to drive the volunteer-engagement effort is critical, ensuring it becomes *someone's* responsibility to move your plan to action. This person will need to be someone who enjoys full support and assistance as this new venture takes shape. Additionally, the person must be given the time to undertake the work. Effective community engagement programs—even small efforts—take time. To be effective in this role, your point person either must be engaged to take on this effort or must be relieved of other duties so that he or she can invest the time necessary to achieve the important end results.

Finally, your action plan should include a budget, inclusive of not only the dollars but other costs to your organization of working with volunteers. These may include staff time, facilities, supplies, and equipment required to facilitate involvement. Weigh how your nonprofit will accommodate the fact that increased numbers of volunteers equates to increased numbers of people in your organization—people who take up space, often need to use computers, may want to drink coffee, and *will* want to park their cars. Such creature comforts alone will not attract volunteers to your nonprofit, but the absence of them can assuredly lead to poor volunteer retention. Also select appropriate lines of communication, set up databases, and determine appropriate screening procedures. Touching on these types of logistics with the planning team *before* embarking on a new volunteer recruitment initiative can save numerous headaches down the road.

Step 5: Benchmark Others' Successes with Volunteers

Where model program for volunteers exist, it is worth exploring opportunities for replication in systems, approaches, training, and more. Consider looking for examples of volunteer engagement from similar nonprofits, particularly those that have achieved successes with volunteers. Such benchmarking could set up opportunities for collaboration while also preventing the organization from reinventing the wheel if an existing template fits the agency's needs.

Additionally, staff will seek a template for volunteer engagement. It may be necessary to dedicate some professional development and training time to this topic, or staff simply may look to the executive team to model effective volunteer involvement. Leadership should model commitment to the plan. Staff will perceive not only what working with volunteers may require of them (investments of time, certain behavioral modifications, etc.) but also the potential payoffs for taking work with volunteers seriously.

Step 6: Decide How You Will Measure Success

Setting up metrics to evaluate the success of community-engagement efforts can prove complex, but several tools exist to provide support. These metrics can help an organization determine whether the anticipated outcomes of the volunteer-engagement initiative were met and provide the data that will make the case for continued support for your efforts to board members, funders, and other stakeholders.

- *Quantitative measures*

  Databases can be programmed to track not only the number of volunteers and their hours spent in service but also whether their service correlates with other important outcomes. (For example: Are they raising the public profile of the organization? Are they donating, attending events, or becoming members in addition to giving their time? Has the agency been able to serve more clients or provide more effective or comprehensive service because of volunteers? Has volunteers' service secured matching cash contributions from their employers contingent on hours of service? Have they referred others to the nonprofit? Have they increased their service over time or begun serving in new capacities, perhaps making the shift from episodic volunteers to ongoing volunteers, or adding new skills within the time they give? Have they opened doors with funders or other potential donors?) Such metrics can become part of the agency dashboard, referred to regularly in staff meetings, board discussions, and annual reports.
- *Financial measures*

  Another quantitative approach is to determine the organization's return on investment by placing a value on volunteers' time. Several methods for this exist (e.g., comparing the work to its average wage in the marketplace, accounting for the opportunity cost of volunteers' time, etc.). Resources for conducting volunteer valuation can be found online at The RGK Center's research center www.rgkcenter.org/research/past, including an article, "Placing a Value on Volunteer Time" (2005), that outlines several tools available to nonprofit leaders.

- *Qualitative measures*

  Scheduling exit interviews or after-action reports with volunteers who have completed a significant project or service commitment provides precious information. Meet with staff supervisors or board members engaged in the action to process the outcomes, and think about surveying your volunteers periodically or holding casual focus groups to garner their input. Report volunteer involvement successes and highlight accomplishments in the organizational newsletter, reports to funders, Web site content, and elsewhere, and clip press reports about the agency, watching for the presence of volunteers. Community involvement often helps to garner positive attention in the community and provides positive public relations for your nonprofit.

Managing the Volunteer Investment

Just as thoughtful, careful planning is necessary for any level of volunteer involvement, so, too, are resources to do the job, including funds and staff time. Numerous studies have found that—"free" labor, notwithstanding—the old adage *you get what you pay for* applies to volunteer programs (Adalpe et al., 2006; Grantmaker Forum on Community and National Service, 2003; Hager, 2004; Rehnborg et al., 2002). The bottom line is this: The more energy and resources nonprofits expend in community-engagement initiatives, the greater their return on the investment.

The level and extent of a volunteer-engagement initiative determines the staffing complement. Utilizing The Volunteer Involvement Framework grid shown in Exhibit 5.2, we examine the traits of each quadrant and the resultant management recommendations. Keep in mind that volunteer-engagement initiatives that span the grid will require greater levels of management resources.

A Question of Management and Staffing

Making the decision to hire a new person on either a full- or part-time basis is always complex and requires careful analysis. Because volunteers generally work for no pay, many nonprofits initially assume that the leadership of the program can also be secured without a paycheck. In her excellent treatment of the subject of when to pay for help and when to engage volunteers for a task, Ellis (1996) notes that, while volunteers' *qualifications* can be equal to or beyond that of staff in every way, providing a paycheck serves four critical functions: "Offering a salary gives the agency a predetermined number of work hours per week, the right to dictate the employee's work schedule, a certain amount of control over the nature and priorities of the work to be done, and continuity" (p. 12). Thus, handling a significant workforce of volunteers (and especially if those volunteers serve over a long period of time and perform highly skilled work) likely requires the sort of availability and commitment that an organization usually finds in a *paid* staff member.

Once the commitment has been made to hire for the position, some executive directors look to fill a volunteer manager opening from within the ranks of existing volunteers. The underlying assumption—that someone committed to serving your nonprofit would welcome the opportunity to come on board in exchange for a paycheck—sometimes misunderstands the challenges inherent in moving from *being* a volunteer to *managing* other volunteers. Having a clear job description and laying out the necessary skills and aptitudes of the job is essential. An excellent resource on volunteer management, which includes sample job descriptions for the position, can be found on Idealist.org in its Volunteer Management Resource Center section. See www.idealist.org/info/VolunteerMgmt

Position justification is a concern frequently raised by executive directors. Historically, most nonprofit organizations emerged from the work of a committed group of volunteers who championed a cause. As the work grew, the founding board sought funds to hire a leader for the organization, a person with the time and the expertise needed to take the group to its next level of functioning: the executive director. The same rationale applies to the position of volunteer manager. Investing time and resources in a talented volunteer manager will yield valuable returns.

Minimizing Challenges, Embracing Opportunities

Few volunteer leaders will openly cast aspersions on the dedication of volunteers or the virtues of community involvement, yet benign acceptance can also mask serious reservations, if not outright hostility, toward volunteers. This section of the chapter addresses some of the more common issues in volunteer engagement, presenting some of the challenges and opportunities inherent in community-engagement activities.

The opportunities, challenges, and liability considerations for service projects within each of the quadrants are captured in the Framework shown in Exhibit 5.3. Although the concerns vary by the dimensions of the quadrant, a few considerations are universal.

Liability

In today's litigious society, nonprofit organizations need to be careful, thoughtful, and thorough in any project they undertake, ensuring proper consideration of risk management and liability. Although a thorough risk-assessment analysis is beyond the scope of this chapter, nonprofits would be well advised to exercise for volunteers the same caution advocated for client care and general staff protection for positions of equal responsibility. A well-managed program should include up-to-date records and well-documented personnel files, noting all trainings attended and reference checks conducted, as well as the results of these reference checks. In addition, a comprehensive community-engagement program should include a policies and procedures document that outlines regulations pertaining to volunteer/client contact within and outside of the work setting; expectations for uses of personal vehicles and levels of personal insurance required if client transportation is anticipated; procedures on how to handle injuries received during the course of service; and any other guidelines that would be instituted for staff serving in similar positions. A comprehensive orientation to volunteer work provides an opportunity to share this information with volunteers.

Insurance is available for volunteers operating within the regulations of a formal organization. The low cost of this coverage suggests the relative safety of such undertakings; nonetheless, an exploration of available options is important. For an example

EXHIBIT 5.3 The Volunteer Involvement Framework: Weighing Opportunities, Challenges, and Risks

		← CONNECTION TO SERVICE →	
		Affiliation Focus	Skill Focus
← TIME FOR SERVICE →	Short Term Episodic	**Opportunities** Can help promote organization, spread message, and build mailing list Ideal for accomplishing short-term, intensive work to grounds or building May use in database for advocacy, fundraising, or volunteer recruitment **Challenges** Not always possible to provide client-oriented service Considerable advance planning required to ensure that materials are available for large-scale service projects Requires flexible schedule for staff leadership **Liability** Dependent on service project selected; best to notify insurance carrier of the date May require an event rider on agency policy	**Opportunities** Great way to secure important assistance not otherwise available Ideal training ground for more intensive service (e.g., committee, task force, or board work as well as work in long-term quadrant) Worthy addition to agency database May use service opportunity to evaluate person for possible employment **Challenges** Poorly handled service opportunity may harm organization's reputation Project preparation can be time consuming, may require considerable up-front support If an internship, may require supervisor with same training background May be a cover for a job search; if unemployed and finds a job, may leave volunteer assignment unfinished **Liability** Dependent on service project; investigate need for appropriate background check

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 5.3 (*Continued*)

		← CONNECTION TO SERVICE →	
		Affiliation Focus	Skill Focus
← TIME FOR SERVICE →	Long Term Ongoing	**Opportunities** Strong mission-based, consequential outcomes likely Worthy addition to agency database Mechanisms for volunteer input strongly recommended, as can improve programs Capable, informed advocates for organization **Challenges** Volunteers may become overinvested in work of organization and make demands Effective implementation time consuming Ongoing oversight important; dedicated volunteer management staff recommended Staff buy-in essential Volunteers need to be given voice in organization's operations that affect them, informed of important changes, and updated on progress on key objectives **Liability** Check requirements for appropriate background checks; should be performed if volunteer works with vulnerable clients. Should carry some form of liability policy May need to offer mileage or other forms of expense reimbursement	**Opportunities** High performer eager to further organization's work Brings critical skill set to meet agency's needs Strong representative in the community, likely to be an able advocate May prove to be an able recruiter or orientation leader for new volunteers May be an early retiree eager to be meaningfully involved If not on the board, may be considered for board position **Challenges** Volunteer may need care and attention, including dedicated workstation and computer and direct line to chief operating officer/executive director Other staff and volunteers must be knowledgeable about this person's role and open to engaging him/her in deliberations that will affect given area of work Generally, there are more volunteers eager for these types of assignments than nonprofits ready to engage them May perceive that he/she can fix the agency **Liability** If behaviors prove problematic, may require formal honor and retirement to move individual out of service Should strongly consider directors' and officers' insurance

of such coverage, see www.cimaworld.com/htdocs/volunteers.cfm. Intermediary organizations for nonprofits and large nation organizations with numerous affiliates frequently offer support and information about liability and risk management as it pertains to volunteer involvement. Another particularly useful resource for non-profit organizations is the Nonprofit Risk Management Center, based in Leesburg, VA, which offers a host of references and useful articles (nonprofitrisk.org/library/articles/insurance052004.shtml).

While precautions and risk assessment are wise, overestimating the risk associated with volunteers can create undue burdens. It is generally unnecessary to do criminal background checks—or even reference checks—for most volunteers participating in one-time group events or in positions unrelated to contact with vulnerable clients. Allow the complexity of the assigned task to dictate risk-management measures, and drop any that add unnecessary bureaucracy and obstacles to service. As always, however, check with legal counsel or insurance provider to determine the right line of action for the organization.

Record Keeping

Effective nonprofit management includes accounting for and supporting the agency's volunteers. Each volunteer's involvement serving the organization should be a matter of record. Set up the organization's database and paperwork so that records of volunteer involvement not only capture the information to protect against liability but also to provide needed data to evaluate the success of the program. (For support in developing record-keeping systems, see Ellis & Noyes, 2003.)

Data recorded about volunteers' service will depend not only on the requirements of the organization but also those of the volunteer and the agency's stakeholders. For example, a student fulfilling an educational requirement (service-learning or course requirement) or volunteering to meet licensure requirements for a particular profession will require certain documentation of involvement in the organization. Additionally, insurance carriers may require particular data-keeping practices to cover a volunteer in the event of injury. Funders may accept volunteer service as part of a match requirement and sometimes have their own reporting requirements on volunteer involvement.

Dismissal

While it is true that occasionally volunteers do not work out, such problems are fortunately rare. A well-managed program is the best prevention from contentious volunteer relationships. When volunteers have well-developed position descriptions; have been capably screened, oriented, and trained for the position they will fulfill; and are given adequate staff support and recognition, programs generally run smoothly. However, it is true that, once in a while, a volunteer may need to be dismissed. *(Yes, volunteers can be fired!)*

As with staff, this situation is never pleasant, in spite of its periodic necessity. Some excellent online resources provide detailed information about the process of dismissing volunteers (McCurley, 1993; Rehnborg, 1995). They are available online at:

www.serviceleader.org/new/managers/2005/07/000270.php
www.casanet.org/program-management/volunteer-manage/fire.htm

Problem volunteers should not be tolerated, nor should the specter of this problem deter leaders from involving volunteers. Many situations where volunteers stray from expected protocol are motivated more by ignorance than intent. In the process of gathering the information that appears in this chapter, an executive director told of a situation where her nonprofit organization accidentally "inherited" the problem volunteer of a sister agency. When the aberrant behaviors commenced at the new agency, the executive director brought the volunteer in to discuss the situation. The genuinely shocked volunteer had mistakenly assumed that her behavior was what was expected, and she was mortified to learn that she had been such a cause for concern. The woman grew to become one of the new agency's most critical supporters and strongest workers—not its greatest nemesis. Yes, volunteers can be dismissed, but volunteers also deserve the courtesy of attention and redirection before drastic measures are taken.

Volunteer/Staff Ratios

There are no specific rules that determine a standard volunteer/staff ratio or that trigger when a volunteer manager needs to go from a half-time to a full-time position. Likewise, volunteer hours are not a good proxy to develop equations translating part-time volunteer positions to full-time-equivalent standards for supervision formulas. Working with eight volunteers each giving five hours of service weekly (40 hours of total service per week) is significantly more time intensive from a supervision standpoint than working with a single individual providing an equal amount of time.

We do know however, that more intensive volunteer expectations require greater staff support and closer supervision. For example, the Court Appointed Special Advocate program standards specify 1 supervisor to 30 volunteers (National CASA Association, 2006). For supervision purposes, the San Francisco Recreation and Park Department Volunteer Policy Guide (n.d.) recommends one gardener to 15 volunteers. Neither number however, indicates the staffing complement of the volunteer office that recruits and prepares these people for service. Each organization must examine its own goals, activities, and workload in volunteer engagement and decide accordingly about volunteer management staffing. Benchmarking with other programs in similar areas of service may provide insight about appropriate staffing levels and expectations.

Volunteer/Staff Relations

Almost any new or changed undertaking naturally is met with resistance. Dramatically ramping up a community engagement program may cause staff to raise concerns about already overwhelming workloads, job security, the qualifications of the volunteers, the timing of the decision, or roles that community members may assume. Following the steps outlined in this chapter will address many of these issues. The next pointers may also help.

- *Form a committee of staff and other stakeholders to assist with planning and implementation of the community engagement initiative.* A willingness to listen carefully to the demands of existing personnel will go a long way in developing their receptivity to the new venture. Consider if all of their concerns are founded, but certainly those that are need to be addressed during the planning process.

- *Help staff members consider the service they have performed, and relate their experiences as volunteers to their work as staff who will now interact with volunteers.* No one wants their time wasted, nor are we eager to be treated poorly. Personalizing the volunteer experience helps staff to regard the new workforce positively.
- *Orient staff to expectations.* Not only should staff members be expected to work within the guidelines of appropriate expectations, but they also should be rewarded for doing so. When recognizing volunteers, thank the staff who supported them too. Connect merit raises and other bonuses to this expectation, as with other job requirements.
- *Inform staff about the expectations and reality of the volunteer workforce.* The vast majority of people offering to serve are eager to help—they are not there to take jobs or to assume 40-hour-a-week responsibilities. Provide staff members with an update on who is volunteering as well as how they can become valued members of your organization's team.

For additional resources on this topic, check out www.energizeinc.com/art/subj/emp.html.

Conclusion

Organizations benefit from expanding their conceptualization of volunteering to examine the complex interplay between the needs and goals of the organization or cause being served and the concerns and expectations of the people potentially delivering service. Organized on the dual axes of time and connection to service, The Volunteer Involvement Framework highlights the complexity as well as the richness of volunteers as a resource.

Using the Framework, one can envision relations with a diverse array of potential volunteers: people who share the same broad goal—to make a difference—but see it from a number of distinct individual perspectives. As demonstrated here, making a difference can occur when one serves a cause one believes in, offers a valued skill, and/or acts as part of a network that holds some personal significance.

Responding to volunteers' specialized perspectives not only leads to more meaningful experiences for the volunteer but also creates opportunities for you, as a nonprofit leader. Capitalizing on volunteer resources, even those generated through short-term contacts such as "days of caring" events, can later lead to a cadre of community supporters: people who know about the organization, value its services, and may support the mission in an ongoing way. Even brief encounters can build mailing lists, tell a story, recruit more volunteers, and meet new contacts in key organizations for collaboration. However, none of this will occur without consciously segmenting volunteer contacts, planning for effective volunteer engagement, providing resources to ensure positive volunteer involvement, and targeting volunteer audiences to build support for the organization.

Consider the options the Framework presents when planning for volunteer engagement, noting not only the opportunities for volunteer support but also the various management expectations associated with service in each of the four quadrants. Also, capture sufficient information about community participants to understand all of the ways in which they might be available and willing to support the organization.

No framework, regardless of how thoroughly conceptualized, is a substitute for getting to know the unique needs and concerns of your particular individual volunteers. A highly skilled, powerful business executive may want nothing more than to plant flowers that beautify an urban area or volunteer with his dog, visiting seniors in a nursing home. Likewise, an arborist may relish the opportunity to create a database for your organization and use a skill set only marginally connected to her workplace. The wants and needs of volunteers vary over time. Respecting the time and service interest of volunteers turns community members into partners jointly committed to an organization's success.

Worksheet: Assessing Current Patterns of Volunteer Engagement

Utilize the grid in Exhibit 5.4 first to capture the ways in which volunteers are currently engaged (remember to include the board of directors). Next, fill in the grid with ideas for how volunteers might engage in the organization's future work.

EXHIBIT 5.4 The Volunteer Involvement Framework Worksheet

		← CONNECTION TO SERVICE →	
		Affiliation Focus	**Skill Focus**
← TIME FOR SERVICE →	Short Term		
	Ongoing		

Also, assess the effectiveness of your current situation. Where are volunteers most helpful? How are they managed and supported? How effectively does staff work with volunteers?

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CHAPTER 6

Assessment, Planning, and Staffing Analysis

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When considering whether to develop a volunteer program for the first time, organizational assessment, thoughtful planning, and an examination of the roles volunteers can play are important considerations. This chapter focuses on these three areas and provides key considerations for organizations undertaking this work.

Major Organizational Benefits and Challenges of Having a Volunteer Program

For any organization that legally incorporates as a nonprofit entity, volunteers are part of the landscape. In order to complete the incorporation process, a board of directors needs to be identified. Board members are volunteers serving without compensation for their services and provide the key oversight functions that state law requires. Many organizations choose to go well beyond this most essential and basic volunteer corps and develop a full-blown volunteer program.

One of the key steps a nonprofit organization can take in its development is to determine if a volunteer program is appropriate for the organization. Taking the time to thoughtfully weigh the benefits and challenges associated with developing, implementing, and supporting a volunteer program is critical. Once it is determined that a volunteer program is in the organization's best interest, thoughtful planning and an ongoing commitment of support of human, financial, and strategic resources can lead to long-term success.

A scan of literature from the field notes a variety of benefits to nonprofits that can be derived from a structured volunteer engagement program. Major advantages include:

- Advancement of the nonprofit's mission related work through volunteer assistance
- Creation or enhancement of the organization's public image in community through volunteer stories generated by the organization and through engaged volunteers sharing their stories with others
- Enhancement of the ability to raise additional resources, both human and financial
- Extension of the work that is accomplished by paid staff, including provision of direct services to clients of an organization, especially within an all-volunteer organization where volunteers serve as the staff
- Accomplishment of projects or events that would otherwise not happen
- Opportunity to bring new energy and talents to the organization on an ongoing basis

First and foremost is the opportunity to advance the mission of the organization. Regardless of the role in which volunteers are serving, their time and efforts can support and propel the mission work of the organization forward. Whether serving on the board of directors, speaking with donors as part of a fundraising effort, planning a special event to raise additional resources, or working directly with clients/consumers, each of these roles supports the overall mission of the organization.

Nonprofits are businesses, and meeting business objectives is equally as important as meeting the mission. In a report from the UPS Foundation, entitled *A Guide to Investing in Volunteer Resources Management,* it was noted that effective volunteer involvement supports business objectives, such as establishing a brand identity, creating loyalty and community goodwill as well as leveraging additional resources of people and money from the corporate and grant-giving sectors (Association for Volunteer Administration [AVA] & UPS Foundation, 2005).

Increasing the visibility of an organization with current and potential stakeholders is critical to increasing a donor base. Effectively involved volunteers become ambassadors to the larger community sharing their experiences and support for an organization. This in turn can recruit other volunteers and donors of all types and give the organization a competitive advantage.

Research also shows that volunteers are more likely to become donors themselves as a natural outgrowth of their satisfying involvement with an organization or cause. According to the 2009 Fidelity Charitable Gift Fund study, Americans who volunteer their time and skills to nonprofit organizations also donate an average of ten times more money to charity than people who do not volunteer. In addition, two-thirds of respondents who volunteered in the last 12 months reported that they donate ten times more money than nonvolunteers, that they donate to the same charities where they are volunteering, and that they are likely to increase their charitable donations in the future.

Raising adequate resources to support the operations of a nonprofit of any size can be a challenge. Through volunteer involvement, an organization often can accomplish more without increasing the money needed for programs and other activities. A nonprofit can also increase its in-kind resources by capturing the value of the time and talents donated throughout the course of an event, program delivery, or fiscal year.

Currently, the average dollar value of volunteers is calculated at $20.85 per hour with adjustments for state variations ranging from $11.06 to $28.52 (Independent Sector, 2009). Tracking this information not only recognizes the value of volunteers to an organization but can attract additional resources. A successful volunteer program can attract increased donor contributions and grants of all types, including those that may come through the involvement of volunteers who work for corporations with charitable dollars to give. Funders often see the ability of volunteers to provide new or expanded services for the organization as an increase in the return on their investment.

Volunteers can also augment services provided by staff of the organization. Depending on the type of services provided and the expertise required, a well-trained volunteer corps can accomplish the same objectives as paid staff. The ability to provide direct, indirect, or support services through volunteer assistance is limited only by the results of a staffing analysis and successful recruiting and training of the required volunteers.

Special events and projects that require resources not currently available can be accomplished through volunteer commitment and energy as well. Through these types of activities, volunteers bring a fresh perspective, needed talents, and new connections to business and community leaders that can further enhance an organization's mission-related work.

There are also challenges for a nonprofit that wishes to institute a volunteer program. These may include:

- Financial resources to support a program, both start-up and ongoing
- Acquiring qualified staff
- Building support of the board, executive, and other staff

As with any other program within a nonprofit, a volunteer program requires resources—human, financial, and strategic. While the time volunteers donate to a cause is "free" and does not require market-level compensation, the costs of supporting a volunteer program are real. The major expenses associated with running a volunteer program are related to staffing. Critical to the success of the volunteer program will be a manager who is knowledgeable of best practices in volunteer resources management and able to engage both staff and community members. While in some situations it may be appropriate for a volunteer to serve in this role, a growing body of research shows that like any other management position within an organization, paying an individual to do this job reaps many benefits. When the manager is a member of the paid staff, an organization can ensure that he or she is consistently available for a designated amount of time with a focus on overseeing the volunteer program. The volunteer resources manager can be held to the same level of performance and accountability as any other staff member (Rehnborg, n.d.). In addition, with a paid staff member in place, sound volunteer management practices can be learned and put into practice as part of the job expectations (Hager & Brudney, 2004). This in turn ensures that the volunteer program will receive the same attention, support, and role in accomplishing strategic goals of the organization as any other program.

Further, as Bruce Esterline, vice president of grants for the Meadows Foundation notes, "Some of the most cost effective dollars we can invest may be in a volunteer manager who can generate far more value from volunteer hours than we ever invested" (AVA & UPS Foundation, 2005). The cost of *not* providing the best possible experience for volunteers can result in negative publicity from disgruntled volunteers, a loss of donors, and decreased community support.

Adopting a high standard for the management of the volunteer program costs more, but the return on this financial investment can reap great rewards for the nonprofit. In fact, due to changing demographics and growing expectations by volunteers, as well increased scrutiny from funders and communities, nonprofit organizations are compelled to invest more time and money in program areas that show results (Graff, 2006). A well-run volunteer program is one such area.

Costs associated with the manager of volunteer resources position include salary (part or full time), any benefits that are part of the organization's staff package, mileage reimbursement, training, and professional development. Expenses for advertising or recruiting volunteers, mileage reimbursement or other volunteer incentives, insurance that covers volunteers acting in the name of the organization, and supplies and costs associated with volunteer recognition efforts are also potential start-up expenses.

Indirect costs must also be considered. They include overhead (office space, equipment, utilities, and technology access) and the value of time for additional staff members to take part in training and to assist with planning for and supervision of volunteers. To ensure an ongoing and successful program, money will need to be budgeted each year to support the volunteer program.

Another potential challenge that an organization may face is resistance from current staff or other stakeholders. Staff members may raise concerns about an increased workload to support volunteers and fears about their own job security. They may also express concerns about the qualifications of volunteers and unwillingness to bring volunteers into what they see as "their" work.

It must be clearly noted that bringing volunteers into an organization is to supplement and support the work of paid staff, not supplant it. Building the support of staff, board, and other stakeholders will be vital to the success of a volunteer program in the initial planning stage and over the long term. Including staff, board members, and other stakeholders in the full planning process for a volunteer program can allow any misconceptions or concerns to be aired and discussed and can alleviate many of these challenges.

Trends in Volunteering and Impact on Volunteer Program Planning and Management

Volunteering can take many shapes and forms. In addition to the traditional volunteer who may maintain a regular and long-term relationship with one or more nonprofit organizations, other types of volunteering are becoming more prominent. Influenced by changes in social, political, economic, and demographic climates, the continuum of possible ways to engage as a volunteer continues to broaden. Some of the trends to be discussed are also driven by changing volunteer expectations as the breadth and pace of daily life continues to evolve. These trends are divided into two groups: those that are tied to changing demographics and those connected to the form that volunteer service may take. Each trend listed presents implications for volunteer program planning and management to ensure successful engagement of the volunteer and accomplishment of organizational priorities.

Tapping into Demographics

YOUTH ENGAGEMENT AND SERVICE LEARNING Many school districts across the United States continue to require some level of community service, often calculated in hours served, to be completed by students prior to high school graduation. Thirty-eight percent of youth, or an estimated 10.6 million students nationwide, report current or past participation in community service as part of a school activity or requirement (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2006).

Service learning, where classroom curriculum and community involvement meet to expand or reinforce learning, is on the rise as well. Fully 77%, or 7.8 million of those students engaged in school-based community service activities, were enrolled in a course that contained a service learning component (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2006). This combination of activity and service has been shown to be effective in increasing a student's knowledge and application of information and ideas. To be fully effective, projects include the key service learning elements of student participation in planning, participation over an extended period of time (generally a school semester), and opportunity for reflection of learning from the experience.

Engaging individual youth requires clear expectations, working within an often limited time frame and providing some type of adult supervision. Depending on the youth involved, opportunities to engage on weekends may be required due to school or other commitments during the week. Flexibility with scheduling, with a variety of opportunities including those that are fast paced, technology based, offer quick results and/or offer school credit or a resume builder will speak to today's youth and their motivations for involvement.

Well-planned service learning opportunities require preplanning and agreement on deliverables and the time frame for student involvement prior to beginning the project. Benefits to the nonprofit include the yield of valuable information or products, such as mapping of a watershed and pollution sources for an environmental organization. When completed, this student-driven effort will connect student learning in the areas of math, science, and the environment to the community in which they live.

YOUNG ADULTS In 2008, 8.24 million young adults, ages 16 to 24, reported volunteering. This represented almost half of the overall increase in the total number of volunteers reported nationally and is an increase from the rate of 7.8 million volunteers in this age group reported for 2007. The finding aligns with other indicators suggesting a strong service ethic within the Millennial Generation, as evidenced by a 217% increase in applications to AmeriCorps in 2009 (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2010). Although a tough job market existed in 2009, the increase in applications reflects renewed interest in service following the volunteer-driven campaign and inauguration of President Obama in 2008. Also, service is an increasingly important step in a young adult's professional development. While many high schools and colleges require some level of community service, other types of service, including nonpaid internships and apprenticeships at local nonprofits, allow young adults to gain experience and build a resume.

For organizations engaging young adults, flexibility is again the key. Demanding school and work schedules can limit a young adult's availability. Opportunities to serve on evenings, weekends, and virtually are all positive ways to engage this demographic. Projects that enable a young adult to learn and expand their knowledge and experience, whether short term or through an internship (over a semester, a school vacation, or summer break), can provide valuable services to a nonprofit. Clear position descriptions and expectations with regular opportunity for two-way feedback are essential for successful involvement of this demographic.

EMERGING RETIREES Individuals retiring from the workforce bring three important commodities to a volunteer experience: time to serve, life experience, and career-based knowledge. Individuals born as part of the Baby Boomer generation (1946–1964), with 77 million in their ranks, currently make up the vast majority of midlife adults. Research shows that they are volunteering in midlife at a higher rate than past generations with as many as 75% indicating that they plan to remain actively involved in their community (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2007).

Beginning in 2011, the oldest of this generation will reach retirement age at 65. Baby Boomers appear to have different volunteer interests from past generations. In general, this generation of retirees is seeking challenging opportunities where they can continue to utilize their skills. Opportunities for professional development and being seen as a valued partner speak to the Baby Boomers' desire to continue to make a difference in a meaningful way. Keeping this generation of volunteers happy—seeing their volunteer experience as positive—will keep them engaged. And retention may bring long-term results for many organizations.

As noted earlier, volunteering and giving are related. According to projections by two Boston College scholars, Paul Schervish and John J. Havens, by the year 2055, $41 trillion will change hands as the Baby Boomers pass their assets to the next generation (Boston College Center on Wealth and Philanthropy, 2006). While much of this wealth will pass to heirs, estimates ranging from $1.7 to $6 trillion could be donated to charities across the country. This pending transfer of wealth provides another reason for organizations to seek, support and retain the coming generation of retirees.

CORPORATE ENGAGEMENT Involvement of employees, whether as individuals or in groups, is a welcome source of volunteers for many programs. Increasingly, companies are giving back by recruiting their employees to donate time as part of their commitment to the community. Often employees are able to volunteer without having to take a vacation or personal day to do so. The company supports employee involvement because it is good for business and good for the community in which the business operates.

Unlike a financial contribution, employee volunteering allows companies to foster a more personal link to the community by sharing its human resources with local organizations that are meeting community needs. In return, companies benefit with employees who have a positive opinion of their employer, are more productive in the workplace, and are easier to retain as employees along with higher visibility in the community (Junior Achievement Worldwide, 2009).

Clear expectations and communication are keys to success with corporate volunteers, who often expect visible results from their involvement. When recruiting individual employees or corporate groups, it is important to consult with the volunteers in advance to ensure that the volunteer placement meets the company's areas of interest and employee time availability. In addition, volunteer assignments should be clearly mapped out. Having a positive volunteer experience, especially when serving in a capacity that supports the company's business objectives, can lead to a donation to the organization based on individual or group employee involvement.

Tapping into Volunteer Approaches to Service

EPISODIC An episodic volunteer is someone who volunteers for a specific project over a limited period of time. Examples include one-day special events or service projects and opportunities that recruit volunteers as needed throughout the year and where volunteers are welcome on a drop-in versus a scheduled basis.

According to the report *Volunteer Growth in America: A Review of Trends since 1974,* episodic volunteering remains strong—almost 60% serving in this capacity (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2006). The increase in episodic volunteering has been driven largely by teenagers and midlife adults, two groups where rates of volunteering have jumped dramatically in the past two decades.

As individuals and families continue to experience increased pressures due to work or family commitments, time scarcity is often reported as a reason for not volunteering. Yet people look for opportunities in which to engage. Expectations regarding choice of assignments, ability to make a difference in a short amount of time, and interest in multiple versus single opportunities are driving forces for episodic volunteers.

To accommodate this trend, projects can be split into smaller assignments with specific and tangible goals. These mini-assignments often can be rolled up into a larger accomplishment with each part potentially performed by a different individual or group of volunteers. Organizing one-time opportunities, such as a day of service or a special event, can engage people in a time-limited activity assisting with preparation for an activity or actually helping on the day of the event. Flexibility in the breadth of possible assignments, options for where the assignments can take place, and a range of when the tasks need to be accomplished can all support the involvement of episodic volunteers.

GROUPS AS VOLUNTEERS Increasingly, groups of all types— families, youth, friends, businesses, and religious organizations—are interested in experiences where they can volunteer together. Beside positive benefits to an organization or community, volunteering as a group builds a strong sense of teamwork among members. It can also provide an opportunity to socialize, meet new people, or strengthen existing bonds within the group.

An increase in this type of volunteering means that more and more volunteer resource managers are being approached by groups in search of meaningful opportunities. The ideal group volunteer experience is a team activity with value to the community and that can be accomplished in one day. Working in conjunction with the group to ensure that the project meets the needs of both the organization and the group is essential to success. Another successful approach is for the volunteer resource manager to develop short-term, project-oriented volunteer opportunities and to promote these to potential groups in the community. Doing this ensures that the work to be accomplished meets the priorities of the organization and allows some preplanning to take place.

VIRTUAL VOLUNTEERISM Virtual or online volunteering is service from a distance where volunteer tasks are completed in whole or part from a computer via the Internet. This trend can engage volunteers who cannot come to a site due to schedule conflicts, disabilities, other commitments, or distance to the site. At the same time, research shows that the majority of virtual volunteers also support the same organization locally and volunteer on-site (Cravens, 2006).

Examples of virtual volunteering include designing or maintaining a database; conducting research; creating or maintaining a Web site; providing feedback to an organization; blogging to educate, support, or promote; proposal review; curriculum development; publication design; and online coaching or mentoring.

Virtual volunteers benefit volunteer programs by increasing the variety of volunteer opportunities and numbers of people who can engage in the work of the organization. Planning for virtual volunteers includes establishing clear goals and expectations for the assignment and regular check-ins with volunteers to provide support. Doing this ensures that volunteers' efforts are in line with the expectations of the project. In addition, educating on-site staff on the benefits and challenges of this type of volunteer assignment is required. As the use of computers and technology-based communication strategies expand, this creative use of volunteers can greatly enhance an organization's concept and use of volunteer support to meet its mission.

VOLUNTOURISM The practice of individuals going on a nonpaid working holiday for the purpose of volunteering for worthy causes is called voluntourism (Tomazos & Butler, 2009). Started as a marketing strategy within the tourism industry, opportunities to take a "volunteer vacation" have been available for many years. In 2007, 3.7 million volunteers reported doing some form of long-distance volunteering or volunteering at least 120 miles from their home.

The trend has gained increasing support from tourists who specifically choose a destination to combine travel and the opportunity to make a difference. Faith-based groups have been active in voluntourism as an extension of their mission activities. More than five years after Hurricane Katrina hit coastal communities along the Gulf of Mexico, groups of all types continue to travel to this hard-hit area to rebuild homes and provide support to local residents.

Voluntourism has also been promoted as a meaningful service-learning opportunity for high school and college students as well as families wishing to combine service with travel. Many local, national, and international organizations and businesses provide opportunities to travelers wishing to contribute their time and talents while away from home.

INFORMAL OR NEIGHBORHOOD ENGAGEMENT One additional trend to be aware of occurs outside the boundaries of a structured volunteer program. This type of volunteer engagement involves helping out an individual or an organization without first being involved in a volunteer program. For decades this was the norm for communities—neighbors helping neighbors. Today it might take the form of driving a neighbor to a doctor's appointment, performing repairs, offering caregiving services, or attending public meetings about a community concern.

The 2010 Civic Life in America report noted that between 2007 and 2009 an average of 7.9% of adults worked with their neighbors to fix a community problem. This equates to 18.6 million adults who worked informally with their neighbors to fix a need in their community (Corporation for National and Community Service and National Conference on Citizenship, 2010). Efforts to support one another are often organized individually or by neighborhood residents with the assistance or connection to an organization. Neighborhood engagement volunteering strengthens social relationships and communities.

Most informal volunteers have never been asked to volunteer, yet by their actions, they show a commitment to others in their community and a willingness to help. To recruit informal volunteers, organizations need to consider how to reach this new audience that has not been targeted before. The nonprofit that offers opportunities for local families, businesses, and individuals to come together through a day of service, for example, can tap into the interest of community-based volunteers.

Organizational Assessment: Establishing a Volunteer Program

Prior to implementing a new program, an organization assesses whether such a program is feasible. Questions regarding the perceived need for the program, determination of resources required to operate it successfully, and goals and metrics by which to measure progress and success all need to be evaluated. Program planning is often initiated as part of the organization's larger strategic planning process.

The same is true when envisioning whether to develop a volunteer program. The assessment process includes the gathering of data to inform a decision about if and how to move forward with full implementation of a volunteer program. The process should involve all organizational stakeholders: executive leadership, key board, staff representatives who lead other parts of the organization that will coordinate with the volunteer program, donors, and service recipients, if applicable to the organization.

The assessment process can include a variety of methods, from surveying internal and external stakeholders, holding focus groups, hosting key leader discussions, conducting one-on-one interviews, and completing an environmental scan of volunteer programs in similar organizations. For example, to assess current staff interest and understanding about engaging volunteers, a survey could be distributed. This survey could be followed up by focus groups with staff where discussion could take place to dig deeper into survey responses. Gathering information and ideas from key organizational or community leaders could be done through one-on-one interviews followed with a key leader breakfast to present findings and seek additional input.

Regardless of the method chosen to gather data on organizational readiness for a volunteer program, a series of key questions can guide the assessment process through the four major areas:

1. Organizational mission and vision alignment
2. Benefits and challenges of a volunteer program
3. Resources required to operate and staff
4. Preparing to move forward

Organizational Mission and Vision Alignment

During this portion of the assessment, it is essential to discuss and determine: the motivations of the organization and its stakeholder for developing a volunteer program; connections to the organization's mission, vision, values, and priorities; and broad goals for the program. Questions to be asked include:

- Why is a volunteer program needed at this time?
- How does a volunteer program align with our mission, vision, and values?
- How will a volunteer program align with our strategic priorities?
- What is our statement of philosophy related to volunteer involvement that is tied the organization's mission?
- What are the goals of having a volunteer program, both short and long term?

Benefits and Challenges of a Volunteer Program

Next in the process is identification of the various benefits and challenges of implementing a volunteer program within the organization. Keeping in mind the current organizational culture and structure, clients supported, and services offered, the next items need to be discussed in depth:

- What are the benefits of involving volunteers in our organization at this time and in the future?
- What are the challenges or barriers to involving volunteers (both internal and external)?
- What are the risks associated with involving volunteers?
- How will we mitigate these risks?
- What is our individual and collective experience in working with volunteers that may influence this discussion?
- How can identified challenges be lessened or removed?
- What is our current culture of support for a volunteer program? If not currently in place, how will we create one?

Resources Required to Operate and Staff

As stated previously, volunteer programs require an expenditure of resources to support program operations. With a vision emerging of the breadth and depth of a potential volunteer program, a discussion of the resources needed to fully support that vision includes these key questions:

- Based on the short- and long-term goals for the volunteer program, what staffing is needed to manage the program (i.e., type of qualifications required, full or part time, etc.)?
- Who will support and supervise this position?
- What are the items we need to include in a budget, both start-up and ongoing costs?
- How much should be budgeted for each item for Year 1? Year 2? Year 3?
- Where will we find the resources to support the program?
- Are we willing and able to make a long-term commitment of resources to the program?

Preparing to Move Forward

Now that responses from the previous questions have been gathered and fully analyzed, it is critical to decide whether to move forward with the development of a volunteer program or not. After assessing organizational readiness, trends in volunteering, and potential for organizational commitment to this work, do the benefits of developing, implementing, and maintaining a volunteer program outweigh other considerations? Assuming an affirmative decision is made, this series of questions will lead to the next stages of development for the volunteer program:

- What policies do we need in place to support volunteers?
- What is our "case for support" statement for volunteer engagement (for use with funders, donors, community, etc.)?
- How will we ensure that volunteers are treated as professionals and part of our full complement of staff?
- How will we maintain a culture of support for volunteers and the program over the long term?
- What volunteer management systems need to be developed to support the program (i.e., training, supervision, evaluation, recognition, etc.)?
- What is the timeline for program development and implementation?
- What specific roles will volunteers play within our organization?
  - Based on the identified roles, what are our next steps in assessing and developing job descriptions for our volunteers?

The last question begins the next critical step on the road to fully engaging volunteers: developing a process to analyze the specific roles that volunteers will fill within the organization and strategic implications for recruitment and fulfilling of job expectations.

Identifying Volunteer Roles: Understanding Strategic Job Analysis

The roles volunteers can hold in an organization are many, as described earlier. It is now time to fully develop those jobs and draft job descriptions. To begin doing that, it is important first to understand and effectively employ the management concept of strategic job analysis. This term refers to a process of specifying the tasks to be performed and the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics required to effectively perform those tasks for a job as it is predicted to exist in the future (Schneider & Konz, 1989). Nonprofit organizations today are in a state of flux from two different directions. First, their ability to provide services is dependent on available funding. In today's economic climate, funding sources we have been accustomed to are dwindling or almost nonexistent. These sources include foundation and individual giving as well as many states' inability to pay what is owed to nonprofits. Second, the demand for services has increased dramatically, particularly in the area of basic human needs. Where once nonprofits could increase supplemental services for their clients, such as enrichment activities, they now find themselves hurriedly moving staff and volunteers to primary services. Nonprofits are now reacting to the circumstances rather than proactively planning for these changes.

In addition to the changes caused by the economics of the time, strategic job analysis acknowledges the potential changes faced by organizations from such factors as technological innovation and increasingly competitive markets. These factors force fundamental changes in the nature of the work performed and accompanying changes in the requisite knowledge, skills, and abilities needed by the volunteer workforce. In a changing environment, traditional job analysis, focusing on jobs as they currently exist, can fail to anticipate future needs. There is an uncertainty about what can or should be done when considering a new direction of action. Strategic job analysis means that instead of developing solutions in response to a need, solutions need to be developed in *advance* of the need. The concept of strategic job analysis is drawn from business principles.

For the manager of volunteer resources, Iwu (2010) states that job analysis essentially provides answers to questions such as:

- In the execution of responsibilities, what sort of skills, abilities, and knowledge does the job holder (i.e., volunteer) require?
- What sort of person (personality trait) must the job holder be?
- What sort of behavior does the volunteer have to have in order to manage the job successfully?
- Who would be the volunteer's immediate report?
- How must this job holder be evaluated (performance management)?
- Would the job analysis enable an organization to develop a training program appropriate for the volunteer position?

Job analysis incorporates KSAO, a competency model incorporating *k*nowledge, *s*kills, *a*bilities, and *o*ther characteristics that a volunteer must have to perform successfully in the position. These are the unique requirements that the manager of volunteer resources looks for in the person selected to fill a particular job. According to a 2008 U.S. Government document:

> Knowledge statements *refer to an organized body of information usually of a factual or procedural nature which, if applied, makes adequate performance on the job possible. It is a body of information applied directly to the performance of a function.*

> Skill statements *refer to the proficient manual, verbal or mental manipulation of data or things. Skills can be readily measured by a performance test where quantity and quality of performance are tested, usually within an established time limit. Examples of proficient manipulation of things are skill in typing or skill in operating a vehicle. Examples of proficient manipulation of data are skill in computation using decimals; skill in editing for transposed numbers, etc.*
>
> Ability statements *refer to the power to perform an observable activity at the present time. This means that abilities have been evidenced through activities or behaviors that are similar to those required on the job, e.g., ability to plan and organize work. Abilities are different from aptitudes. Aptitudes are only the potential for performing the activity.*

To plan successfully for the future, organizations working on a strategic plan need to conduct a job analysis for their current volunteer positions and possible future volunteer positions. Doing this will help them to determine whether the needed abilities and qualifications can be found in their current volunteers, whether it would be beneficial to conduct extensive training for current volunteers, or whether recruiting new people is the best solution. Like for-profit organizations, nonprofit organizations need to "recognize that most jobs will not remain stable but will change to meet future demands" (Pynes, 1997, p. 151) and that conducting a strategic job analysis will help the organization address this challenge in a way that improves organizational effectiveness. A job analysis should identify the types of technologies and equipment that are to be used on the job and point out the types of education and experience that are required for the job to be done successfully (Pynes, 1997). This information is used to prepare a job description, which states the specific duties and responsibilities of a person in the job.

An organization's strategic plan is generally a five-year road map for the organization. Strategic job analysis should also be a road map for how a particular job might look today and how it might change over the next three to five years.

Using Strategic Job Analysis to Remain Competitive

It is crucial for a nonprofit and its volunteer program to remain competitive in today's environment. As the organization plans for the future, the type and number of clients may change. For example, organizations that serve children with developmental disabilities have seen many changes over the past five years. With new therapies and technology, these children are growing into adulthood with a need for some type of independent living. Organizations that focused primarily on early intervention are now expanding to include vocational training as well as other adult services. Likewise, the type and number of potential volunteers must be considered in this plan. For example, where individuals were recruited for these programs, now corporate volunteers must be included in the recruitment mix to act as job coaches and mentors.

The volunteer program in every organization is facing the same challenges. As an organization's programs expand or change, the manager of volunteer resources not only recruits for the immediate needs but must plan for future needs. The skills, knowledge, and abilities volunteers can bring to a program change as the programs and clientele change. In addition, the ways in which volunteers actually perform the job changes. For example, where once there might have been a one-to-one relationship between volunteer and client, the future might dictate that group relationships would best serve the organization.

The flexibility to tailor volunteer recruitment and deployment to the needs of a specific community and/or population served is critical for an organization to remain competitive.

Competency Modeling as a Tool for Success

In addition to the job analysis concepts already discussed, competencies required for a particular volunteer position is an important consideration. Competencies are behaviors that encompass the knowledge, skills, and attributes required for successful performance. In addition to intelligence and aptitude, the underlying characteristics of a person, such as traits, habits, motives, social roles, and self-image, as well as the environment around him or her, enable a person to deliver superior performance in a given job, role, or situation.

Competency modeling is the activity of determining the specific competencies that are characteristic of high performance and success in a given job. Competency modeling can be applied to a variety of human resource activities. Competencies aligned with strategic objectives help foster an organization's success. Organizations must understand their core competency needs: the skills, knowledge, behaviors, and abilities that are necessary for people in key roles to deliver results (LaRoca, n.d.).

According to Boulter, Dalziel, and Hill (1998), six stages are involved in defining a competency model for a given job role. These stages are:

1. *Performance criteria.* Defining the criteria for superior performance in the role
2. *Criterion sample.* Choosing a sample of people performing the role for data collection
3. *Data collection.* Collecting sample data about behaviors that lead to success
4. *Data analysis.* Developing hypotheses about the competencies of outstanding performers and how these competencies work together to produce desired results
5. *Validation.* Validating the results of data collection and analysis
6. *Application.* Applying the competency models in human resource activities, as needed

Competency modeling is the activity of determining the specific competencies that are characteristic of high performance and success in a given job. It includes such elements as:

- Skills
- Knowledge
- Values
- Interests
- Personality
- Abilities

Competency modeling takes job analysis one step further by tying it to the organization's goals and strategies. The following chart illustrates how competency modeling differs from typical job analysis.

Job Analysis	Competency Modeling
Includes KSAOs	Includes KSAOs and adds behaviors, personality, and attitudes
Task focused	Person focused
Tied to the role of the worker/volunteer	Tied to organizational goals and strategy
Based on individual success	Based on organizational success

Competency Modeling

- Focuses on "core competencies"
- Uses language and terms understood throughout the organization
- Raises competency levels throughout the organization
- Emphasizes people's capabilities for enhancing the competitive advantage of the organization
- Is attractive to the organization because it is tied to the organization's strategic and values statements
- Remains rooted in the company mission and values (but is still measurable)

A disadvantage of competency modeling is that it is present rather than future focused. It is more useful for recruitment and selection than for planning for future needs. Therefore, it is important that an organization conduct both strategic job analysis and competency modeling.

Job Analysis Evaluation

Job analysis and competency models involve collecting, examining, and using information surrounding tasks involved in a particular job for the purpose of making a step-by-step comparison between demands of these tasks and capabilities of prospective volunteers.

There are three steps for this job analysis: information gathering, information analysis, and applying the information.

Step 1. Information Gathering

Information gathering is a process of collecting and investigating information required for conducting a job task analysis. The information-gathering process is carried out both internally and outside of the organization.

Internally, information must be collected from all staff and volunteers who have a vested interest in the outcome. Much of this information was already gathered during the organizational assessment. Information gathering for strategic job analysis goes one step further: Those individuals, board members, administrators, and staff who participated in the organization's strategic planning process should be included again. The goal is to find out as much as possible about the job and its outcomes known right now and how that job and its outcomes might change in the future. This method assumes that current volunteers perform their own analysis of work while the manager of volunteer resources monitors their efforts and collect results. This analysis is part of the ongoing evaluation of the volunteer program as a whole. Volunteers are often most aware of how they perform their jobs and tasks, making them the primary source of information. Volunteers are in a position to analyze their work and suggest changes to existing procedures and work flows. This method allows the administrator of the volunteer program to break down job duties into detailed components, identifying problem areas, and generating job analysis productivity solutions. This review will assist in identifying unnecessary, duplicative, and nonproductive job assignments.

In order to conduct an extensive job analysis, information must be collected from stakeholders and other external organizations. This analysis is similar to the one conducted during strategic planning. The difference is now the manager of volunteer resources must include an analysis of the job as seen through the eyes of the community and similar organizations. Information is sought about how other organizations define similar jobs, their requirements, outcomes, and required competencies.

Step 2. Information Analysis

All information received is now compiled and analyzed. The analysis will provide two results. The first result will prescribe how a job should be done, the number of people/hours to effectively achieve its outcomes, and support required to achieve success. It introduces possible improvements and/or modifications to the existing processes and work flows. The second result will answer questions such as:

- Should this job be eliminated?
- Should the way it is performed or the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the desired volunteer be changed?
- Is this the type of job a volunteer would want to do?
- Does this job help fulfill the organization's mission?
- Are appropriate resources available to do this job successfully (i.e., funding/materials, staff supervision, recognition, etc.)

Step 3. Applying the Information

Once confirmed that the job is appropriate for the organization, its clients and volunteers, it is time to develop a complete job analysis. In addition, this is the time to determine not only the specifications and qualifications for the job but how that job impacts all facets of volunteer management, including training, supervision, evaluation and recognition. For example, once specific knowledge and skills necessary for the job are determined, the manager of volunteer resources must also determine which of these can be learned on the job. The manager then incorporates that information into the volunteer training program. Likewise, the outcomes for each job duty become the basis for the evaluation.

Relating Job Analysis and Competencies to Organization's Strategic Goals

It is important that strategic job analysis be clearly aligned to the nonprofit's overall business strategy and linked to the economic indicators that affect the organization. A one-size-fits-all strategy is not necessarily the best way to go. The manager of volunteer resources must be able to understand and forecast the prevailing economic conditions, both for the organization and its clients, and then modify his/her strategy as those economic and business factors change.

With the shift from traditional volunteer management to strategic volunteer management, the concept of standard job descriptions is passé. Organizations now look at flexibility and might seek ways volunteers can perform a wide range of diverse tasks.

Comparing Volunteer Role Descriptions and Role Specifications

Developing volunteer positions begins with an understanding of the difference between a job description and a job specification. A job description defines the duties, tasks, and responsibilities of a job; a job specification lists the required skills, qualification, and experience required to do the job. Both are essential when developing a volunteer job and to recruit the correct volunteers for that job.

The job description is an outline of the duties and responsibilities of the position. In addition, it is a description of how this job fulfills organizational objectives. A job description consists of these elements:

- Job title
- Reporting relationships, including whom the volunteer will report to and who may report to the volunteer
- Summary of the position's major and minor duties
- Resources needed to accomplish this job

A job specification describes the requirements to perform the job in terms of skills, competencies, experience, and the like. It includes:

- Educational requirements
- Desired experience
- Specialized skills or knowledge required
- Listing of any other requirements associated with the position

The manager of volunteer resources is looking at an employee-to-organizational fit or matching volunteer goals with organizational goals. For a person-to-job fit, job analysis identifies required individual competencies (KSAOs) for job success. For a person-to-organization fit, the manager of volunteer resources looks at the degree to which volunteers are matched to the culture and values of the organization. Here the attitude, temperament, skill set, and competencies of volunteers are of critical importance for the well-being of the organization, and the job specifications reflect the type of people the organization plans to recruit.

Bringing It All Together: Creating the Job Description

Position, or job analysis, should include competency modeling, position descriptions, and position specifications to maximize the effectiveness of the analysis. Exhibit 6.1 incorporates all of the information discussed. This type of analysis will help the manager of volunteer resources understand the position as it needs to be performed today and to plan for how it might/can change in the future. As shown earlier in the discussion of needs assessments, job analysis must also be performed by a team, including organization staff who will interact in any way with the job being analyzed.

EXHIBIT 6.1 Strategic Job Analysis/Competency Template

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Title of Job:

Create a Grocery Center</td><td>Date Form Completed:

2/1/11</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Title of Immediate Supervisor

School Service Learning Coordinator</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Type of Volunteer Position</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Tapping into Demographics

☒ Service Learning/Youth ☐ Young Adults ☐ Emerging Retirees
☐ Corporate Engagement

Volunteer Approaches to Service

☐ Traditional/Ongoing ☒ Episodic ☒ Groups as Volunteers ☐ Virtual
☐ Voluntourism</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Time Commitment (specify hours/days of week or time period [i.e., May-Aug. for fundraising volunteer])

Meet 2 hours weekly at either school or grocery center; must commit to project for 2 semesters</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="3">Understanding the Job</td></tr>
<tr><td>Job Duties</td><td>Level of Responsibility</td><td>Accountabilities/Outcomes</td></tr>
<tr><td>Plan design for grocery center</td><td>Youth work in partnership with grocery center staff</td><td>Youth will learn how to design a grocery center around the needs of individuals with HIV/AIDS</td></tr>
<tr><td>Create timeline/implement design</td><td>Youth work in partnership with grocery center staff</td><td>Youth will learn project management</td></tr>
<tr><td>Recruit fellow students to work on design activities</td><td>Youth work with immediate supervisor and other school personnel</td><td>Youth will learn about volunteer management (recruitment, screening, scheduling, etc.)</td></tr>
<tr><td>Prepare report for agency board of directors</td><td>Youth work with immediate supervisor</td><td>Youth will learn how to evaluate a project and provide feedback</td></tr>
</table>

Major Activities of Job	Minor Activities of Job
Interview agency clients	*Engage diverse group of students*
Design/paint/decorate grocery center	*Survey youth volunteers at end of project*
Sort/organize grocery products	*Recognize fellow volunteers for a job well done*
Draft evaluation report	

How job might change in the future (i.e., changes in technology, societal needs, funding, etc.)?
In 1 year: *Currently 2 parents have offered to carpool the volunteers. Transportation to and from the organization might become a challenge; these students are not mobile.*
In 3 years: *Clients living longer due to new medical therapies; therefore, need for grocery centers could increase. Organization's ability to support individual grocery centers might be problematic.*
In 5 years: *Unknown*

Identifying Examples of Performance Behaviors
1. *Students show up on time and ready to work.*
2. *Students stay engaged for the length of the project.*
3. *All outcomes are accomplished.*
4.

Selecting the Critical/Essential Competencies and Identifying Target Levels of Performance

	Critical/ Essential	Important/ Significant	Less important/ Learn on the job	Not applicable
Knowledge				
Understand HIV/AIDS			X	
Know value of grocery center to agency and its clients			X	
Skills				
Good organizational skills		X		
Follow through on assignments	X			
Abilities				
Make decisions as a team	X			

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 6.1 (*Continued*)

	Critical/ Essential	Important/ Significant	Less important/ Learn on the job	Not applicable
Keep workplace clean—no paint splatters		X		
Personal Attributes (i.e., work independently or in a team environment)				
Work as a team	X			
Required Experience/Education/Certifications Prior to Becoming a Volunteer				
Must be in 7th or 8th grade				
Must have parental permission to participate in after-school activity				

The template in Exhibit 6.1 should be used to analyze any type of job a volunteer can perform. To illustrate the concepts, the template has been completed for a service-learning project for 7th- and 8th-grade students with an Adopt an Agency program. The agency selected for this example is one that serves individuals with HIV/AIDS and has small food sites (grocery centers) that clients can access easily. The student volunteers will help the organization open a new food site. As you can see, different sections of the template may or may not be used, depending on the type of volunteer position.

Once a complete analysis of the job has been conducted, the manager of volunteer resources can draft a job description that can be published on the nonprofit's Web site and/or handed to candidates for that position. The resulting job description is basically a summary of the analysis as shown in Exhibit 6.2.

When prospective volunteers review a job description, they should be able to learn as much as possible about the job. In addition to information included in the example, job descriptions may contain:

- Reference checks (How many; from whom?)
- Policies affecting assignment (i.e., confidentiality)
- Benefits (parking, lunch, etc.)

The job description becomes an important tool to use when recruiting volunteers. Keep in mind, though, that this job description provides information about the

EXHIBIT 6.2 **Create a Grocery Center Volunteer Job Description**

Supervisor (staff member responsible for assignment)	**School Service Learning Coordinator**
Objective (Why is this job necessary? What do you hope to accomplish?)	Provide welcoming place for agency clients to get their groceries
Responsibilities (What can the volunteer expect to do? List some of the specific tasks or areas of responsibilities; include outcomes.)	Design/paint/decorate grocery center Sort/organize grocery products Draft evaluation report
Commitment (How much time will the job take? How much time do you expect the volunteer to remain at the organization?)	Meet 2 hours weekly either at school or grocery center; must commit to project for 2 semesters
Qualifications (What kind of person do you need to fill the job? Are there specific skills, interests, educational requirements or special needs, such as transportation?)	Good organizational skills Ability to make decisions as a team Can follow through on assignments Ability to keep workplace clean
Training/Preparation for Job (What kinds of training can the volunteer expect? Is it ongoing?)	Training will include: Understanding HIV/AIDS The value of a grocery center to the agency and clients
Evaluation (Who is responsible, when is it done? How is it done? Is there a probationary period?)	Two forms of evaluation: 1. Volunteers will be evaluated by the School Service Learning Coordinator 2. Students will evaluate the project and prepare report for the agency's board of directors

job as it looks today. It is important to review all job descriptions annually to determine if changes must be made either to the specifications of the job or to the characteristics needed by the volunteer.

Through strategic job analysis, the manager of volunteer resources is prepared for potential changes in the societal issue, clients served, new technologies, and the like. The manager can now act proactively as changes occur. Through use of this process, the volunteer program will remain flexible and responsive to changing conditions in the organization and volunteer environment.

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CHAPTER 7

Policy Development for Volunteer Involvement

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> *All of this is a far cry from the days when an agency staff member would pick up the phone periodically and call in some friends and neighbours to help with the task at hand.*
>
> —Silver (1988, p. 86)

This chapter discusses the development of policies to guide the safe and effective engagement of volunteers, whatever their role and whatever the nature of the organization for which they work.

Despite the valuable contributions that a comprehensive set of policies offers to volunteer involvement, many nonprofit, community, and public service organizations operate their volunteer programs in policy voids while others have given policy development for volunteer programs only the slimmest of attention. It is argued that policies are critical to effective volunteer involvement and if quality programming, excellence in service provision, increased productivity, and greater volunteer satisfaction—all outcomes of good policy development—are insufficient motivation, then surely the potential risk and legal consequences at stake should compel all volunteer-engaging organizations, no matter the nature of their work or the size or complexity of their volunteer program, to devote immediate and ongoing attention to this most important element of program infrastructure.

This chapter is adapted from the author's book on policy development, *By Definition: Policies for Volunteer Programs* (Graff, 1997), and from a chapter titled "Policies for Volunteer Programs" published in the first edition of the *Volunteer Management Handbook* (Connors, 1995).

EXHIBIT 7.1 Case Study

Sandy, a volunteer friendly visitor in a program for isolated seniors, arrived for her regular shift at her client's house to find the client quite unwell. The client, Mrs. Fritz, did not want to make a fuss and tried to keep Sandy from notifying anyone but finally allowed her to call the family doctor. The doctor said, "Bring her in to my office immediately." While driving was not really part of the volunteer job, Sandy thought it important to get help right away and drove Mrs. Fritz over to the doctor's office. The doctor thought that Mrs. Fritz might have had a mild heart attack, scheduled some tests, and told Sandy to take her home. Sandy objected, but when the physician insisted, Sandy helped Mrs. Fritz into the car and they headed off home. On the way, Mrs. Fritz cried out, put her hands to her chest, and slumped forward. Sandy reached over to hold Mrs. Fritz up and drove into a tree.

As demands for accountability and transparency in volunteer organizations increase, policies and procedures that guide the involvement and management of volunteers are ever more important since they represent concrete evidence that the host organization is acting in good faith and with due diligence (Edwards, 2009).

Consider the situation described in Exhibit 7.1. This real-life scenario would be cause of hand-wringing, panicked calls to the lawyer and the insurance company and hair-tearing anguish about where things went wrong. The fact is that this, and thousands of other examples like it, describe accidents waiting to happen in volunteer programs everywhere, every day. And while there is nothing anyone can do to guarantee that injuries and loss will not occur as the result of volunteering, there are many things that agency administrators and directors of volunteer resource management can do to help prevent serious incidents and to minimize harm and reduce liability when they do occur. Policy development is one of the most critical of those things.

This chapter defines policies and procedures, discusses how policies fit in an overall risk management program, and outlines four important types and functions of policies. Included are descriptions of the policy development process, how to write policies, and how to increase compliance with policies.

What Are Policies?

What is a policy? How do policies differ from procedures, protocols, standards, and guidelines? What is the role of policies?

Definitions of Policy and Procedure

The word "policy" is one with which we are all familiar, yet it is difficult to define in a meaningful way in the context of nonprofit organizations and their programs. Further, the notion of policy can be intimidating. The term connotes immutable proclamations of imperial import, emanating from unseen and untouchable powers, carrying potentially dire consequences. The term is often used to compel compliance: One must do it if it is a policy. Few people work with policies on a regular basis, have the opportunity to understand policy or to feel at ease with it.

Paula Cryderman (1987) developed what are arguably the most meaningful and practical definitions of policies and procedures as they apply in the nonprofit domain. In her manual for the Canadian Hospital Association on how to write policies, Cryderman created these definitions.

POLICIES

> *Policies form the written basis of operation secondary to legislation and the organization's bylaws. They serve as guidelines for decision making; they prescribe limits and pinpoint responsibilities within an organization. Policies can be viewed as rules or laws related to the facility's overall mission, goals, and objectives. They are usually broad statements that are general in content. Despite this, policies may be detailed and particular if appropriate to the subject matter.*

According to Cryderman (1987):

> *Policies can exist at a corporate or board level, reflecting the overall objectives and affecting everyone in the organization, or they can exist at a lower level and be relevant to a specific department or unit.* (p. 10)

Cryderman says policies tell people *what* to do. They are of great import, falling in the proclamation hierarchy just below the laws of the land and the laws of the organization. They guide decision making, though Cryderman's use of the term "guideline" should not suggest that there is discretion in their application since she goes on to assign to policies the power of rules and laws. Importantly, Cryderman says policies "prescribe limits," suggesting, as John Carver (1990) did in reference to governance policies, that policies can set the outside boundaries of behavior, inside of which action is acceptable. In this context, policies need not be a lengthy catalog of prohibitions but rather an empowering and enabling illumination of all that is allowable.

In Cryderman's definition, policies are typically broad and general, although she allows for the possibility that some policies can be very specific. For example, an organization may have an antidiscrimination policy that applies across the whole of the organization and governs personnel matters, client services, client rights, collegial relationships, and so on. An organization might also have a policy about whether volunteers must pay for the coffee they consume at the organization's office. Both are policies. Both might have procedures associated with them and, possibly, penalties attached for noncompliance, but clearly these two examples operate at quite different levels and have very different scopes.

Policies must be related to the organization's overall mission, goals, and objectives. This is a critical point. Many policies embody values and beliefs, positions and philosophy. For example, at first glance, a policy about whether to reimburse volunteers' out-of-pocket expenses is merely a financial matter. But upon closer consideration, such a policy is equally about what the organization believes it "owes" volunteers. Reimbursement policies speak to an organization's commitment to make volunteering accessible to all as well as how much value an organization places on volunteer contributions. Hence, policies must scrupulously reflect the mission, values, and goals of the larger organization. Therein lies the danger of copying policies from other organizations without careful consideration of whether they are entirely consistent with one's organizational culture and values base.

PROCEDURES Cryderman (1987) says, in contrast to the "what" of policies, procedures tell people *how* to do what they must do.

> *Procedures give directions according to which daily operations are conducted within the framework of policies. They are a natural outgrowth of policies, supplying the "how to" for the rule. Procedures describe a series of steps, outline sequences of activities or detail progression. Thus the procedure manual is operational and is usually best expressed in a directive tone.* (p. 10)

In Cryderman's view, procedures exist in the day-to-day operational realm although they must reflect and be consistent with the overall framework of values, beliefs, and goals embodied by policies. Procedures often are written in sequential format, delineating, for example, step 1, step 2, step 3, and so on.

On the Distinction Between Policies and Procedures

Cryderman (1987) says that the terms "policy" and "procedure" should not be confused, yet directors of volunteer resource management often struggle to distinguish the two. It is easy to begin to write a general policy statement and slip into specific directions. Often procedures enter values territory typically seen as the exclusive domain of policies.

It is not uncommon for policy writers to spend considerable effort on sorting policies from procedures. In practical terms, the distinction often means little other than on what half of the page—top or bottom—the statement in question ought to appear. On this point, Carver's (1990) pragmatic perspective makes for good advice: It really is *all* policy—it just appears at different levels of specificity. In this sense, whether it is called a policy or a procedure is far less important than what it says and that it accurately reflects its intended meaning.

Where the it-does-not-matter-much rule might not apply is in cases where policies are seen as the exclusive prerogative of a specific entity, such as the board of directors or senior management. And interestingly, this situation can be argued from two quite distinct perspectives. If the board claims policy development for its own, then calling a statement or proclamation a matter of policy might allow the volunteer department to place its business before the board. This represents a valuable educational opportunity in organizations where board members may be less familiar with the operations or value of volunteer involvement. However, implementing new policies or making changes to existing policies can be cumbersome when higher and/or multiple levels of organizational bureaucracy become involved. Where quick action is recommended, declaring a specific topic a matter of procedure sometimes creates the nimbleness required. These more practical reasons for choosing the "policy" or the "procedure" label may be legitimately seen as brilliantly strategic or willfully manipulative. Regardless, the distinctions have practical merit.

What is most important is that policies and procedures are developed and implemented—regardless of what they are called or where the line between them might be drawn.

Levels of Policies

Levels of policies can be considered in two ways: (1) From what level does the policy emanate? (2) To what level or levels of the organization does the policy apply?

POLICIES FROM WHICH LEVEL OF THE ORGANIZATION? While policy development is often thought of as the exclusive domain of the board, virtually any person or any entity in an organization might write policy. From where a policy might emanate varies widely by the organization's governance model, organizational culture, tradition, and sometimes just by the preferences of those who happen to be in positions of power or influence at any given time.

Boards of directors typically concern themselves with broad, high-level policies that embody organizational values, beliefs, or positions of import. Boards will also claim within their mandate policies having to do with mission, organizational directions, governance, and, in the policy governance model, executive limitations. Also within the prerogative of the board may be broad policies concerning organizational structure and at times, high-level operational matters, pertaining, for example, to personnel and financial matters. Note that such policies, even those from the highest organizational levels, can pertain to or affect the role, work, and working conditions of volunteers.

To illustrate, here are vision and philosophy statements from the Boulder County government (2000) in Colorado:

> ***Vision***
> *Boulder County values and provides opportunities for active participation of its citizens in voluntary partnerships that enhance and enrich government services and the quality of life in the community.*
>
> ***Philosophy***
> *Boulder County government is a joint venture between its citizens and the individuals and departments that are charged with the responsibility of carrying out the functions of local government.*
>
> *To assure that citizens have opportunities for meaningful and effective engagement in local government operations, professional standards in volunteer management are accepted as the guidelines for best practices.*

Senior managers typically are the developers of high-level operational policies, such as those pertaining to personnel, finance, and operations, and such policies might have a good deal of impact on the roles of volunteers, volunteer program infrastructure and management, as well as the budget available to support volunteer involvement. Here is an example of a high-level screening policy:

The ______________ [name of agency] applies a formal selection process to all prospective volunteers. This process varies according to the nature and degree of responsibility in the work to be done, access to money or other valuables, access to personal or confidential information, and/or access to clients or members of the public. Positions of trust are subject to significantly more rigorous screening inquiries.

This organizational policy on diversity applies equally to volunteer involvement:

Our organisation is firmly committed to diversity in all areas of its work. We believe that we have much to learn and profit from diverse cultures and perspectives, and that diversity will make our organisation more effective in meeting the needs of all our stakeholders. We are committed to developing and maintaining an organisation in which differing ideas, abilities, backgrounds and needs are fostered and valued, and where those with diverse backgrounds and experiences are able to participate and contribute. (Volunteering England, 2002)

Typically a good deal of operational and program policy is developed at the program or department level. With respect to volunteering, often the key staff or volunteer leader of the volunteer department develops day-to-day policies that shape and govern the work and behavior of volunteers and the coordination and support of volunteer effort. Here are just a few examples that pertain to volunteer screening processes:

Acceptance as a volunteer is not automatic. We reserve the right not to accept applicants based on an objective and equitable assessment of their suitability.

Falsification of information, including material omission or misrepresentation, at any point during screening is grounds for immediate disqualification from the application process, or even immediate dismissal if the falsehood is discovered after acceptance.

Prospective volunteers are screened to the level of intensiveness dictated by the position(s) for which they apply. If a ______________ [name of agency] volunteer applies for transfer to another volunteer position for which the initial screening process is more intensive than for the position the volunteer has been occupying, the volunteer is subjected to the additional screening inquiries of the position being applied for. Failure to satisfactorily meet these additional screening requirements is grounds for denial of the transfer.

TO WHAT LEVEL(S) DOES THE POLICY APPLY? As Cryderman (1987) pointed out, policies can apply to various levels of an organization. Some can be quite broad in scope while others might be quite specific.

For example, board policy statements on philosophy, values, and beliefs are likely to apply to all aspects of the organization and usually include volunteers as well. Here is an example of a high-level policy on antioppression:

The Family Service Association of Toronto (FSA) re-affirms its commitment to a policy of anti-oppression on the basis of, but not limited to, ethnicity, language,

> *race, age, ability, sex, sexual or gender identity, sexual orientation, family status, income, immigrant or refugee status, nationality, place of birth, generational status, political or religious affiliation in all aspects of its operation and at all levels of the agency.*
>
> *FSA further recognizes that the increasing diversity among residents in Toronto has added cultural, social and economic benefits to our community. It is also sensitive to the fact that oppressed groups experience marginalization and encounter barriers to full access and participation in the community. FSA seeks to increase access and participation, especially for those who are marginalized, disadvantaged or oppressed.*
>
> *FSA encourages individuals to participate fully and to have complete access to its services, employment, governance structures and volunteer opportunities. It will make every effort to see that its structure, policies and systems reflect all aspects of the total community and to promote equal access to all.* (Family Service Association of Toronto, 2006)

Policies at this level typically are the responsibility of the board. Input from staff, direct-service volunteers, and other organizational stakeholders may be invited, but usually the board is the key player in this kind of policy making.

Instrumental policies, even those issued from the upper levels of an organization, can also have organization-wide applicability as well. For example:

> *All personnel are trained and familiar with fire and evacuation procedures, including the location of all alarms, extinguishers, and exits out of the organization's offices and out of the building.*

It is not uncommon for policies of this nature to apply equally to volunteers.

Many policies are much more specific and much more limited in scope, written specifically for volunteer involvement. Consider these illustrations:

> *As representatives of the ________________ [name of agency], volunteers, like staff, are responsible for presenting a good image to clients, business associates, and the community. Volunteers dress appropriately for the conditions and the nature of their volunteer duties, maintaining a high standard of personal appearance, hygiene, and grooming at all times.*
>
> *Individual volunteers accurately complete and submit all time sheets and other required information on a timely basis.*
>
> *Because their work is so vital to the achievement of the organization's mission, dependability is important among our volunteers. Volunteers are reliable and punctual. When expecting to be absent from a scheduled duty, volunteers inform their staff supervisor as far in advance as possible so that alternate arrangements may be made. Frequent absenteeism results in a review of the volunteer's work assignment or term of service.*
>
> *If a volunteer is unable to fulfill a position responsibility, the anticipated absence or shortcoming is reported with as much advance notice as possible to his or her immediate supervisor or the Director of Volunteer Resource Management who ensures that a replacement is found or other suitable arrangements made.*

It is neither the responsibility nor the right of volunteers to find or assign an alternate person to perform their work.

These policies clearly have been developed specifically for volunteers and therefore have a much more limited scope and influence. Policies of this nature are less likely to receive board or chief executive attention. Rather, they are more likely to be the responsibility of departmental staff or program committees, although in smaller organizations, boards sometimes involve themselves in policy matters of this sort.

Why Write Policies?

Volunteerism has grown to enormous proportions. Most nonprofit organizations involve volunteers in governance, administrative, and direct service functions. Volunteers are performing complex, responsible work without which many organizations would falter, if not completely dissolve. It is often difficult to determine just by sight alone whether a nonprofit employee is paid or unpaid since volunteers are often elevated to essential roles and do work of equal importance and value to that of their paid counterparts. With the engagement of professionals and other highly skilled volunteers in what is increasingly referred to as pro bono consultancy, volunteers may occupy senior administrative/governance and high-level advisory positions. For the same reason that it is important to write policies to guide the work of paid staff, so too is it critical to provide a policy framework to guide the work of volunteer staff.

Importance of Policies

To the detractors who might suggest that policy development seems overly bureaucratic for volunteer involvement, it is noted that policies do not have to be offensive or unnecessarily restrictive. They can be positive, constructive, and supportive. One risks undermining the professionalism of volunteers by assuming that policies are necessarily distasteful. Volunteers are busy people who offer their time and skills but who expect rewarding work, clarity of expectations, thorough training, ongoing support, and responsible and respectful management in return.

Where volunteers are engaged in meaningful work—including, for example, in direct contact with clients, provision of organizational services, fund development, administration, or leadership and governance—failure to provide policy guidance is not only disrespectful to volunteers and their contributions but fiscally and managerially negligent.

Simply put, volunteer work has become far too important in most organizations to function in a policy void.

Additionally, policies:

- Enable volunteers to know where they stand, offering some security that they know how they can expect to be treated and where they can turn if they feel things are not going well
- Help to establish continuity over time and across changing leadership
- Help to ensure fairness and equity, consistently applicable to all

- Both clarify and communicate values and link them to expected behavior
- Articulate organizational positions on important matters of ethics and organizational obligations
- Set out organizational beliefs about the world, people's rights, how business is done, and how people work with one another
- Communicate expectations, specify standards, and state rules

Connection to Liability Management

When policy attention is paid to volunteer involvement, it is often out of fear of potential liability connected to volunteers' presence. The more responsible and complex the work, the greater the risks associated with its completion. If volunteers are rolling bandages, for example, dangers are minimal. But consider these actual examples:

- Volunteers who provide home support for people with disabilities are helping to transfer patients in and out of the bathtub without training.
- Volunteer counselors staff a suicide prevention hot line with little training, and they have no professional backup while on duty.
- A volunteer friendly visitor drives his client to the grocery store each week to help her do her shopping. If he were to be stopped, his car would be pulled off the road for noncompliance with safety regulations.
- A volunteer at the local senior citizen's center has some first-aid training and has been helping seniors make decisions about which of their prescription medications they should and should not bother to take.
- An elderly woman who has been a volunteer escort at the cancer treatment center for over two decades is beginning to lose her faculties. Last week she took a patient in a wheelchair to the wrong clinic, where he waited for three hours before staff were able to locate him.
- Female volunteers are sent out to deliver parenting education classes to single mothers in low-income housing projects. The volunteers go alone, according to their own schedule, often at night. The agency has no record of who is going where or when.
- Volunteers for the local environmental cleanup agency have been disabling the chain brake safety mechanisms on chain saws because the brakes make this already hard work even more arduous.
- Volunteers go fundraising door to door. They are recruited by a third-party recruitment service, given minimal information about the charity or its work, are unsupervised in their work, are given no safety training, and are expected to turn in the funds they raise with no checks or accountability procedures in place.
- Volunteers go on overnight camping trips with youngsters. They are not screened in any meaningful way.

Ours is an increasingly litigious culture and the possibility of legal action occurring as a result of nonprofit operations is an ever-present reality (Carter & Demczur, 2010). A quick search of headlines turns up evidence of volunteer wrongdoing with, it seems, increasing frequency: volunteer sports coaches who abuse children; volunteer fundraisers who abscond with proceeds; fraudsters and cons who infiltrate seniors' services to run scams on the most vulnerable; board members who abuse their positions for personal gain. In the courts, in the press, and in the mind of the public, organizations are being held accountable for mistakes, accidents, and negligence on the part of volunteers acting on behalf of the organization.

Policy as a liability reduction technique is quite probably unparalleled. There is no better proof that an agency has acted prudently and responsibly in attempting to reduce the likelihood of injury or loss than a full set of current, comprehensive policies and procedures, clearly in place, and consistently communicated to all relevant parties.

As the work of volunteers becomes more complex, responsible, and front line in nature, the matter of policy development for volunteer programs becomes critical. The formula is quite simple: The greater the degree of responsibility of volunteer work, the greater the need for rules to govern and regulate its accomplishment, the greater the need for guidelines to ensure safety, and the greater the need for policies.

While the fear of liability is perhaps not the best reason to embark on policy development for volunteer programs, it is often the most compelling.

Policy and Risk Management

There is no more pressing reason to develop policies for volunteer programs than the role that policies play in an organization's overall risk management system. Policy development is a critical component of a comprehensive risk management program. In short, policies are the premier risk management device.

Policies supply rules. They establish boundaries beyond which volunteers should not wander. They specify what is and is not expected, what is and is not safe. To consider the case study about Sandy and Mrs. Fritz in Exhibit 7.1, there were several points at which the presence of policies could have prevented the tragedy that occurred. For example:

- What is the agency policy regarding volunteers who are tempted to exceed the limits of their job description? Is there a boundaries policy?
- What is the agency policy regarding volunteers who encounter a situation with which they feel they cannot cope or in which they feel uncomfortable making decisions?
- What is the agency policy regarding volunteer backup? Is there someone in authority on call at all times that volunteers are on duty—staff who can give explicit directions or take over when the situation exceeds the limitations and responsibilities of the volunteer's role?
- What is the agency policy about friendly visiting volunteers driving their clients? Is it allowed? Is there a full set of policies regarding such volunteer transportation service, including verification of current driver's license (rechecked on a regular basis), driver's record, and the volunteer's own insurance coverage (is a minimum level of auto insurance required?). What is the agency policy regarding insurance coverage for nonowned automobiles?

If policies such as these had been in place and communicated clearly to Sandy (and, of course, if Sandy had complied with the rules), the story most certainly would have had a different outcome.

A Quick Note on Enforcement

In today's climate of increasing litigiousness and growing demands for accountability, organizations must meet ever-higher standards of due diligence, and volunteer activity is not exempt. In the wake of a tragedy arising from the misjudgment or willful misconduct of a volunteer, the headlines the next morning are not likely to offer special dispensation to the organization because the worker was unpaid. The offender may or may not be identified as a volunteer, but most assuredly the organization's name will have a place of prominence in subsequent news coverage. Members of the public are equally unlikely to respond to the media attention by saying "Oh well, it's a tragedy of course, but the offender was just a volunteer, after all."

Unarguably, policies are vitally important. Not having policies to guide and govern volunteer involvement is ill advised. Having policies that are not enforced is worse.

It is difficult to assert with any authority just how careful or thorough an organization ought to be in its oversight of its volunteers. How carefully should volunteers be screened? How many reference checks should be implemented? How thoroughly should volunteers be trained? How often should the organization connect with and monitor the work of its various types of volunteers? There are no clear, objective standards on any of these questions. But if an organization creates a standard, embodies it in policy, and then fails to meet or enforce its own standard, risk of legal action is much greater, and the outcome of such legal action is much less likely to favor the organization.

The lesson is obvious: Write policies *and* enforce them.

Policies as Empowerment (Gaining Access to the Board)

Volunteer programs are typically underrecognized and underresourced. Boards and senior management frequently lose touch with the expansion in scale and significance of voluntary action, even in their own organizations. As Nora Silver (1988) pointed out more than two decades ago, a gap exists between the ability of directors of volunteer resources management to create volunteer programs—to recruit, place, and supervise volunteers—and the organization's development of administrative, communications, and accountability systems to support those volunteer programs.

Boards of directors provide leadership to their organizations. They set overall agency policy and assume fiscal responsibility for the organization. As the board is ultimately legally responsible for the agency and its programs, it is also responsible for the volunteer component. The board has the power to authorize the construction of a volunteer program, and it has the responsibility to ensure the effectiveness of that program. The board can—and should—call for program objectives, established policies and procedures, professional management, recognition of volunteers, and an adequate budget for the volunteer program.

The question arises: How do we get the attention of senior management and boards of directors? The answer may be: through policies, in the context of risk management.

When something goes wrong in the volunteer program, the ultimate responsibility will not fall to the director of volunteer resources management. The board is ultimately legally responsible for all that occurs under the auspices of the agency, and hence the lawsuit, when it arrives, will settle on the board table. And board members, in general, are becoming increasingly aware of their own vulnerability to liability: Board volunteers suddenly are realizing that not only can the voluntary organization they serve be sued, but there are instances in which individual board volunteers themselves can be sued.

It is suggested, then, that the best way to get the attention of senior management and boards is to alert them to the potential risks and hazards embodied in volunteering. In this view, policy development for volunteer programs is the key to the boardroom door. Some would suggest this is fear-mongering, or manipulation by fear. In fact, directors of volunteer resources management have an obligation to alert their supervisors to risks and liability. Not doing so is irresponsible. Only when risks are fully identified and assessed can they be properly managed.

But alerting management to the dangers is only half of the task. As we have seen, policy development is a key component in risk management. Boards generally concur that policy development is within the realm of board mandate, and they can, therefore, be counted on to pay attention when someone exclaims, "We need a policy on that!" The comprehensive strategy might be to:

- Identify the risks.
- Draft policies and procedures that minimize the risk and/or limit the organization's liability.
- Take these together to the board table.

When the board realizes that activities being undertaken by volunteers are significant enough to create liability exposures for both the organization and board members personally, the volunteer program will be seen in a different light. Suddenly it will become a department worthy of board time and attention. From here, the director of volunteer resources management can build a case for adequate resources (budget, space, staffing) and agency support services (screening, training, supervision, direction, insurance, policy and procedure development). Policies are a concrete tool to accomplish what Ivan Scheier (1988) called on all managers to do: "Insofar as volunteer administration continues to see itself as derivative, passive and dependent, others naturally tend to see us that way too. Beginning to define ourselves as powerful, active and autonomous is the first step in becoming more so" (p. 29).

Where Policies Are Needed

Directors of volunteer resources management ask anxiously, "What policies do I need?" and "What if I miss something really important?" The answers to these questions vary from program to program and inevitably hinge on the nature of the volunteer program, the kind of work done by volunteers, the nature and complexity of the organization, and the amount of resources available for policy development. In the author's manual on policy development for volunteer programs (Graff, 1997), sample policies were presented on more than 70 different topics that would be applicable to most types of volunteer programs. Nearly as many again could be added to cover the unique dimensions of any specific program.

Functions of Policies

There is a way of conceptualizing policies according to their function that can be used to determine which policies any specific program might need to develop. In volunteer programs, policies serve four general functions:

1. Policies as risk management
2. Policies as values and belief statements
3. Policies as rules
4. Policies as program improvement tools

Each is explored in some detail in the next sections.

POLICIES AS RISK MANAGEMENT Policies are a critical component in an agency's overall risk management program, and a wide range of policies on a wide range of topics can help an organization to mitigate and manage risk exposures related to volunteer involvement. Here are just a few examples. The first pertain to risk management in the administration of volunteer involvement, and the latter pertain directly to the work of volunteers themselves.

Sample risk management policies related to the administration of volunteer involvement are presented next.

Screening
Volunteer screening is a critical component of both human resources management and risk management. The agency strives to maintain a safe and productive workplace with honest, trustworthy, reliable and qualified volunteers who do not present a risk of harm to themselves, other persons, or the reputation of the agency.

The agency applies a formal selection process to all prospective volunteers. This process varies according to the nature and degree of responsibility in the work to be done, access to money or other valuables, access to personal or confidential information, and/or access to beneficiaries or members of the public.

Risk Assessment
The director of volunteer resource management, along with other agency personnel, annually conducts a risk assessment on the positions, work, and activities of agency volunteers.

Risk assessment identifies risks, assesses their magnitude, and reexamines measures already in place to control and mitigate risks. Both volunteers and paid staff are invited to participate in this process. Risk management strategies are implemented as needed, including, in particular, written policies and procedures that identify, prevent, and reduce the incidence and impact of risk.

Insurance

Liability and accident insurance or other comparable forms of indemnification and protection are provided for all volunteers.

The agency evaluates its insurance needs on an annual basis and ensures that its insurance providers are well aware and up to date on the work done by volunteers.

Where insurance coverage is extended to volunteers, the agency ensures that volunteers are explicitly identified in the relevant policies as "named insureds."

Volunteers are encouraged to consult with their own insurance agents regarding the extension of their personal insurance to include community volunteer work. Specific information regarding such protection is available from the director of volunteer resource management.

Hazardous Conditions

Volunteers are informed of foreseeable hazardous aspects, materials, equipment, or processes they may encounter while performing volunteer work and are trained and equipped in methods to deal with all identified risks.

Disaster Plan

The agency has a plan for dealing with natural disasters, including but not limited to flood, tornado, earthquake, and pandemic. This plan includes a communication plan for alerting volunteers who might be working in affected communities.

Backup for Volunteers on Duty

It is important that all direct service volunteers have backup from the agency in the event that they encounter trouble in the course of their volunteer duties. An identified staff member or other agency representative is on duty and accessible at all times when agency volunteers are on assignment.

Sample risk management policies pertaining to the work of volunteers, themselves are presented next.

Volunteer Driving

While on duty, volunteers do not use their own personal vehicles to transport agency clients.

Should an emergency arise in which a client requires immediate transportation, and time permits, the volunteer contacts his or her supervisor for direction. If the circumstance is more urgent, the volunteer uses his or her own judgment regarding whether an ambulance or other emergency service is required. Immediately after an incident of this sort, the volunteer notifies the agency of the situation and of the actions the volunteer has initiated.

Volunteers as Agents

Volunteers perform their duties in an objective, timely, and conscientious manner. They at all times act in a knowledgeable manner, consistent with their training, and in conformity with the volunteer code of conduct and these policies.

Volunteers are agents of the agency, and as such volunteers act in such a way as to ensure that their performance reflects positively on the agency, enhancing its integrity, reputation, and credibility.

Use of Organizational Affiliation

Volunteers do not use their affiliation with the ______________ [name of organization] in connection with partisan politics, religious matters, business dealings, or community issues. Volunteers do not sell, recommend, or endorse any product, agent or company, or promote religious or political beliefs, perspectives, or practice.

Absenteeism

Because their work is so vital to the achievement of our mission, volunteer dependability is paramount.

Volunteers are reliable and punctual. When expecting to be absent from a scheduled duty, volunteers inform their supervisor as far in advance as possible so that alternate arrangements may be made. Frequent absenteeism results in a review of the volunteer's work assignment or term of service.

Boundaries are a special case of risks related to volunteer involvement. Volunteers may be at greater risk of exceeding both position-related and relationship boundaries, primarily because of good intentions. It is advisable to consider where policies can prevent volunteers from straying over boundary limits. Here are a few examples of such policies.

Position Boundaries

All volunteer positions have responsibilities as well as limits to those responsibilities. The agency clearly communicates both of these to volunteers through a range of mechanisms including, but not limited to, position descriptions, performance standards, orientation, training, on-the-job training, ongoing training, volunteer supervision and support, performance evaluation, and, as needed, corrective action.

Volunteers recognize and respect the limits of their skills and abilities and the boundaries and limitations of their position. Boundary breaches can be a very serious matter, and full compliance is expected.

If a volunteer is in doubt regarding the limitations of his or her role, no action is taken until direction on the matter is received from the volunteer's supervisor or another authorized agency representative.

Relationships with Clients

Our clients can be isolated, lonely, and particularly vulnerable to abuse and exploitation. For this reason, it is important that volunteers take great care in managing their relationships with clients.

Volunteer relationships with clients have the same boundaries as those between paid staff and clients. It is appropriate to be friendly, courteous, and caring, but it is not appropriate to become friends with clients, their family members, or others connected to the delivery of service. Friendships with clients can lead to unclear boundaries, inappropriate expectations, the appearance of favoritism or exploitation, as well as to conflicts of interest.

Invitations to volunteers from clients to spend personal time together or to engage in other than agency business are declined respectfully, citing, as needed, this policy as the basis for their action.

This policy applies throughout the duration of the delivery of service and for not less than 12 months following the termination of the volunteer's service to the client.

Engage Outside Help
Volunteers who identify client needs that are outside the boundaries of their own volunteer role (e.g., financial, healthcare, household assistance, transportation, etc.) bring these needs to the attention of the director of volunteer resource management for referral to appropriate community services.

Client Boundaries
Volunteers treat all clients with courtesy and respect. Volunteers respect the personal boundaries of clients and govern their physical behaviors accordingly.

Using the function of policies as a risk management device can be a useful guide to determining which policies a volunteer program needs to develop. The steps might include:

- Look around the volunteer program.
- Better still, walk around the volunteer work site(s).
- Identify for risks, hazards, and dangers.
- Play the What If? game, trying to identify what could go wrong under a series of different circumstances. What would this room look like if it were filled with smoke? How would this activity look from the perspective of a wheelchair? Would this activity be more dangerous in cold temperatures? in high winds? in the middle of an ice storm?
- Consider policies that might reduce the likelihood of accidents, injuries, or loss of all types, and/or reduce the magnitude of harm should prevention fail and the risk materialize.

POLICIES AS VALUES AND BELIEF STATEMENTS Every organization builds a web of values and beliefs about the world in which it works, the nature of the problem(s) it seeks to address, and the way in which it operates. Some of these are subtle and rarely discussed. Many are unwritten but nonetheless well known and clearly understood. In addition, agencies often take positions on questions and issues related to their services as well as to their own internal operations. Policy statements are a mechanism for both articulating and communicating such values, beliefs, and positions. Some examples, including those from published sources, are presented next.

Multiculturalism and Antiracism/Antioppression
Volunteers respect the diversity of the community that they serve. Discrimination toward anyone on the basis of race, religion, ethnicity, culture, gender, age, disability, sexual orientation, family status, or any other grounds typically covered by human rights legislation is not tolerated. Further, the spirit of such statutory provisions is extended to all kinds and nature of human differences, showing respect and consideration to all people we work and connect with.

Volunteers are sensitive to the cultural and religious needs of their clients and take into account religious holidays, food prohibitions, and other important religious and cultural practices, observances, and conventions.

Value of Volunteers to the Organization
Southwest Homes believes in the value volunteers bring to its organization and programming. Volunteers willingly join the staff/volunteer team to help SWH attain its goals, stay rooted in the community, and help it realize its principles of consumer control, cross disability representation, and promoting integration. (Eidem, 2007)

Volunteers, and the contributions they make through volunteering, significantly enhance the quality of life, community spirit, and leisure time opportunities in Burlington. Volunteers are a valuable human resource requiring and warranting support and encouragement to maintain and develop their skills and to ensure their continued involvement in the provision of leisure opportunities throughout the City. The Parks and Recreation Department will continue to develop and provide support for volunteers and volunteer groups to ensure their continued involvement in leisure services and to develop this resource to its fullest. (City of Burlington, n.d.)

Agency's Right to Dismiss Volunteers
The agency accepts the service of volunteers with the understanding that such service is at the sole discretion of the agency. Volunteers agree that the agency may at any time, for whatever reason, decide to terminate the volunteer's relationship with the agency. (McCurley, 1990, p. 3)

Volunteer-Paid Staff Relationships
Volunteers and paid staff are partners in implementing the mission and programs of the ________________ [name of organization], with each having an equal but complementary role to play.

Each partner understands and respects the needs and abilities of the other.

The technique to identify policies of this sort involves thinking through the values, beliefs, and positions held by the organization. Answer these questions:

- What do we hold as important? What do we value that volunteers need to know about? What is our philosophy about volunteers, about the work we do, about how we do business around here?
- What positions has the agency taken on issues, questions, or problems?
- What does the organization believe regarding good and bad, right and wrong, proper and improper, ethical and unethical?

The answers to many of these questions might be substance around which policies should be written and communicated.

Frequently, the most difficult policies to write are those that reflect or derive from values. Often, where disagreement surfaces in policy development, conflicting values will be the cause. In the examples in Exhibit 7.2, policy development will be difficult because the values that underpin the policies are both complex and incongruent with one another.

EXHIBIT 7.2 Examples of Conflicting Values

Values Conflict 1

- We believe that volunteering is about caring for others, about simple motives to do good and help one's neighbors in times of need. It should not be overbureaucratized and overorganized.
- We also acknowledge that rules and regulations around volunteer involvement—rules on topics such as application processes, thorough screening, and discipline and dismissal—have become necessary to protect the well-being of both volunteers and clients. Higher standards of transparency and accountability in health and human services make tighter controls unavoidable. These necessitate increased bureaucracy.

Values Conflict 2

- Like many voluntary organizations, our mission is based on the struggle to obtain and preserve the values of inclusivity, individual rights and freedoms, and antioppression in all of its manifestations. We believe that we have an obligation to extend those values both to our programming (e.g., outreach and equality of access) and to our internal operations (e.g., hiring and promotions practices).
- We also believe that clients have the right to demand from us services of the highest quality. Yet what is our response when a client refuses to accept the services of a volunteer on grounds typically prohibited by human rights legislation (the volunteer is the "wrong" age, the "wrong" gender, the "wrong" color, the "wrong" sexual orientation, etc.)?

Will we comply and find another volunteer and thereby collude with beliefs and behaviors that contradict our deeply held values regarding discrimination, or will we stand firm and refuse to reassign a volunteer, failing to fulfill our mission to deliver services without discrimination? When profound beliefs that run to the very heart of organizational existence clash with one another, the first step toward resolution is to recognize that the source of disagreement is values in conflict. Having identified the problem, the organization must engage in a values sort—a process whereby values are prioritized, with those that emerge on top serving as the basis for policy development. While one may abhor the very notion of downgrading the importance of a core value, when core values are in conflict with one another, forward motion may be impossible without prioritization.

POLICIES AS RULES Policies can be employed as rules to specify expectations, regulations, and guides to action. The distinction between policies as rules and policies as risk management often blurs. That is, a policy written to eliminate or reduce a specific risk might sound like a rule. A policy written because a rule is needed to guide a particular action may serve to reduce a specific hazard. The solution to this seeming confusion is this: Do not worry about it, because it simply does not matter. The point is that one develops whatever policies are needed; if some policies serve more than one function, all the better.

> ***Intimate/Sexual Relationships and Sexual Contact***
> *Volunteers do not under any circumstances engage in any form of sexual or romantic relationship, activities, touching, or physical intimacy with patients. Such behavior is always both unethical and inappropriate. Noncompliance with this prohibition is grounds for immediate dismissal/termination of contract.*
>
> ***Volunteers and Picket Lines***
> *In the event of a union-initiated work stoppage or legal strike, volunteers do not cross the picket line.*
>
> ***Family Members as Volunteers***
> *Family members of staff are allowed to volunteer with the institution. When family members are enrolled as regular volunteers, they normally will not be placed under the direct supervision of, or within the same department as, other family members who are employees.* (Minnesota Historical Society, n.d.)
>
> ***Substitution***
> *If a volunteer is unable to fulfill a position responsibility, the anticipated absence or shortcoming is reported with as much advance notice as possible to his or her immediate supervisor or the director of volunteer resource management, who ensures that a replacement is found or other suitable arrangements made. It is neither the responsibility nor the right of volunteers to find or assign an alternate person to perform their work.*
>
> ***Acceptance of Gifts***
> *The work of volunteers often engenders gratitude among clients. It is understandable that some clients and those who care for them wish to express their thankfulness through gifts to the people who have been so helpful. However, acceptance of personal gifts by volunteers is prohibited to prevent, and prevent the perception of, exploitation of clients and/or their families and caregivers and to protect both the reputation of the agency and its volunteers from accusations of favoritism or personal gain.*
>
> *Volunteers do not accept gifts from clients, their families, caregivers, or other representatives. Any such offerings are respectfully and tactfully declined, citing, as needed, this policy as the basis for their action.*

Financial Transactions with Clients
Volunteers do not enter into financial transactions with clients, their family members, or caregivers, either lending or borrowing in either direction. If clients are in immediate financial need, the director of volunteer resources management is notified, and referral is made to appropriate community services.

Safety Equipment
Volunteers comply with all safety regulations. Dismantling or disabling safety measures such as smoke alarms, chain brakes, saw fences, and so on are strictly forbidden. All appropriate safety gear must be worn, including hard hats, steel-toed boots, protective eye wear, hearing protection, and respirators. Failure to appropriately use all safety equipment or to comply with all safety regulations may be grounds for disciplinary action, up to and including dismissal.

To determine required policies of this sort, the director of volunteer resource management might spend time reviewing existing rules, both written and unwritten. Review past records such as memoranda, volunteer job descriptions, and volunteer performance review documentation to identify where rules have been articulated or directives issued. Also think about advisements or directives issued verbally to volunteers that have never been written down anywhere but that nonetheless reflect "how we do things around here." Review staff policies, health and safety regulations, and accident reports (to identify where things may have gone wrong in the past).

POLICIES AS PROGRAM IMPROVEMENT TOOLS On occasion, it may be useful to upgrade an expectation, a protocol, or a standard to the level of a policy, to give it more authority and import. This technique is useful where an activity is important but is perhaps not seen to be important by, or at least warranting the attention of, those expected to comply. Time sheets are an excellent example.

Volunteers mail or deliver their activity logs to the director of volunteer resource management within five working days of month-end.

Sometimes policies can be used to ensure that a program operates smoothly or to improve the effectiveness of a program or service. This policy on expectations of volunteers will enhance the service delivered:

Volunteers are expected to work within the parameters of their own volunteer job description while on duty with the agency. However, regular contact with clients can allow volunteers to make important observations about changes in the health and well-being of clients. Agency policy requires volunteers to report such observations to the director of volunteer resource management who takes appropriate action.

And this policy on wait lists commits the organization to speedy response and decreases the likelihood of losing volunteers between the time that they express interest and the time they actually get involved:

Wait List

Because prospective volunteers typically want to become active as soon as possible, the _______________ [name of organization] attempts to engage people quickly through continuous intake. Only if volunteer opportunities are not immediately available or initial volunteer training is not available quickly do we maintain a wait list of interested prospective volunteers. If the wait list becomes lengthy, we make every effort to help volunteers find alternate placements in the community. This is preferable to losing them from volunteering forever.

Implementing a policy that speaks to the operation of the program does not, of course, guarantee compliance, but the weight or import of stating an expectation in the form of a policy can help. It will also provide a basis for pursuing consequences in the case of noncompliance.

Acceptance of Supervision

Upon acceptance into service, volunteers agree to willingly accept supervision and support from designated supervisory personnel.

Failure or refusal by a volunteer to accept supervision and/or to integrate the direction of the supervisor into his or her volunteer work performance may be grounds for disciplinary action up to and including dismissal.

To pinpoint which policies of this sort are required, the director of volunteer resource management might identify aspects of the volunteer program that are not operating as effectively or efficiently as desired. Perhaps a policy might help.

Equality or Elitism? Policy for Direct Service and Administrative Volunteers

In agencies where policies have been written to guide volunteer involvement, rarely do those policies apply equally to direct service and administrative (board, committee, advisory) volunteers. In the same way that so many board members refuse to consider themselves as volunteers (do they consider the label below them?), board members often think of themselves as outside (above?) the scope of policies written for volunteers. This type of two-tiered elitism among volunteer ranks has left administrative volunteering beyond both the control of, and the protection afforded by, risk management programs and policy development. The consequences can be dangerous. Consider the next examples.

- Board members are rarely screened; formal application and interview procedures are rarely required.
- Reference checks on board members are rarely required, even of those board members who have significant financial responsibilities—treasurers and comptrollers, for example.
- The involvement of board members is rarely monitored, even though their actions and decisions are among the most important and influential in the organization.
- Board members are rarely disciplined or dismissed, even when clear cause exists.

It is recommended that the scope of policies written for volunteer programs be extended to cover all volunteers equally. Exceptions need to be identified clearly, and only with justification.

Policy Development Process

The precise way in which policies are drafted, reviewed, revised, approved, and implemented varies a good deal from agency to agency. In some agencies, the board will hold within its own mandate anything that even remotely resembles a policy. In other agencies, the executive director (chief executive officer, chief operating officer, or other senior staff member) may determine that drafting policies for board approval is his or her own responsibility. Some agencies may have a policy committee that oversees all matters of policy for the agency. In other agencies, senior administration (paid and unpaid) may welcome the research, advice, input, and drafts from frontline staff regarding policies with broad applicability, allowing more specific policies or policies with limited scope to be developed and implemented by department staff. Although none of these policy development systems is inherently right or wrong, it is probably best if organizations develop an internal culture that welcomes notification of the need for policy development, review, or revision from all agency personnel, paid or unpaid. It is not helpful for volunteers to think of policy as out of their realm or somehow "above them." People actually doing the work are often those most likely to identify risks, the need for improvements, or the need for rules or added protections.

Role of the Director of Volunteer Resource Management

It is important for the director of volunteer resource management to determine how policy development is typically handled in his or her organization. The director will thus be able to determine just what role he or she can play in policy development. There is no question, however, that the director of volunteer resource management is primarily responsible for identifying policy issues related to volunteer involvement and for bringing those to the attention of senior staff and administrators. At a minimum, it would be unethical not to report hazards or risks, or to fail to do everything possible to ensure the safety and well-being of all volunteers.

With few exceptions, senior administrators, paid and unpaid alike, have little knowledge of the details, complexities, or scale of volunteering as it actually occurs within their organizations. This makes getting the attention of senior administrators more difficult, to be sure, but it is all the more reason why the director of volunteer resource management must take the initiative in policy development for volunteer programs. The process may have to include a good deal of education regarding the true dimensions and significance of volunteer work. Reference to personal and collective liability exposure will often motivate board members and senior staff to listen more closely.

Ask for Help

As volunteer programs grow larger, as risks and liabilities grow, and as volunteers become engaged in increasingly sophisticated and even technical work, directors of volunteer resource management have more and more complexities to oversee. And changes and growth outside the volunteer department create new demands as well.

It is simply unreasonable to expect any single individual to have expertise in all the areas in which volunteers are engaged, especially in large organizations, in organizations with large or diverse volunteer programs, or where volunteer involvement might take place in an array of settings or even countries. Developing policies for volunteer programs can require skills and background in a wide range of fields, including:

- Human resource management
- Labor law
- Contract law
- Human rights legislation
- Risk management
- Statistics
- Insurance
- Information management
- Emergency extraction
- International politics and cultures
- Athletics
- Fundraising
- Planning
- Occupational health and safety
- Systems analysis
- Liability
- Accounting
- Education and training

How many directors of volunteer resource management who do not work in healthcare settings know enough about communicable diseases and universal precautions to develop policies and procedures on that topic; yet virtually every volunteer program where volunteers come into direct contact with other people probably requires such policies. How many directors of volunteer resource management know enough about liability and insurance to guarantee maximum coverage and protection?

No one should expect or be expected to know enough to develop all policies alone, so ask for help. People from all walks of life generally are willing to volunteer for short-term positions as pro bono consultants. Ask them to prepare a draft policy, to work with you and/or other agency representatives to draft a policy, or to review or edit an existing draft. After all, directors of volunteer resource management are experts at volunteer recruitment—they just do not think, as often as they might, about recruiting volunteers to help them with their own work.

How to Write Policies for Volunteer Programs

Policy development is deceptively complex. It requires the identification of the full range of topics on which policies are required. It demands extraordinary writing skills that blend both the science of stating exactly what is intended with the art of appropriate style and tone. Probably nowhere else is precision of meaning more critical and the overall tenor of the document is so critical to success of the effort. Managing policies on an ongoing basis—revisions to existing policies and the continuous identification of emerging issues—requires commitment. Setting a climate in which policies are framed to engender voluntary compliance, ensure clear communication, ongoing monitoring, and unflinching response in the face of noncompliance are all critical pieces of the policy landscape.

This section looks at policy writing. It discusses the overall structural approach to policy development and offers a range of how-to tips on effective policy-writing practices.

Structure of Policies

How policies are to be physically structured is a matter of great variation. One approach is to prepare only the policy statement and, where appropriate, the corresponding procedure(s). At the other end of the spectrum, policies can be multipart creations that include preambles, background factors, values statements, clarification of scope, embedded definitions, and a range of control and tracking mechanisms for authority, approval, implementation timelines, and revisions.

As with so much about policies, there are no ideal structures that suit all settings. The manner in which the policies pertaining to volunteer involvement are written should, in most cases, parallel the style and structure of other organizational policies, unless, of course, there is a clear reason for departure. The complexity of the structure of policies will depend on a range of variables, including:

- The overall culture of the organization (e.g., how bureaucratic, how definitive and proscriptive)
- How extensive the volunteer program
- How risky and complex the work of volunteers
- The nature of volunteer roles
- The complexity of the overall volunteer program management system (e.g., one coordinator compared to a multilevel, multidepartment, multisite, decentralized and staff-supported engagement model)

The general rule is that the approach to policy development should fit the setting.

An outline of a range of structural elements of a policy is presented next. Not all of these elements must be in place, either in all organizations or in all policies. Choose only those elements that fit your organizational culture, make sense, and add value in your environment.

CONTEXT: BACKGROUND/PREAMBLE/STATEMENT OF PROBLEM/STATEMENT OF COMMITMENT This element sets the context for the policy topic. It might be a statement of the problem that is giving rise to the policy. It may include background information or context needed to fully understand the issue that the policy addresses. It may be the "because" answer to the question "Why this policy?" It may set out the organizational values that inform the policy. Here are a few examples of context sections.

Preamble to a Volunteer Center's Volunteer/Paid Staff Division of Labor Policy

Damage is being done to volunteer programs and the volunteer movement, and volunteers and volunteerism are being exploited through the deployment of volunteers in positions that ought to be performed by paid staff. (The policy might prohibit the Volunteer Center from referring prospective volunteers to organizations that have a history of displacing paid staff and engaging volunteers in substitution.)

Background to a Respectful Workplace Policy

The City of Calgary is committed to creating and sustaining a vibrant, healthy, safe and caring work environment. To do so, all people . . . are to be treated with respect, honesty and dignity. Behaviour and/or situations that run contrary to such treatment will not be tolerated.

The City recognizes that conflicts, disagreements or inappropriate behaviours will occur. We expect these issues to be resolved in a manner that contributes to a healthy and productive workplace.

The City of Calgary promises to respond quickly to complaints about inappropriate behaviour in the workplace, and to resolve issues speedily, openly, honestly, and with appropriate consideration for privacy and confidentiality. (City of Calgary, 2005)

Preamble to an Extensive Screening Policy in an Organization with Many Positions of Trust

Volunteer screening is a critical component of both human resources management and risk management. We strive to maintain a safe and productive workplace with honest, trustworthy, reliable and qualified volunteers who do not present a risk of harm to themselves, other persons, or the reputation of the organization as a whole.

Context to a Volunteer Compliance Policy

Any responsible employer and/or service provider must strike a balance between respecting the dignity, rights, and comfort of its personnel and client population, and its legal and ethical obligations to deliver safe and efficient services to fulfil its mission. Sometimes satisfying both sets of obligations equally is very difficult, and tough decisions need to be taken. This is the case, when, for example, volunteers' interests, motivation and good will exceed the boundaries of their defined *volunteer role or when clients have legitimate needs that fall outside of the mandate of the agency's services.*

Statement of Values that Inform a Volunteer Training Policy
Volunteer training is essential to effective service delivery, volunteer satisfaction, organization-wide risk management. We believe that both the organization and its volunteers have the right to ensure that training leads to satisfactory volunteer performance.

PURPOSE The purpose statement is slightly more specific than the context statement. It speaks to what the policy aims to achieve.

For example, in reference to the excerpt from the City of Calgary's (2005) Respectful Workplace policy cited earlier, the purpose of the policy might be stated as:

Purpose: Respectful Workplace Policy
To promote, create, and maintain a safe and respectful working environment for all personnel, clients, and publics connected to our operations and services.

To take timely and appropriate action on all concerns or complaints regarding disrespectful behaviour in the workplace

The purpose statement in the context for the volunteer compliance policy, above, might be:

This policy on compliance exists to ensure that the organization's mission is achieved, the organization's values are upheld, services are of maximum effectiveness, risks are managed, operations are efficient and cost-effective, and exposure to liability is limited.

POLICY This is the actual policy statement (e.g., rule, expectation, behavior, prohibition, etc.). If any or all of the preceding elements are included, the policy statement may be very short and to the point. Another option is to weave some of the preceding points (e.g., context, values, etc.) into the policy statement itself. Here are a few examples of straightforward policy statements. They are about simple topics that really need no frills.

Volunteer Resignation
Volunteers may resign from their volunteer service at any time. Volunteers who intend to resign provide as much advance notice of their departure as possible along with the reason for their decision.

Environmental Respect
All volunteer activities strive to adopt practices that conserve energy and reduce pollution and dependency on natural resources (e.g., fuel, electricity, water).

Volunteers and the programs through which they function strive to model good socially responsible practices and to reduce, reuse, and recycle materials and services wherever possible.

Alone Time
Volunteers avoid, wherever possible, spending alone time in private settings with young program participants. Instead, volunteers create alternate arrangements, such as meeting in a public place or in settings where other adults are present, or meeting with young participants in groups.

Screening Authority
Screening and acceptance decisions are made by authorized persons only, typically the director of volunteer resource management.

EXAMPLES Depending on the complexity of the subject matter and the potential for genuine misunderstanding or ignorance pertaining to it, policies may include examples to illustrate precisely what the policy intends. This may be of particular use when the policy pertains to behavior or necessitates a change in attitude or performance from the commonly accepted practice in place before the implementation of the policy in question.

For example, the City of Calgary (2005) respectful workplace policy provides examples of appropriate and inappropriate behaviours in the workplace.

Policies on discipline and dismissal often include sample grounds for various transgressions up to and including dismissal. A partial list as illustration follows.

Grounds for Disciplinary Action, Including Dismissal
Following is a sample list of possible grounds for dismissal. This list is for illustration purposes and is not intended to be complete or comprehensive. Individual situations vary, and supervisors and the director of volunteer resource management use discretion and good judgment in all decisions regarding possible volunteer dismissal.

- *Harm, abuse or mistreatment of clients, coworkers or other persons*
- *Gross misconduct*
- *Serious misjudgement that may undermine our trust in the volunteer, cause harm to others, or diminish public trust in the organization*
- *Insubordination including failure or unwillingness to perform essential position responsibilities*
- *Failure and/or unwillingness to accept direction from authorized supervisory personnel*
- *Being under the influence of alcohol or illegal drugs while on volunteer duty or representing the organization*
- *Dishonesty, theft, or other illegal acts*
- *Loss of license or certification required to perform assigned duties*

Caution: Be very careful not to portray any sample list or illustration of prohibitions as exhaustive or complete. Volunteers will undoubtedly find a way to do something inappropriate that seemed either too obvious or too remote to include on the list.

Here is part of a policy on bullying that includes examples of bullying behavior:

Bullying

Bullying includes:

- *Name calling, verbal taunts, gossiping, and put-downs*
- *Exclusion from a peer group*
- *Threats and intimidation*
- *Extortion or stealing of money and possessions*
- *Physical violence and attacks*

No matter how it is defined, bullying is abuse.

PROCEDURES Procedures set out the how-tos for the policy. For example, what are the steps, processes, and actions required to implement the policy? Not all policies have procedures. Most procedures are preceded by a policy statement. Procedures may be simple single steps, such as where, when and how volunteers hand in their time sheets. Procedures may be complex with multiple components, multiple players, and multiple time frames, such as the procedures involved in screening for positions of trust or delivering corrective action for a serious transgression that ultimately may result in dismissal.

Procedures ought to be clear, straightforward, practical, sequenced, and actually work in everyday application.

SCOPE/EXCEPTIONS Not all policies apply to all volunteers or to volunteers in all programs or at all work sites. For example, volunteer engagement and support processes designed for headquarters may not be appropriate in a campus setting or for overseas placements. And while it would make sense for an organization that engages volunteers in environmental cleanup work to have a policy on appropriate dress and safety gear (e.g., gloves, helmets, and safety boots) while on duty, that policy clearly does not apply to the reception volunteers who work at the front desk in the organization's headquarters. The lesson is, beware statements such as "all volunteers . . . " or even the blanket-style "volunteers . . . " which implies "all volunteers," unless that is precisely what you mean.

Policies need to be adjusted according to position responsibilities. For example, policies on topics such as screening, training, and supervision need to be written in such a way as to allow adjustments for the demands and risks associated with the work of various volunteer positions. Screening of volunteers who work in positions of trust must be thorough and intensive; screening of single-event volunteers who merely hand out brochures or provide drinks at the rest stops of the fundraising marathon do not require anything near that degree of intensiveness.

Equally, some policies apply to the engagement of direct-service/frontline volunteers while other volunteers may be exempted from such policies or standards. For example, all frontline volunteers in positions of trust are subjected to an intensive screening process that might involve application form, interviews, identity verification, reference checks, criminal record check, and qualification check. Prospective board volunteers are recruited bypassing most of those steps. It may not be ethical or organizationally or fiscally prudent, but it happens all the time.

Where not all policies apply to all volunteers or to all volunteers equally, the scope of the policy or exceptions thereto are required. Examples of scope statements include:

> ***Policy Scope***
> *This policy applies to all of the following people and places: . . .*
>
> ***Training Exemption***
> *Volunteers who have received equivalent training in a similar setting may be exempted from certain training requirements.*
>
> ***Grandfathering Exemption***
> *As of their date of effectiveness, new screening policies apply equally to existing volunteers. Any volunteers currently in positions for which screening requirements will increase are subjected to all provisions of the new policy that apply to their position(s) and must complete their screening upgrades within one month of the date of effectiveness of the new screening policy. This policy does not apply to interviews and reference checks, two screening mechanisms that do not have to be performed with existing volunteers.*
>
> ***Weapons Policy Exception***
> *Volunteers do not carry or have in their possessions or belongings any weapon as defined in the Criminal Code of Canada. This includes . . .*
>
> ***Exceptions:***
>
> 1. *Cultural or religious artifacts, the possession of which is protected in law, such as the Sikh kirpan, are subject to the same safety provisions specified in law.*
> 2. *Other exceptions to this policy may be granted by the department director for bona fide educational or instructional purposes, including, for example, tools or chemicals used by volunteers in the laboratory setting, providing that all reasonable safety precautions and risk mitigation strategies are in place.*

RESPONSIBILITY Who does what with each dimension of the policy statement or procedure (e.g., who communicates, who supports, who monitors, who verifies, who follows up, who applies consequences, who documents, etc.)?

CONSEQUENCES OF NONCOMPLIANCE The penalties for not following the policy are communicated. This section may be brief, such as:

Compliance with this policy is mandatory.

or

Failure to comply with this policy will result in corrective action consequences up to and including dismissal.

or

This is a zero tolerance policy. Failure to comply will result in immediate dismissal.

This section may be more detailed, including for example, the outline of various types of corrective action, depending on the nature of the breach of policy (e.g., willful, deliberate; breach constitutes an illegal act; inadvertent mistake with minor consequences; etc.). It may also outline a process for first time non-compliance versus repeated failure to abide by the policy, reflecting a graduated response process for handling non-compliance. For example, a low-level first time offense such as a volunteer showing up late for a shift may attract a low-level supervisory response; a volunteer's lateness for an extremely important and time-sensitive position might attract a more serious intervention, even on the first occurrence; repeated breaches of the same policy are likely to attract increasingly more serious disciplinary intervention.

DEFINITIONS Depending on the subject matter, a set of definitions and or interpretations may be necessary, either for a single policy or for a set of policies. For example, this subsection of a larger risk management policy needs a definition of a legal term:

Duty of Care
The ________________ [name of organization], its staff and volunteers, have a duty of care to the youth we work with.

"Duty of care" can be defined as a legal obligation to take reasonable measures to care for the safety and well-being of our clients to an appropriate level or standard.

Here are other examples:

Age of Majority
The age of the youth we work with affects the standard of care required of us. Young people who have not yet reached the age of majority are subject to a more rigorous standard of direction, oversight and supervision than the older residents in our care.

"Age of majority" is the threshold of adulthood as it is conceptualized and recognized in law. Due note is taken that the age of majority varies by

jurisdiction. For our purposes, the age of majority of the youth we work with is the age of majority as legally defined in the jurisdiction where the youth normally resides.

Bullying
"Bullying" is defined as repeated, aggressive behavior by one or more people that harms others physically and/or emotionally.

TRACKING It is common for organizations to embed tracking information in each policy statement. For example, any of the listed information might be included:

- Policy number
- Policy title
- Under the authority of
- Approved by
- Effective date
- Revision date(s)
- Department
- Business unit

Revision dates are particularly important for version control.

A sample of what the overall policy structure might look like is presented in Exhibit 7.3. Be sure to customize this format to suit the structure and conventions of your own organization.

Seven Principles of Writing Policies

Seven principles of writing policies are presented next. Some speak to the structure of policy statements, some are matters of grammar, and some have to do with tone and presentation. In application, these principles together make for clearer, crisper, and often more compelling policies that can be, at the same time, more palatable.

BE CONCISE Write as much as is required for the policy to be clear and comprehensive. Remember, however, that the longer the policies and the thicker the policy manual, the more intimidating the topic will be and the less likely that policies will be read and used regularly.

BE CLEAR Policy writers must take great care to ensure that the policies they develop convey precisely and completely what is intended. Do not assume that the people reading and applying policies will understand them to mean what was originally intended.

Terms that may be in common usage within an organization may not be familiar to volunteers from different walks of life, country, or culture or whose first language is different from the dominant organizational language. For example, what constitutes harassment? What would discriminatory behavior look like? What constitutes threatening or violent behavior? What does punctuality mean—Not later than the time of expected arrival? Within five minutes of expected

EXHIBIT 7.3 **Policy Template**

<table>
<tr><td>Policy Number:</td><td colspan="2">Policy Title:</td><td>Under the Authority of:</td></tr>
<tr><td>Effective Date:</td><td>Revision Date(s):</td><td>Approved By:</td><td>Department:</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">1. Context*</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">2. Purpose</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">3. Policy</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">4. Examples*</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">5. Procedures</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">6. Scope</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">7. Responsibility</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">8. Consequences*</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="4">9. Definitions*</td></tr>
</table>

*Optional

arrival? Within a half hour of expected arrival? Showing up at all? Sending a friend in one's stead?

Avoid technical terminology and jargon. Where it is necessary to use technical terms, explain them, either in the text or in an attached glossary.

Beware acronyms. They are a common and useful shorthand for insiders but an offputting and exclusionary practice for newcomers and others not as involved in the day-to-day workings of the organization.

Policy writing involves an artistic touch along with technical ability and clear communication. Not everyone possesses this talent. If policy development is not your forte, enlist help. Clarity and tone are equally critical in this domain. Recruit a volunteer who has written policy professionally.

WRITE IN THE PRESENT TENSE It is recommended that policies be written in the simple present tense. Many policy writers use the future tense in their work. For example,

> *Volunteers will call into the office immediately whenever they encounter a situation which is outside their scope of authority, capacity, or position description.*

In the present tense, this policy would read:

> *Volunteers call into the office immediately whenever they encounter a situation which is outside their scope of authority, capacity, or position description.*

The force and import that a full set of policies written in the present tense can convey is remarkable. Policies written in this style seem to leave no room for interpretation and communicate the sense that what they require *is* the reality. Consider these examples, written in the present tense.

> *Volunteers dress appropriately for the conditions and the nature of their volunteer duties, maintaining a high standard of personal appearance, hygiene and grooming at all times.*

> *Volunteers are reliable and punctual. When expecting to be absent from a scheduled duty, volunteers inform their supervisor as far in advance as possible so that alternate arrangements may be made.*

> *Volunteers do not accept gifts from clients, their families, caregivers, or other representatives. Any such offerings are respectfully and tactfully declined, citing, as needed, this policy as the basis for their action.*

The reader may note that all of the original (i.e., not adapted from outside sources) policy examples in this chapter are written in this format.

Be certain to use the same tense throughout the policy document. When editing, be sure to look out for "wills". They creep in.

It is not uncommon to find a host of "musts," "shalls," and "ought tos" peppering sets of policies. They should be avoided.

BE DIRECTIVE Policies should very clearly tell people what is expected. Although one would hope for complete compliance with all policies, it is obvious that compliance with some policies is much more important than compliance with others. It is appropriate, therefore, that some policies be more strongly worded and more authoritative than others. Here are some policies for which the imperative—a command—is entirely proper:

Volunteers do not give patients anything to eat or drink before patients' surgery.

At all times volunteers act in a knowledgeable manner, consistent with their training, and in conformity with the volunteer code of conduct and these policies. The agency makes every effort through a variety of mechanisms to inform volunteers of policies and other provisions affecting their work. It is the volunteer's responsibility to seek clarification where needed. Failure to know about or understand a communicated rule is no excuse—ethically or legally—for noncompliance.

Volunteers reporting for duty are expected to be able to perform assigned duties safely and acceptably without any limitations due to the use or after-effects of alcohol, illicit drugs, nonprescription drugs, or prescribed medications or any other substance. This is a zero tolerance policy. Noncompliance is grounds for immediate dismissal.

In all cases, remember that policies are policies. They are *not* suggestions or guidelines. They must be directive and commanding.

ROUND THE EDGES Without diminishing the importance of the three preceding principles, one must not lose sight of the fact that the way a policy is written can very much influence the degree to which compliance might be expected. That sometimes requires a longer and more sensitively constructed policy. For example, consider these two approaches to a workplace behavior policy:

Workplace Behavior
Workplace incivility, including aggression and bullying are strictly forbidden.

Respectful Workplace
The ______________ [name of organization] is committed to providing a work environment that promotes excellence in service provision and mission attainment through working relationships based on courtesy, civility and respectful communication. This commitment calls for a workplace where the following beliefs are upheld:

1. *Everyone at ______________ [name of organization], without exception, has an important contribution to make toward the overall success of the organization's mission.*
2. *This mission is best achieved in an atmosphere where all staff—paid and unpaid—value each other and treat each other with respect. This is true even in situations of high pressure and urgency.*
3. *Managers, supervisors, and others in positions of authority should consider themselves as role models in the promotion of such an atmosphere, without in any way abdicating their responsibility to direct their workforce to perform effectively.*
4. *In the same spirit, paid staff and volunteers at all levels should be able to discuss issues of concern without fear that those discussions will result in retaliation of any sort (see also: Whistleblower policy).*

5. *In response to input from our personnel, we will make reasonable changes to improve the work environment and/or service quality.* (Manitoba Civil Service Commission, 2008)

Keep in mind that the subject of policy development being discussed in this chapter is the work of volunteers. For this reason, it is suggested that the tone of many policies in the volunteer department be deliberately softened to be as palatable and inoffensive as possible. Note that does not mean that volunteers are subject to lower standards or granted more leeway toward noncompliance. The point is merely how the policy is written, not what it ultimately requires.

Here are some samples to illustrate how rounding some of the sharp edges of policies can make a big difference in tone.

Conflict of Interest

No person who has a conflict of interest with any activity or program of the agency, whether personal, philosophical, or financial, shall be accepted or serve as a volunteer with the agency.

An alternative might read something like this:

Volunteers are often busy people who can bring many valuable connections to the organization. They sometimes volunteer for more than one organization at the same time. It is, therefore, not unusual for volunteers to find themselves in a conflict of interest situation, regardless of whether they do administrative (board or committee) or direct service volunteering. There is nothing inherently unsavory about conflicts of interest, and they arise frequently. Any volunteer who suspects that he or she may have a conflict of interest notifies his/her immediate supervisor to discuss application of the conflict of interest procedure, a copy of which is available from . . .

Turning Volunteers Away

The agency reserves the right to decline involvement in its volunteer program by anyone it assesses to be unsuitable. The decision of the agency is final in these matters.

Versus:

While the agency may need to decline offers of involvement by prospective volunteer applicants, every care is taken in turning such applicants away, leaving intact he applicant's sense of self-confidence and dignity. In the process, emphasis is placed on the absence of a match between the gifts that the volunteer has to offer and what the position requires at the time. Alternate placement opportunities or referral to the Voluntary Action Center will be offered wherever possible.

The next series of policy statements regarding volunteer placement also conveys a deep respect for the rights and dignity of volunteers:

In determining suitable placements for volunteers, equal attention is given to the interests and goals of the volunteer and to the requirements of the agency and of the position(s) in question.

No volunteer is placed in a position for which s/he is not fully qualified or for which the organization is not able to provide adequate training.

Volunteers are fully and honestly informed of the expectations and responsibilities of their volunteer position along with any risks or liabilities the position might entail.

Volunteers are made to feel comfortable in declining a suggested placement or in requesting changes to position expectations at any point in their involvement with the organization.

These examples illustrate that many policies can be written in a positive, supportive, respectful manner while still being clear and directive. These are the artistic touches that set excellent policies apart.

EMPHASIZE THE POSITIVES Whenever possible, policies should enable, motivate, and inspire. They should articulate outside limits, leaving as much room as possible for flexibility and creativity. The presence of supportive and enabling policies can provide the encouragement and recognition that volunteers require to maximize their potential. Policies can demonstrate just how important the work is and the very real consequence of error when standards are not attained or guidelines are not followed. As Rick Lynch (1983) points out, we should never be surprised at the lack of results we get from volunteers if we never give them results to achieve.

Consider these examples.

Volunteers have the right to expect work that is meaningful and satisfying to them.

No position is too high in the organizational structure or too skilled for a volunteer, assuming the volunteer possesses appropriate skills, background, and time commitment.

No position should be considered too tedious or unskilled as long as volunteers are given a clear understanding of the nature and importance of the work to be performed.

ILLUSTRATE Do not hesitate to draw pictures, illustrate steps and sequences, or sketch methods or techniques. Diagrams and other graphic additions make the manual more pleasing to read, but, more to the point, convey specific details that words sometimes cannot.

If the preferred style of policy presentation is formal and structured like that portrayed in Exhibit 7.3, it is still possible to append graphics and illustrations after the formal statement.

Be cautious about the frivolous use of graphics and clip art. These can tend to diminish the significance of the product.

Which Policies? Which Ones First?

Policy development for volunteer programs can seem completely overwhelming, particularly for those who are starting with few or no policies. The panicky question "Oh dear! Where do I start?" is both typical and understandable in the early stages of policy development.

The first step is to outline the range of possible policy topics and then be certain that the most urgent are developed first. Following is a simple, two-step process that is equally useful to directors of volunteer resource management who are just getting started and to those who already have many policies in place.

WHICH POLICIES? Developing a list of possible policy topics is the first task. Using the policy checklist from Exhibit 7.4, the director of volunteer resource management can begin the process by listing all the items that he or she can think of. Here are some suggestions to help build the initial list.

EXHIBIT 7.4 Policy Development Checklist

Policy	Developed—Date of Last Review	In Progress	To Do	Not Applicable
1. Risk Management ■ Risk assessment ■ Risk management culture ■ Risk management committee				
2. Position Development				
3. Recruitment				
4. Screening				
5. Orientation				
6. Training				
7. Supervision ■ Format ■ Frequency ■ Documentation				

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 7.4 (*Continued*)

Policy	Developed—Date of Last Review	In Progress	To Do	Not Applicable
8. Corrective Action ■ Informal methods ■ Formal methods ■ Progressive discipline ■ Dismissal ■ Immediate dismissal				
9. Information Technology				
10. Volunteer/Paid Staff/Labor Relations				
11. Volunteer Performance and Behavior				
12.				
Additional Policies				
1.				
2.				
3.				
4.				
5.				
6.				
7.				

Instructions: Develop the top list from those already in place and from other sources. Then circulate this list to others—board members, paid staff, volunteers—and ask them add to the list and provide samples or leads to samples they might know of.

- *Contact other organizations*—sister or parent organizations, or other organizations that work with volunteers in ways that parallel the work of your volunteers or that operate services similar to those of your organization. Ask them to share their volunteer policies or their volunteer policy manual if they have one; if they are reluctant, perhaps they might at least share the table of contents, which gives a good start to outlining what needs to be considered. Offer to share back with them a copy of your final product.
- *Do an Internet search.* With a bit of patience, you can find samples on a wide range of policy topics, some of which pertain directly to volunteers and many others that can be adapted from the paid staff setting.
- *Make contact with your local Association of Volunteer Administration* (it may be called a DOVIA [Directors of Volunteers in Agencies] group, Association of Volunteer Coordinators, etc.). Attend its meetings and talk to others in your profession who may have models they would be willing to share.
- *Consult the table of contents of the author's* By Definition: Policies for Volunteer Programs (Graff, 1997). That volume lists over 70 generic volunteer program policy topics.

The brainstorming process can be prompted at this point by segmenting the policy checklist into separate sections for risk management policies, values and belief statement policies, policies as rules, and policies that will enhance the program's effectiveness.

Since this is a brainstorming exercise, no possibility should be ruled out at this point. It is also appropriate to include on this list those policies that are already in place. As possible policy topics arise, list them in the left-hand column of the policy checklist. Complete the other columns for each topic as appropriate, indicating whether the policy exists, is in progress, or needs to be developed.

There are two ways to think about developing a list of policy topics.

Who Needs Policy Guidance? First, recognize that, in essence, typically two completely distinct sets of policies are required: a set of policies to guide the management of the volunteer program and a set of policies to guide volunteers.

A few typical topics that would fall into the first set—policies about volunteer program management—are listed next. Note this is not a complete list.

- Position design
- Preparing the volunteer worksite
- Program infrastructure and systems (e.g., budgeting, information collection, reporting and accountability, risk management, insurance and liability reduction, program evaluation, etc.)
- Recruitment
- Screening
- Orientation
- Training
- Placement
- Supervision
- Performance evaluation

- Recognition
- Corrective action
- Volunteer/paid staff relations

These are policies written to guide the work of the director of volunteer resource management. The *Volunteer Involvement Cycle* (discussed in Graff, 2005) can be a helpful aid as it sets out the range of managerial and administrative functions typically in operation in volunteer programs. Most will require policy support. Additionally, the author's 2005 book specifically identifies many topics on which program management policies may be needed, as do her other two books, *Beyond Police Checks* (Graff, 1999), which includes many references to policies related to volunteer screening, and *Better Safe . . .* (Graff, 2003), which identifies dozens of policy topics related to risk management.

A second set of policies is required to guide volunteers themselves, their performance, and their behavior. A few typical topics that would fall in this policy range are listed next. Note that this is not a complete list.

- Code of conduct
- Boundaries and ethics
- Provision of service
- Representation of the organization
- Identification
- Use of organizational affiliation
- Confidentiality
- Conflict of interest
- Dress code
- Recording of volunteer time
- Staff/volunteer family members as volunteers
- Clients as volunteers
- Reimbursement
- Reliability and absenteeism
- Substitution
- Harassment
- Drugs and alcohol
- Acceptance of gifts and honoraria
- Reimbursement of expenses
- Access to agency property and materials
- Relationships with clients
- Financial transactions with clients
- Acceptance of direction and supervision
- Resignation

Policies Required to Support the Volunteer Involvement Cycle The other way to approach the identification of policy development topics is to think about policies required to support the main systems that typify most volunteer program administration. Here is a starter list of topics and examples of some of the policies that might fall in each category.

System	Sample Policy Topics
Policy about policy	Drafting, approval, review, communication, compliance, etc.
Program infrastructure	Vision, philosophy of volunteer involvement, values that underpin volunteer involvement, budget, definition of *volunteer*, information collection, communications and reporting, evaluation, etc.
Program management	Position design, recruitment, screening, orientation, etc. (as above)
Volunteer performance and behavior	As above
Information technology	Use of agency equipment, Internet use, use of own computers, taking confidential information offsite, photographs, use of cell phones with cameras, blogging or other posts and social networking about one's volunteer involvement and agency business, etc.
Risk management	Risk assessment, home visits, driving, financial transactions with clients, boundaries, incident reporting, etc.
Health and safety	Safe working environment, safety training, communicable disease, working alone, emergency procedures, evacuation, crisis communication, disaster plan (extreme weather, pandemic, etc.), incident reporting, etc.

Note that thus far the discussion has focused on general topics for policy development. Some topics may require only one policy statement—for example, dress code—while other topics, such as screening, may require a lengthy series of policy statements.

It is suggested that the director of volunteer resource management begin this process of policy topic identification. The checklist in Exhibit 7.4 is a useful tool to record the growing list. Several pages may be required. When the director has listed all that he or she can think of for the moment, the checklist can be circulated so that others—staff, volunteers, clients, supervisor, board members, colleagues, outside consultants—may add to the list. They use the bottom portion of the checklist, and since they are less likely to know what does and does not already exist, they do not need the additional columns. The right-hand column allows registration of opinions on the applicability of any policy topic(s) already on the list.

WHICH ONES FIRST? Should this process generate an enormous list, there is no reason to panic. The policies do not all have to be written at once. The next step is to prioritize policy topics so that the most urgent and/or most important policies are being developed at any given time. Items on the risk list need to be ranked on a scale of urgency, from which can follow a reordering of the list in order of greatest-to-least urgency.

Exhibit 7.5 can be used to facilitate the process and record the results. To use this tool, transfer the policy topics that were itemized in Exhibit 7.4 to the left-hand column of Exhibit 7.5.

EXHIBIT 7.5 Prioritizing Policy Development

Policies to Develop	← Assign Ratings →					
	Level of Risk	Need Value Statement	Need Rule	Need to Improve	Other (explain)	Totals
1.						
2.						
3.						
4.						
5.						
6.						
7.						
8.						
9.						
10.						
11.						
12.						
13.						
14.						
15.						
16.						
17.						
18.						
19.						

Instructions

Transfer policy topics from completed Policy Development Checklist (Exhibit 7.4).
Rate on a scale of urgency: 1= can wait to 5 = urgent, needs development immediately.
Use the "Other" column to assign urgency bonus points.
Add urgency ratings across for each row.
Work on policies with the highest ratings first.

See Exhibit 7.6 for detailed instructions applied to one policy topic.

EXHIBIT 7.6 Screening Policy Development Prioritization

This is an illustration of the use of Exhibit 7.5 applied to the topic of volunteer screening. Ask the next questions about the urgency of need for policy statements.

Risk Management

1. Are there risks associated with volunteer screening?
2. Do we expose ourselves, our clients, or the organization to liability by not having a volunteer screening policy?
3. Are our screening policies and procedures sufficiently thorough?
4. Are our screening policies and procedures so extensive that they infringe on the privacy and/or the legal rights of prospective volunteers?
5. How great are any of those risks?

Allowing for some variation depending on the nature of the work done by volunteers, the vulnerability of clients, and so on, it is likely that the risks surrounding volunteer screening will be quite high because of the need to strike a proper balance between agency responsibilities and the rights of volunteers. Consider the implications of a violent offender or a pedophile being recruited into a day care center because "He was such a nice man!" or the ramifications of accepting a fraudster as the treasurer for the board of directors. Consider as well the indignation of a well-meaning candidate when confronted with unnecessarily probing questions.

To complete the priority scale for the policy on volunteer screening, the score under the heading "level of risk" would be 5 for most programs.

Values and Belief Statements

- Do we have values or beliefs about volunteer screening that need to be articulated?

  There are always certain beliefs and positions held by organizations about volunteer screening that may seem self-evident to those in the field but are completely unknown to the general public. For example, some people still may believe that seeking to do good unto others is the only criterion one must meet to become a volunteer. Being refused would be a shocking offense. It is therefore important for the agency to be clear about its beliefs about volunteer screening, including messages about the agency's right to decline offers of involvement, the belief that the screening interview is an opportunity for mutual information exchange and assessment, and that antidiscrimination and affirmative action principles will guide assessments of suitability. The score for volunteer screening in the "Need Value Statement" column would also be high: 4 or 5.

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 7.6 (*Continued*)

Rules

- Does the organization need to identify rules around the volunteer screening process?

  Rules regarding background checks, police checks, and reference checks are very important. Are certain findings automatic disqualifiers? If a volunteer claims a specific skill or qualification, does the organization routinely verify the claim, either through a performance assessment or contact with the granter of the license or qualification? Additionally, rules (policies) are required about information gathered in the screening process (e.g., what is gathered, who can gain access to it, how is it stored, for how long, when and how it is destroyed). Since it is not uncommon to uncover and retain personal information about volunteers in the course of screening, the score in this column, headed "need rule," would be 5 for most programs.

Program Improvement Tools

- Are there ways that we could improve our screening process or its results?

  Organizations often let the screening process drag out longer than needed, and they lose volunteers whose initial interest wanes due to the delay. A policy that commits the organization to speedy contact with the volunteer as soon as initial interest is expressed and an efficient screening process that is conducted without delay can serve to decrease quite dramatically the loss of prospective volunteers through the screening process. How well the screening program is currently functioning will be a major determinant of how high the score will be in this column for screening policy.

  To summarize, screening would rate high to very high in all four columns. It is a policy topic that requires thorough attention. To illustrate, by contrast, the range in urgency scores that various policy topics might receive, the policy on whether volunteers should or should not pay for their own coffee while on duty would rate fairly low on the urgency scale.

  Use of the fifth column on the priority scale, "other," is discretionary. Special reasons may justify immediate work on a specific policy (e.g., the organization just had a serious incident in an area where policy could prevent reoccurrence; the funder is insisting that all its member agencies implement a specific philosophy of service; the manager's supervisor just came back from a course on safety in the workplace and is requiring immediate policy development on sexual harassment). Urgency "bonus points" can be assigned in this column.

  To complete the priority scale, rate each policy topic in each of the five columns, add across each row to obtain a total score for each topic, and place that total in the right-hand column. Those topics with the highest scores need to be dealt with first. Those with lower scores can wait. Transfer the list of policy topics to a separate list in order from highest to lowest score, and consider this the policy to-do list for the foreseeable future.

Tracking Drafts and Input

Once the policy development agenda has been established, the director actually can begin the process of researching, drafting, and revising policies. Some policies will be relatively easy to write; others will be extremely complex. Some will demand input from outside experts; others will involve lengthy processing and values clarification. Work on a wide range of policies can proceed simultaneously, particularly if a policy development team, including a collection of (pro bono) consultants/resource persons, is assembled to assist with the task. Depending on the number of policies required and the number in progress at any given time, tracking where each policy is in its development may become cumbersome.

Exhibit 7.7 can be used as a tool to track the progress of policies as they are being researched, drafted, revised, and approved. Use one of these forms for each policy. Track development by indicating who needs to be involved and/or consulted and who is responsible for each stage of the policy's evolution.

The form allows the director to note due dates and completion dates for various activities. Use the blank rows at the bottom to add other policy development activities that may need to be accomplished, such as external reading and editing; vetting by head office, staff, or union; and so on.

Editing Policies

Careful review of policies after they have been drafted is a critical step that is often overlooked. It is recommended that at least four people read newly drafted policies—at least the complex or multipart policies. Readers and editors from both within and outside of the field of volunteer program management will round out the editing team. Different readers can be asked to attend to different aspects of policies. For example, legal counselors or insurance advisors can be asked to review from their professional points of view. Other readers may be asked to concentrate on meaning; others may attend to mechanics and sequencing or terminology and grammar.

Regular Revision

The flexible nature of volunteering means that circumstances can change much more quickly than with paid staff, so it makes sense to review the policy every year to adapt or improve it (Volunteering England, 2002). Input from volunteers and paid staff should be invited, helping to evaluate policy relevance and usefulness. Outside expertise may also be needed in areas such as personnel management legislation and standards, legal and risk management precedents, and insurance, since volunteer activities and outside regulations change over time. Engaging a range of people in the review process helps to keep the policy a living document—even if very little is revised, the act of looking through it underlines its importance within the organization (Volunteering England, 2002). A comprehensive review at least annually is recommended, though there may be need to revise various policies between the formally scheduled annual review dates.

Exhibit 7.8 is a tool to help manage the review process. Depending on the size and complexity of the volunteer program, many policies may be in place. Reviewing them all at one time may be arduous. It may be more practical to divide the policy manual into manageable chunks, which are reviewed at different points throughout the year. Exhibit 7.8 is a tracking document based on four chunks, each arising for review in its own season, spreading the review process

EXHIBIT 7.7 Tracking Policy Development

Policy Topic:
Policy Number:
Who will be involved in drafting:

Director of Volunteer Resource Management	[ ]	Board of Directors	[ ]
Staff Department Head	[ ]	Executive Director	[ ]
Staff	[ ]	Policy Committee	[ ]
Volunteers: ______________________	[ ]	Legal Counsel	[ ]
________________________	[ ]	Insurance Advisor	[ ]
________________________	[ ]	Human Resources Advisor	[ ]
Other: ________________________	[ ]	Other: ___________________	[ ]
________________________	[ ]	Other: ___________________	[ ]

Version	Who Is Responsible	Due Date	Complete [T]
First Draft			
Second Draft			
Third Draft			
Approved Draft			
Revisions			

EXHIBIT 7.8 Policy Review Schedule

		← Begin Review→			
Policy	Date of First Approval	Spring	Summer	Fall	Winter
1.					
2.					
3.					
4.					
5.					
6.					
7.					
8.					
9.					
10.					
11.					
12.					
13.					
14.					
15.					
16.					
17.					
18.					
19.					

This system presumes an annual review of all policies. Adjust as necessary evenly across the year. This tool could be revised into only two parts or into 12 parts with a different set of policies coming due for review each month.

Compliance

A great deal of time and resources can be wasted on policy development if policies are not understood and followed. Although there is nothing one can do to guarantee absolute compliance, there is a good deal that can be done to increase the likelihood of compliance. Here are some suggestions.

SENSITIVE WORDING The way in which policies are worded can significantly enhance compliance. As noted earlier, rounding sharp edges of policies can make them both more understandable and more palatable to volunteers who might otherwise be hurt or offended by apparent absence of trust or appreciation.

STATE THE WHY Including in the policy statement the reason for its existence reminds volunteers that policies do not exist just to make volunteering more bureaucratic for those engaged in it. This is not to say that agencies must justify every policy they write or that the rationale for every policy statement must be an integral part of the policy itself. However, the rationale for some policies may not be immediately apparent to volunteers. In such cases, reference to reasons such as the well-being of clients, the importance of efficient expenditure of precious resources, the furthering of the mission of the agency, or the safety of volunteer workers will clarify purpose and reinforce the importance of volunteers' compliance. Here is an excellent example:

> *Volunteers in this program are considered as nonpaid, part-time staff, and it is expected that volunteer relationships with clients will have the same boundaries as those of paid staff. Our role is therapeutic in nature. It is not appropriate to become friends with clients. This is not to say that volunteers cannot be friendly, caring or supportive. On the contrary. The reason that relationships with clients should not lead to friendships is because the relationship is not equal. Volunteers are privileged to more power by virtue of their position with the organization. Hence, clients are in a more vulnerable role. It is normal for clients to want to establish friendships with volunteers. They perceive volunteers to be caring individuals who pay attention.*
>
> *The procedure that accompanies this policy is:*
>
> 1. *When "turning a client down" in terms of a friendship role, volunteers will do this in a supportive manner giving the basis of this policy as a reason.*
> 2. *Volunteers will notify the Director of Volunteer Resource Management whenever the nature of the friendship with a client is in question.* (Psychiatric Day Programme, 1992, quoted in Graff, 1997)

This policy clearly outlines the "why." It is unlikely that a shorter version of the same policy that reads "Volunteers are prohibited from developing social or friendship relationships with clients" would engender the same level of compliance, simply because it does not communicate sound reasons for doing so.

Make Compliance Easy

The preceding sections notwithstanding, the shorter, more concise, more clear, and more straightforward that policies are, the greater the likelihood of compliance. Policy writers need to strike a balance between policies that are short and to the point and policies that are more involved and detailed. The lesson: Write as many and as much as you need to ensure understanding and compliance, and no more.

Make Policies Accessible

Produce policies in a format that makes them easily accessible to volunteers. For example, produce a complete manual of policies and procedures for the volunteer program for administrative reference. Volunteers are, of course, welcome to consult it at any point. Extract the most critical of all policies—those that pertain to the day-to-day functioning of volunteers—and publish them in smaller handbook. If the volunteer program is diverse, it might make sense to develop a separate handbook for each type of volunteer position or for volunteers in different departments, work sites, or countries. Print a subset of the most critical policies in a pocket- or purse-size summary for day-to-day use. Distill these even further and print the policies about emergency situations on a card the size of a credit card, have it laminated, and ask volunteers to post it near the phone or the exit at each work site and carry it in their wallets and/or in the glove compartments of their automobiles. Put the most critical rules and emergency response information on the back of volunteers' name tags since they will have that information on hand whenever they are on duty.

Communicate Policies at Every Opportunity

Create and seize every opportunity to communicate with, and remind volunteers about, policies and procedures.

- Refer to policies in volunteer recruitment publicity by mentioning agency efforts to make volunteering safe and satisfying.
- Notify volunteers at the initial screening interview that there are policies, rules, beliefs, and ways of doing things that are essential to volunteering with your agency.
- Include detailed coverage of agency policies and procedures in volunteer training and ongoing training sessions.
- Be certain to assess compliance with policies and procedures as a regular component of volunteer supervision and evaluation sessions.
- Post relevant policies and procedures as reminders around the work site.
- Write articles about policies and procedures in newsletters and other communication vehicles, giving background, rationale, and implications.

Signed Agreement

As part of their acceptance into service with the organization, volunteers can be asked to sign an agreement or memorandum of understanding. This type of document requires volunteers to sign their commitment to following policies and procedures, lending greater significance to a volunteer's promise of compliance. Typically, the commitment to compliance with agency policies and procedures is one of several items included in an initial volunteer/agency agreement. A sample (Graff, 2003, Appendix G) includes mutual commitments by both the volunteer and the agency.

It is suggested that a paragraph such as this one be included in the signed agreement:

> *I, ________________ [name of volunteer], affirm that I have read, understood, and agree to comply with the policies and procedures of the ________________ [name of organization] as they are outlined . . . (in the attached job description and/or the volunteer handbook/policy manual).*

An optional paragraph such as this one may be added:

> *I understand that compliance with these policies and procedures is important to preserve the quality of service offered to our clients, and critical to the safety and well-being of ________________ [name of organization] volunteers, clients, staff, and the general public]. Further, I understand that any breach of agency policy or procedure will be taken seriously, and could be cause for discipline, suspension, or even dismissal.*

Follow Through

Consistently monitor compliance. Here are some suggestions:

- Ensure that compliance monitoring is a routine aspect of the volunteer performance review system.
- Offer speedy reinforcement, including awards for superior performance.
- Write newsletter articles about positive outcomes that have resulted from volunteers following policies and procedures.
- Act quickly when policies are breached.
- Clarify what the consequences of failure to comply will be (e.g., reminders, verbal or written warnings, suspension, dismissal, immediate dismissal).
- Do not hesitate to follow through on implementation of consequences.

Getting Started—Introducing the Policy

Once policies are written, it is critical that they become a living document used regularly for reference by volunteers and volunteer program management staff throughout the organization. Everyone needs to know the policies exist and understand their purpose. Ideally, policies become part of the everyday life of the organization.

Volunteering England (2002) recommends introducing the policies with a meeting, which gives a chance to talk people through the policies and explain their importance. The group suggests giving copies of the relevant policies to all paid staff and volunteers, including those paid staff who do not work regularly with volunteers. Integrating policies into the orientation process for both new paid staff and new volunteers guarantees that everyone receives a copy of the policies that pertain to them.

If new policies are introduced after volunteers are recruited, additional attention may be required to help existing volunteers feel comfortable with the "new rules." How policies are introduced and explained to existing volunteers is probably the most important variable in how they will be accepted. Here are some strategies:

- Meet/speak with volunteers individually.
- Explain the rationale for the policy.
- Ensure that volunteers know that the policy is applied equally to all volunteers in similar roles.
- Offer support, training, and so on if needed to help volunteers come into compliance.
- Create an implementation delay of a few weeks or months to allow volunteers to get used to the new ideas.
- Where volunteers object strenuously, offer alternate assignments that are not subjected to the new policies.
- Help volunteers find work-arounds—alternate ways of doing things that are in compliance with the new policies but that make them less intrusive, obvious, or objectionable.

Whatever adjustment strategies you offer to existing volunteers to help them come into compliance with new policies, the time ultimately will come when compliance is required. Despite time, support, and creative problem solving, some volunteers may not be able to adjust. They may need help to find another place to volunteer.

Conclusion

Now is the time to engage in policy development for volunteer programs. Because expectations of volunteers have become more complex and more demanding, volunteering in a wide range of settings now involves more risks and creates greater exposure to liabilities both for volunteers and for the voluntary agencies through which they volunteer. Policy development is a crucial risk management tool. Policies help volunteer programs to communicate values and beliefs, guide action, articulate rules, and ultimately enhance service effectiveness.

The development of a comprehensive set of policies for a volunteer program can be a serious undertaking. It is not unusual for directors of volunteer resource management to feel overwhelmed by the magnitude of the task or by the fear that crucial policies will be missed. This chapter has outlined useful practical techniques for segmenting the policy development process into a manageable plan, including guidelines for determining which policies are required. Concrete suggestions have been offered regarding how to write policies and how to increase compliance with policies. Readers are urged to overcome resistance to policy development since further delays can mean only increased risks and dangers for volunteers, clients, paid staff, and the organization as a whole.

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PART I

Volunteer Resource Program Assessment, Analysis, and Planning

The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

DIGITAL A

Volunteer Management of Governance Volunteers

Keith Seel, PhD, CVA
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Thinking about volunteers serving on boards of directors—what I will call governance volunteers—in terms of volunteer management is rare. The majority of the literature on volunteer administration (synonymous with the term "volunteer management" for this chapter) addresses practice related to service volunteers.

Literature on volunteer management as it applies to governance volunteers is largely missing. Herman (2005) surveyed the multiple questions around volunteers as governors including:

- Why governors are unpaid.
- The scope and extent of volunteering for boards of directors.
- Exploring the applicability of volunteer management practices to governance volunteers.
- Tension between service and governance volunteers.

Seel and Angelini (2010) recently addressed the issue specific to governance volunteers in arts organizations. Two points salient to the link between governance volunteers and volunteer management were made:

1. Governors and board of directors as a whole would benefit from the contribution of a certified volunteer administrator.
2. Volunteer administrators should be proactive in establishing links between governance and effective volunteer resource management (p. 18).

The authors concluded: "Volunteer resource management can and should play a larger role in cultivating and strengthening the identity of governors" (p. 18).

Likewise, literature on governance that addresses volunteer management is also rare. Research on national sports organizations (Kikulis, 2000) found that a "volunteer board is a deep structure and a core practice" but that a "performance crisis" can result in the erosion of volunteer control (pp. 308–310). Ranson, Arnott, McKeown, Martin, and Smith (2005) affirmed the central importance of a volunteer board to high organizational performance but noted that the educational boards in question were significantly underrepresenting important volunteer constituencies.

In starting this chapter, readers need to appreciate that the connection between two areas of practice—volunteer administration on one hand and board governance on the other—has not been deeply explored. As such, this chapter examines the question of volunteer administration from the perspective of governance volunteers who are the focus of our attention. To begin, the chapter examines expectations of the individuals in governance roles. A short explanation of what contemporary governance is follows to provide readers with a sense of the complexities of the work and the role undertaken by governance volunteers. An examination of the new body of knowledge associated with the profession of volunteer administration is made and connections drawn between the work and responsibilities of governance volunteers and effective volunteer administration practice. The chapter concludes with an examination of how governance can be sustained through the application of solid volunteer administration principles and practice.

Role in the Nonprofit Organization

Volunteering involves millions of people in the United States and Canada. According to *Volunteering in America 2010* (Corporation for National and Community Service, Office of Research and Policy Development, 2010), there are 63.4 million volunteers providing 8.1 billion hours of service. In Canada, (Statistics Canada, 2009), there are 12.5 million volunteers giving over 2 billion hours of service. While exact numbers for governance volunteers serving on boards of directors is not known, Herman (2005, p. 81) estimated that in the United States, there are between 4.1 million and 6.9 million such volunteers. Proportionally Canada's nonprofit sector is about 10% of its U.S. counterpart, suggesting that roughly 400,000 to 700,000 governance volunteers serve on boards of directors in Canada. In North America then, 4.5 million to 7.6 million governance volunteers serve nonprofit organizations—a number that underscores the significance of attending to volunteer management concerns for this particular group of volunteers.

Expectations

It is clear from the preceding information that there is a sizable volunteer human resource dedicated to governance responsibilities of nonprofit organizations. Governance volunteers come to their role through incorporation requirements under the legislation of states and provinces (and for some organizations, by the federal government). Exhibit A.1 presents examples of the parts of legislation that give rise to governance volunteers. Differences between states and provinces are notable. The examples are meant to provide a sense of how governments—federal, provincial, or state—establish through legislation the general roles and responsibilities of

EXHIBIT A.1 Samples of Legislation

Jurisdiction	Example of Legislation
Province of Alberta, Canada	**Societies Act** Section 9(4)(d). The bylaws that accompany the application shall contain provisions for all of the following matters: (a) terms of admission of members and their rights and obligations; (b) the conditions of withdrawal of members and the manner, if any, in which a member may be expelled; (c) the mode and time of calling general and special meetings of the society and number constituting a quorum at any of those meetings and rights of voting; (d) the appointment and removal of directors and officers and their duties, powers and remuneration; (e) the exercise of borrowing powers; (f) the audit of accounts; (g) the custody and use of the seal of the society; (h) the manner of making, altering and rescinding bylaws; (i) the preparation and custody of minutes of proceedings of meetings of the society and of the directors, and other books and records of the society; (j) the time and place, if any, at which the books and records of the society may be inspected by members.
Province of Ontario, Canada	**Corporations Act** Section 129(1). The directors of a corporation may pass by-laws not contrary to this Act or to the letters patent or supplementary letters patent to regulate (a) the admission of persons and unincorporated associations as members and as members by virtue of their office and the qualification of and the conditions of membership; (b) the fees and dues of members; (c) the issue of membership cards and certificates; (d) the suspension and termination of memberships by the corporation and by the member; (e) the transfer of memberships; (f) the qualification of and the remuneration of the directors and the directors by virtue of their office, if any; (g) the time for and the manner of election of directors; (h) the appointment, remuneration, functions, duties and removal of agents, officers and employees of the corporation and the security, if any, to be given by them to it; (i) the time and place and the notice to be given for the holding of meetings of the members and of the board of directors, the quorum at meetings of members, the requirement as to proxies, and the procedure in all things at members' meetings and at meetings of the board of directors; (j) the conduct in all other particulars of the affairs of the corporation.

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT A.1 (*Continued*)

Jurisdiction	Example of Legislation
State of Alaska, United States	**Chapter 20. Alaska Nonprofit Corporation Act** AS 10,20.081. Board of Directors. The affairs of a corporation shall be managed by a board of directors. Directors need not be residents of the state or members of the corporation unless the articles of incorporation or the bylaws so require. The articles of incorporation or the bylaws may prescribe other qualifications for directors.
State of New York, United States	**Not-for-Profit Corporation** Article 1, Section 701(a). Except as otherwise provided in the certificate of incorporation, a corporation shall be managed by its board of directors. Each director shall be at least eighteen years of age; provided, however, that a member of the board of directors of any girl scout council chartered by Girl Scouts of the United States of America, Inc., or any Camp Fire Girls club member serving as a member of the board of directors on the National Board and National Council of Camp Fire Girls, Inc. or on the local board of the Camp Fire Girls, Inc. or any member of Aspira of America Inc. or Aspira of New York Inc. serving on the board of directors, shall be at least sixteen years of age. Notwithstanding the above, a corporation organized for educational purposes primarily for the benefit of individuals below eighteen years of age may include one director below eighteen years of age who is at least sixteen years of age. Further, a corporation organized for recreational or youth development and delinquency prevention purposes primarily for the benefit of individuals below eighteen years of age may include one or more directors, the number of which shall not exceed one-half of the total number of directors for a quorum for the transaction of business, who are at least sixteen years of age but not over eighteen years of age. The certificate of incorporation or the by-laws may prescribe other qualifications for directors, provided, however, any corporation organized for recreation or youth development and delinquency prevention purposes, when increasing the number of directors between the ages of sixteen and eighteen years old to more than one, shall prescribe in its certificate of incorporation the number of such directors not to exceed the limitations of this paragraph.

volunteers filling governance roles on boards of directors. Readers should take away from the examples an understanding of both the general ambiguity of roles (e.g., legislation does not say how to do any of what is required) and the responsibilities (e.g., not complying with legislation makes governors as a whole and individually accountable) associated with the role of governor.

Bylaws are the formal set of operating guidelines—sometimes known as policies and procedures—for the nonprofit organization. It is common that government legislation requires that the board of directors develop (in the case of new nonprofit organizations), implement, monitor, and update bylaws. Frequently changes that are made to bylaws need to be passed along to the appropriate department in government responsible for overseeing nonprofit societies.

Bylaws come in many forms and cover a wide of variety of areas important to the effective functioning of a nonprofit organization, such as:

- *Definitions*. What does the organization mean by certain terms? For example, what does the term "member" mean?
- *Membership*. Setting out the types of membership, associated responsibilities, and benefits.
- *Meetings*. Identifying the main meetings of the nonprofit and setting forth how they are held and conducted.
- *Governance*. Explicit identification of responsibilities of the board as whole, individual governors, and officers (e.g., president, secretary, treasurer) of the nonprofit.
- *Financial matters*. Identification of governance-level financial management expectations (e.g., expense limits or signing authorities).
- *Management matters*. Identification of governance-level management expectations (e.g., board relation with the executive director or annual evaluation of the executive director).
- Process for amending bylaws.
- Process for dissolving the nonprofit.

Exhibit A.2 provides some examples of specific bylaws.

EXHIBIT A.2 Sample Bylaws Relating to Governance Volunteers

Canadian Example[a]	**Article 6. The Governance of the Society** **6.1.** The Board of Directors **6.1.1** Governance and Management of the Society The Board governs and manages the affairs of the Society. The Board may hire a paid administrator to carry out management functions under the direction and supervision of the Board. **6.1.2** Powers and Duties of the Board The Board has the powers of the Society, except as stated in the *Societies Act*. The powers and duties of the Board include: a. Promoting the objects of the Society b. Promoting membership in the Society c. Maintaining and protecting the Society's assets and property d. Approving an annual budget for the Society e. Paying all expenses for operating and managing the Society f. Paying persons for services and protecting persons from debts of the Society g. Investing any extra monies h. Financing the operations of the Society, and borrowing or raising monies i. Making policies for managing and operating the Society j. Approving all contracts for the Society k. Maintaining all accounts and financial records of the Society

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT A.2 (*Continued*)

	l. Appointing legal counsel as necessary m. Making policies, rules and regulations for operating the Society and using its facilities and assets n. Selling, disposing of, or mortgaging any or all of the property of the Society o. Without limiting the general responsibility of the Board, delegating its powers and duties to the Executive Committee or the paid administrator of the Society.
U.S. Example[b]	**Article IV. Board of Directors** *Section 1. Board role, size, and compensation:* The board is responsible for overall policy and direction of the association, and delegates responsibility of day-to-day operations to the staff and committees. The board shall have up to 20, but not fewer than 16 members. The board receives no compensation other than reasonable expenses. *Section 2. Terms:* All board members shall serve two-year terms, but are eligible for re-election for up to five consecutive terms. *Section 3. Meetings and notice:* The board shall meet at least quarterly, at an agreed upon time and place. An official board meeting requires that each board member have written notice at least two weeks in advance. *Section 4. Board elections:* New directors and current directors shall be elected or re-elected by the voting representatives of members at the annual meeting. Directors will be elected by a simple majority of members present at the annual meeting. *Section 5. Election procedures:* A Board Development Committee shall be responsible for nominating a slate of prospective board members representing the association's diverse constituency. In addition, any member can nominate a candidate to the slate of nominees. All members will be eligible to send one representative to vote for each candidate, for up to 10 available positions each year. *Section 6. Quorum:* A quorum must be attended by at least forty percent of board members for business transactions to take place and motions to pass.

[a]Reprinted with permission. Muttart Foundation & Alberta Culture and Community Spirit, 2009, p. 68, http://www.muttart.org/board_development_workbooks.
[b]Reprinted with permission. Minnesota Council of Nonprofits, 2006, (Ranson, Arnott, McKeown, Martin, & Smith, 2005) www.minnesotanonprofits.org/nonprofit-resources/start-a-nonprofit/samplebylawswithmembers.pdf

After the general parameters set out by legislation, the more specific operating conditions are detailed in bylaws. Together the legislation and bylaws form the two layers defining the roles and responsibilities of governance volunteers. For those experienced in volunteer administration of direct service programs, for example, it is apparent that what governance volunteers are required to carry out and the environment in which they operate is vastly different from direct service volunteers.

Because of the complexity of the legislation and bylaws surrounding governance volunteers, the work of boards often goes unseen and unappreciated. In addition, for many staff and service volunteers, the identity, role, and purpose of a board of directors is not understood. As background, then, it is important to address the question of what do these volunteers do is important.

Governance Roles

Bylaws and sometimes legislation create specific roles that governance volunteers fill by serving on a board of directors. For example, the role of "director" typically is specified as someone who has been elected or appointed to a board of directors. This is a role held by all board members. The title "chair" or "president" specifies the role of one specific person who has particular duties to carry out while serving in that capacity. Governance volunteers can have multiple roles. For example, a chair is also a director.

This chapter takes a bigger perspective on the roles of governance volunteers. Instead of going over the individual combinations of roles that may be present, it is more helpful to look at how roles cluster together in terms of what the role of the whole board is.

Chait, Ryan, and Taylor (2005) clustered the governance responsibilities of a board of directors into three broad areas:

1. *Fiduciary.* Includes mostly oversight responsibilities, such as financial management, regulatory compliance, and ensuring activities contribute to mission fulfillment.
2. *Strategy.* Includes consideration of the external and internal contexts while articulating where the nonprofit organization needs to be at some point in the future.
3. *Generative.* Includes reflecting on the relevance and meaning that the organization and its mission have for the community and those it serves.

Exhibit A.3 aligns the body of knowledge of the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration (CCVA) (2008) for the profession of volunteer administration with these broad domains of governance responsibility. This aligning demonstrates that the professional volunteer administrator has a number of skills directly related to helping governance volunteers be effective in their roles on a board of directors.

Exhibit A.3 brings together the competencies of professional volunteer administrators and governance work carried out by governors and the boards of directors on which they serve. The examples provided in the table are suggestive of endless variations in the work that boards of directors could consider where the competencies of a professional volunteer administrator would be an asset. Despite clear opportunities for a volunteer administrator assisting the board to be more effective as governance volunteers, boards are viewed as being at the "hierarchical apex of the organization" (Herman, 2005, p. 83) and beyond management interventions by staff.

Seel and Angelini (2010) found that "volunteer resource management could offer a great deal of knowledge and experience that could improve the functioning of boards of directors" (p. 18). Using that insight as a departure point, the next section provides some examples of how a professional volunteer administrator could contribute to the work of governance volunteers.

EXHIBIT A.3 **Aligning the CCVA Body of Knowledge with Domains of Board Governance**

CCVA Body of Knowledge Core Competencies	Governance Domains and Potential Connections with Volunteer Administration
Ethics. The ability to act in accordance with professional principles. Specifically: (5) Assist beginning practitioners, staff supervisors or leadership volunteers with the resolution of ethical dilemmas involving volunteers.	**Fiduciary.** Finding solutions to pressing ethical dilemmas related to current operations; ensuring basic operations are ethical. **Strategic.** Ensuring that ethical practices in human resources, programs, policies, financial management etc. are in place and monitored **Generative.** Identifying, framing, reflecting on potential ethical dilemmas that may face the organization in the future
Organizational Management. The ability to design and implement policies, processes and structures to align volunteer involvement with the mission of the organization. Specifically: A(2) Participate in the development of a vision, mission and goals of the organization. A(3) Integrate volunteer activity to achieve organizational vision, mission, goals and priorities. A(5) Collaborate broadly within the organization on projects of mutual interest, seeking to develop strategic internal relationships.	**Fiduciary.** Ensuring that the requirements of having volunteers involved in the organization are met as part of the vision, mission and goals of the organization; ensuring that commitments made to volunteers are kept and monitored; ensuring regulatory compliance and legal oversight are occurring. **Strategic.** Ensuring that the organization considers how best to engage volunteers in the work towards fulfilling the mission. **Generative.** Taking a leadership role in engaging volunteers in the work of the organization; and making sense of aligning human resources to organizational outcomes.
Human Resource Management. The ability to successfully engage, train and support volunteers in a systematic and intentional ways. Specifically: A(3) Recruit and engage volunteers for assignments that match their skills, interests, abilities and time availability. A(5) Design and implement orientation and training to meet the needs of volunteers and staff supervisors. B(3) Solicit and manage volunteer input and feedback. B(5) Apply the concepts of team building and group process. B(6) Apply the principles of motivation to acknowledge and reward volunteers and their staff partners.	**Fiduciary.** Requiring clear, transparent and explicit internal policies, processes and procedures; ensuring compliance with appropriate legislation; ensuring appropriate controls are in place and monitored. **Strategic.** Ensuring that the human resources are appropriate for the organization to be effective; ensuring that staff and volunteers understand the vision, mission, and goals of the organization; ensuring that the volunteer contributions are effective and valuable. **Generative.** Making sense of aligning human resources to organizational outcomes; identifying key questions about organizational structure and the engagement of human resources.

Accountability. The ability to collect relevant data and to engage in meaningful monitoring, evaluation and reporting to stakeholders.
Specifically:
B(1) Comply with all relevant employment, safety and human rights legislation when collecting data.
B(2) Adhere to legal requirements, regulatory requirements and best practices regarding confidentiality and privacy of record keeping, data storage and reporting.
B(3) Collect, analyze and disseminate information about volunteer activity and program to appropriate stakeholders.
D(1) Understand general legal concepts and comply with specific laws relevant to volunteers and volunteer-based organizations.
D(2) Design and implement volunteer risk management policy, procedures and tools consistent with the organization's risk management program.
E (1) Apply the concepts of continuous improvement to maximize the impact of volunteer involvement and ensure a positive experience for volunteers.

Fiduciary. Requiring clear, transparent and explicit internal policies, processes and procedures; ensuring compliance with appropriate legislation; ensuring appropriate controls are in place and monitored; ensuring that the organization is prepared for audits of its finances, programs, controls etc.
Strategic. Monitoring changing community demographics; being responsive to changes coming from funders, diverse populations, other nonprofit organizations; monitoring proposals for legal and regulatory changes; using information to plan forward.
Generative. Framing problems and considering innovative solutions; being a source of leadership around the involvement of volunteers at the board and program levels.

Leadership and Advocacy. The ability to advance individual, organizational and community goals, advocating for effective volunteer involvement inside of the organization and in the broader community it serves, through the investment of personal integrity, skills and attitudes.
Specifically:
A(1) Articulate and sustain a vision for excellence in volunteer involvement.
A(2) Create a climate of mutual respect and inclusion, recognizing diversity.
A(3) Engage volunteers in decision making, listening carefully to the opinions and concerns of others.
A(6) Implement activities that serve the community beyond the walls of the organization.
A(7) Develop strategic alliances with other organizations to meet shared community needs.

Fiduciary. Requiring clear, transparent and explicit internal policies, processes and procedures; ensuring compliance with appropriate legislation; advocating for the organization and those it serves.
Strategic. Actively communicating and promoting the mission and outcomes that of the organization; forming coalitions, partnerships and other strategic alliances to benefit the community.
Generative. Displaying authentic leadership (as opposed to management) in the community on the issues addressed by the organization; taking on leadership roles related to desired community outcomes; exploring new ways of involving various stakeholders (including volunteers) in the work of the organization.

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT A.3 (*Continued*)

CCVA Body of Knowledge Core Competencies	Governance Domains and Potential Connections with Volunteer Administration
C(2) Develop and implement appropriate advocacy strategies to influence decisions and actions related to positive and effective volunteer involvement within the organization.	
C(3) Develop and implement appropriate advocacy strategies to positively influence the community's attitudes and behavior related to volunteering.	

Source: Selected parts reprinted with permission. Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration, 2008, (Midlothian, VA: Author), pp. 3–7.

Examples of Linking Governance Volunteers and Volunteer Administrators

As with any relationship, both parties—in this case the volunteer administrator and the board of directors—make contributions to build the relationship. If one party is interested in exploring a working relationship and the other is not, an opportunity for improving practice and governance will be lost. Finding an opportunity to begin the relationship may be challenging especially if there is no organizational culture supporting board-staff relations beyond the executive director or chief executive. A few ideas for calling a first meeting between the board of directors and the volunteer administrator are presented next.

EXAMPLE 1—BOARD ORIENTATION In general, the purpose of any orientation is to provide people who are new to the organization with an opportunity to learn about how the organization operates, their role compared to other roles, policies and procedures, and so forth. For boards, an orientation does that and gives governance volunteers "a clear understanding of their governance responsibilities and a general understanding of the organization's mandate and programs" (Gill, 2005, p. 98). BoardSource (2007) found board performace to be "mediocre at best" (p. 4) with recruitment and orientation being an area of low board performance. Volunteers who receive a high-quality orientation are more likely to remain with the organization and to be effective in their role (Skoglund, 2006, pp. 217–220).

Whether orientations are done separately or with other volunteers, a volunteer administrator could develop and present consistent orientation materials for an organization. For governance volunteers, additional work may need to be undertaken to include a reasonable review of bylaws, legislation affecting operations, financial processes, and governance practices. The advantage of having a volunteer administrator conduct the orientation in partnership with the board chair or governance volunteers responsible for board development or nominations is that the process would be consistent and can be updated regularly. If board orientation is left to a potentially different governance volunteer each year, it either gets overlooked (as the survey showed) or is done on an ad hoc basis.

EXAMPLE 2—JOB OR ROLE DESCRIPTIONS Knowing what your role is within a non-profit organization is important to everyone, staff and volunteers. Kyrwood and Meneghetti (2010) wrote: "Volunteer position descriptions make clear the volunteer's responsibilities to everyone. . . . In this way, the volunteer and the members of the organization are clear on what is expected and there is a standard for supervision, training, performance appraisals and resolutions of conflict" (p. 152). While bylaws may provide a sketch of core responsibilities, they do not go into the kind of depth that many governance volunteers would like in order to be clear about their role and their responsibilities. In addition, when the board decides to evaluate its performance, well-written role descriptions allow for a more meaningful evaluation—to both the board as a whole and to the individual governance volunteer. Finally, good role descriptions are a valuable recruitment tool. Being able to explain precisely what a potential governance volunteer will be doing helps to ensure that people are suitably matched to roles.

Professional volunteer administrators have the skills to assist the board in writing high-quality role descriptions. These descriptions can then be incorporated into an evaluation system or training opportunities that the volunteer administrator could also help design.

EXAMPLE 3—TEAM BUILDING AND GROUP PROCESS In their work, Chait, Holland, and Taylor (1996) identified a common board problem as "all stars no constellation" (p. 4), meaning that even though highly talented individuals become governance volunteers, "most boards rarely practice as a team" (p. 5). The nature of board work—abstract, ends oriented, outcomes oriented—combined with infrequent face-to-face time together (e.g., monthly board meetings) make building a board team difficult.

Volunteer administrators have knowledge and skills pertinent to assessing motivations and providing the best guidance so that trust and a team spirit emerge in volunteer programs. Bringing this skill set to the board to assist with team building at the governance level would eliminate the consequences of having "no constellation." For example, improved trust and cohesion between board members would improve the board's capacity to address difficult issues, work in the area of generative governance, and respond to community stakeholders.

Conclusion

Bringing together the worlds of governance and volunteer administration would accomplish three important positive outcomes for a nonprofit organization.

1. Governance volunteers would benefit from the knowledge and skills of a professional volunteer administrator. Standard elements of a volunteer program, such as good role descriptions, could be created at the board level.
2. Consistency on foundational matters such as policy orientation or risk management would be built within the organization across all levels of volunteer engagement.
3. The human resource assets of the organization—volunteers and staff—could be deployed more effectively toward achieving the mission.

The challenge often brought forward is that governance volunteers are the "ultimate authority," meaning that inside the organization, the board of directors oversees all but is overseen by none. The board is at the top of an organizational hierarchy. Therefore, the case is made, inviting a staff person in to write governance role descriptions, for example, would be inappropriate. The board, this reasoning goes, should do its work on its own. But does this make sense when the board likely does not have the skills to do such important tasks well? Does it make sense not to use a resource that has training that can help the board? In times where all resources should be used to the greatest effectiveness, the arguments of keeping the board separate do not make sense.

Clear relationships will have to be established that ensure that the board remains autonomous and has ownership of processes related to governance. This would only make sense, since the roles of board and staff are different. As nonprofit organizations evolve, those capable of negotiating the options to bring talents to bear on issues will be those that will thrive and achieve community outcomes. The engagement of professional volunteer administrators by governance volunteers will be one of the sensible choices made by those organizations.

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DIGITAL B

Understanding the Changing Organization as a Primary Context for Volunteering

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Most work by volunteers is accomplished through organizations—existing organizations into which a volunteer is integrated, or newer organizations that develop and grow as a result of the volunteer's contributions. Many, if not most, volunteers are products of organizations, of organizational expectations, and of organizational lives. They approach their work as volunteers in a context learned from their past organizational experience. For individual volunteers and for leaders and managers of a volunteer workforce, an understanding of organization theory is helpful. Further, understanding the era of change that the world of organizations is transitioning through is helpful for anyone who seeks to produce more effective results with and through people who are willing to give their time and energy to the work of public-serving nonprofit and government organizations.

A Time of Organizational Change

The essence of today's organizational context may be summed up in the words of Peter Drucker, one of the greatest minds contributing to the discipline of organizational management: "We are in one of those great historical periods that occur every 200 to 300 years when people don't understand the world anymore, and the past is not sufficient to explain the future" (cited in Childress & Senn, 1998, p. 10). Over a mere 25 years, the organizational landscape has transformed radically. On the subject of organizational change, Warren Bennis (1999) declared, "Change is the 'godhead' term for our age," (p. 119) and the phrase "The only constant is change" has become no more than a tired cliché. According to Jerald Hage and Charles Powers (1992) in a comprehensive look at the societal shift that has taken place, both organizational workers and leaders are confronted with a new postindustrial organizational era, truly a "wholesale transformation" of industrial life as we have known it. It is a world in which technology and knowledge have become the dominant forces that are shaping society.

The implications of the tumultuous change in the organizational landscape are many, varied, and complicated. According to Lewin and Johnston (2000), "The pace of organizational change has accelerated, competitive pressures have intensified, and most organizations are now forced to operate within much more complex environments than was the case a relatively few years ago" (p. 45). One of the key realizations of these turbulent and chaotic times is that the high rate of change that organizations and people are experiencing is not going to disappear. "There are no 'kinder and gentler times' just over the horizon or around the corner. We are going to have to live with change, in our organizations and in ourselves" (Childress & Senn, 1998, p. 10). The essence of the 21st-century workplace is change—massive and relentless.

Modern management theory, according to Lewin and Regine (2000), is obsessed with change, "how to generate it, how to respond to it, how to avoid being overcome by it" (p. 15). The reason, they argued, is not hard to find. Chaos seems to reign supreme. Echoing Drucker's assessment, Lewin and Regine claimed that science, as well as management of organizations, "is in the midst of an important intellectual shift, a true Kuhnian paradigm shift that parallels what is happening in business, or, more accurately, is the vanguard of that change" (p. 17). No longer is the world viewed as linear and mechanistic with simple cause-and-effect solutions; rather, according to Lewin and Regine, for both scientist and manager, it is nonlinear and organic, and filled with complexity and uncertainty.

Most work accomplished by volunteers takes place in the context of the organization, and most organizational volunteers are employed within the context of other organizations. Managers of volunteer resource programs and leaders of the volunteer workforce can find it helpful to have an understanding of organizations and how the concept of the organization has evolved over the past several hundred years and how it continues to evolve as the world is transitioning—or, some would say, has transitioned—from one major era to another. The industrial era, with its essential principles of organization, has all but given way to the entirely new historical context, one that is alternately called the postindustrial era, the information age, the postmodern era, the age of technology, or any number of other descriptors.

However this era may be identified, it is a time of fundamental, monumental, and accelerating change: The world of organizations is changing; the work of organizations is changing; the role of the worker is changing; and the worker is changing. And these workers provide much of the volunteer workforce that is available to nonprofit and public-serving organizations. Nonprofit organizations and other public-serving organizations are not only themselves experiencing the larger transitional shift from one era to another, they are also experiencing the shift through their volunteer workers—the volunteers' needs as well as the skills and abilities those volunteers have to contribute. The role of both the volunteer and the volunteer resource manager in this postindustrial era is undergoing an elemental and enormous change. Understanding the organizational context of this change can help managers to reframe their thinking as they optimize the value that volunteers can bring to their organizations.

Understanding the Industrial Era Organization

Organizations are social units that have specific purposes. They have existed since before recorded time, and people likely have made attempts to understand or predict their success and behavior to some degree since prerecorded history. According to Jay Shafritz and J. Steven Ott in their comprehensive anthology, *Classics of Organization Theory* (2001), serious study of organizations "lay largely dormant over the centuries until society found a practical use for it," (p. 1) and that use was to help in the management of the growing industrial organizations and institutions that originated in the factory system of 18th-century Great Britain and came to dominate the 20th-century landscape. A closer look at various classic schools of industrial era organization theory, particularly their diverse underlying assumptions, major tenets, and organizational structures is helpful to highlight the similarities and differences among them relative to human nature and human beings, sources of authority and power, communication, the roles of managers and leaders, organizational boundaries, structural characteristics, and organizational success.

Classical School

Classical organization theory represents the traditional school of thought and, according to Shafritz and Ott (2001), serves as a basis on which all other schools of organization theory have been and continue to be built. It was the dominant theory in the 1930s, and it remained very influential late into the 20th century. Shafritz and Ott noted these fundamental tenets and assumptions of the classical school:

- Organizations exist to achieve economic goals through their production-related activities.
- There is a "best way" to structure an organization for production purposes, and this way can be detected through systematic, scientific inquiry.
- Production is maximized when specialization and division of labor methods are utilized.
- People and organizations act according to rational economic principles.

The works of Adam Smith (1776), Henry Towne (1886), Henri Fayol (1916), Frederick Taylor (1916), Max Weber (1922), and Luther Gulick (1937) are the most influential and representative of classical theory, and ideas from each contributed significantly to this school of thought.

Typically, in classical theory, "workers were viewed not as individuals but as interchangeable parts in an industrial machine in which parts were made of flesh only when it was impractical to make them of steel" (Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 29), this dehumanizing metaphor does not seem to be Fayol's (1949) intent when he argued the necessity of the strength garnered in developing esprit de corps among workers. On the contrary, according to Fayol: "Real talent is needed to coordinate effort, encourage keenness, use each man's abilities, and reward each one's merit" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 59). Fayol encouraged verbal communications for speed, clarity, and harmony, although Weber's bureaucracy—the crowning achievement of classical organization theory—came to be based on written and standardized rules and regulations. Taylor's scientific management principles sought to capture "the initiative of the workmen, their hard work, their goodwill, their best endeavors . . . with absolute regularity" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 65). The task of leaders employing scientific management was to "set out deliberately to train the workmen in their employ to be able to do a better and still better class of work than ever before, and to then pay them higher wages than ever before" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 66).

Weber's (1922) "traditional bureaucracy," according to Perrow (1986), became a *rational-legal bureaucracy*, the tenets of which include:

- Equal treatment of all employees
- Reliance on expertise and experience relevant to the position
- Precluding the use of position for personal gain
- Specific standards for work and output
- Extensive record keeping
- Establishment and enforcement of regulations to serve the interests of the organization
- The recognition that these rules apply to both managers and employees

Further, according to Perrow, almost all large and complex organizations may best be categorized as bureaucracies, although the degree and forms of bureaucratization may vary.

Robert Merton, writing in 1940, suggested that the primary advantage of bureaucracy was "its technical efficiency, with a premium placed on precision, speed, expert control, continuity, discretion, and optimal returns on input. The structure is one which approaches the complete elimination of personalized relationships and nonrational considerations (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 104). Organizational boundaries are clearly delineated within and apart from the environment, as displayed in classical organizational charts, and the structure is machinelike in its parts-and-whole configuration. Organizational success is measurable in output, but it is the owners or the stakeholders who must decide on the definition of *output*.

Neoclassical School

The neoclassical school, according to Shafritz and Ott (2001), built on the classical school by attacking the classicalists; the time frame for much of their activity was during the years following World War II through the 1950s. Because the classical school was based largely on theory alone with little or no empirically derived assumptions, it was an easy target, and the result of the neoclassicists' attacks was largely an extending and refining of the classical model. The neoclassical school did not have a bona fide theory to call its own, as Shafritz and Ott point out. Rather, they described it as an *anti-school*. Nevertheless, the contributions of this school to the industrial era, represented primarily in the works of Chester Barnard (1938), Robert Merton (1940), Herbert Simon (1946), and Philip Selznick (1948), began the theoretical movement that departed from the overly simplified mechanistic perspectives of the classical school and challenged its tenets in a time when classical theory was the *only* theory. The issues raised by the neoclassicists served as the underpinnings for most of the schools that followed.

Many of the challenges to the classical school were levied on behalf of the worker, upon whom the organization ultimately depends to accomplish the work. Barnard, in his 1938 work on incentives, boldly stated, "Men will not work at all, and will rarely work well, under other incentives if the social situation *from their point of view* is unsatisfactory" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 97). He argued that it was the responsibility of leadership to develop and maintain a sense of purpose and a *moral code* in the organization, along with communication systems, both formal and informal, as well as to ensure the willingness of the workers to cooperate. Selznick added that "individuals have a propensity to resist depersonalization, to spill over the boundaries of their segmentary roles, to participate as *wholes*" (cited Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 126). He further suggested that informal relations or ties of both sentiment and self-interest help to cement relationships that uphold formal authority in daily operations and help to encourage effective communication. The emphasis, as commented on later by William Scott (1961), was on various forms of communication—both formal and informal, vertical and horizontal, and by and between line and staff.

Selznick further suggested that the organization does not operate in a vacuum. The boundaries between the organization and its environment may be of considerably greater consequence than the classicists realized, and "continuous attention to the possibilities of encroachment and to the forestalling of threatened aggressions or deleterious (though perhaps unintended) consequences from the actions of others" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 128) must be maintained. In considering power and authority as well as leadership, Selznick presented the concept of co-optation, or "the process of absorbing new elements into the leadership or policy-determining structure of an organization as a means of averting threats to its stability or existence." He recognized the existence of and the conditions that breed co-optation, as well as how it can be used as a tool for the sharing of the "*responsibility* for power rather than power itself. . . . Co-optation reflects a state of tension between formal authority and social power," and as a consequence of co-optation, "the outside elements may be brought into the leadership or policy-determining structure, may be given a place as a recognition of and concession to the resources they can independently command" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 132).

Human Resource School

The human resource school of thought, according to Shafritz and Ott (2001), assumes "that organizational creativity, flexibility, and prosperity flow naturally from employee growth and development." (p. 145). The focus, according to Chris Argyris, is "on people, groups, and the relationships among them and the organizational environment. . . . [There is a] very high value on humans as individuals, things typically are done very openly and honestly, providing employees with maximum amounts of accurate information so they can make informed decisions with free will about their future" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 145). The foundational assumptions of human resource theory, according to Bolman and Deal (1997, pp. 102–103) and cited in Shafritz and Ott (2001, p. 146), are:

- Organizations serve human needs rather than the opposite.
- Organizations need people and people need organizations.

- A suitable fit between the individual and the organization must exist, or exploitation of either or both will occur.
- A good fit will provide benefit to both the organization and the individual.

Although most of its work has occurred since about 1957, the human resource school of thought was conceived much earlier through the unanticipated consequences of the Hawthorne experiments accomplished by the Elton Mayo team during the late 1920s and early 1930s, as documented by F. J. Roethlisberger in the 1939 and 1941. Another very early contribution was Mary Parker Follett's landmark treatise from 1926 on the giving of orders (Shafritz & Ott, 2001). Additionally, Abraham Maslow outlined his hierarchy of human needs in 1943. While it has been attacked for its simplicity by critics, it remains the germinal work on human motivation—suggesting that all humans are motivated by needs and that these needs fall into a specific hierarchy. Once lower-level needs are satisfied, they no longer serve to motivate behavior; rather, a higher-level need will take over as the motivating force (Shafritz & Ott, 2001).

Douglas McGregor (1957) is credited with ushering in the explosion of work in the human resource school with his Theory X and Theory Y assumptions, which concern the premise that managerial assumptions cause employee behavior. Theory X argued that people "dislike work and will avoid it if possible . . . [They] must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to work. . . . [People] prefer to be directed and to avoid responsibility, and will seek security above all else" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 148). McGregor's Theory Y, however, argued that people like work, that work provides a sense of satisfaction, that people will demonstrate self-direction and self-control if they are committed to the organization's objectives, that they will seek and accept responsibility, and that their potential is usually quite underutilized in the workplace (cited in Shafritz & Ott). According to McGregor, "the essential task of management is to arrange organizational conditions and methods of operation so that people can achieve their own goals *best* by directing *their own* efforts toward organizational objectives" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, p. 183).

The dangers of *groupthink*, particularly as it relates to the responsibility of leaders, are offered by Irving Janis (1971), along with the steps to prevent or remedy its taking over in an organization, most notably during a time of crisis. Communication serves as a major key in combating groupthink; however, the individual must overcome the pressure of the group and prevent self-censorship regarding misgivings on an issue. According to Janis, the "reliance on consensual validation within the group tends to replace individual critical thinking and reality testing, unless there are clear-cut disagreements among the members" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 189).

The human resource school is the most optimistic of the various theories regarding the value of people in the workplace. As early as 1926, Mary Parker Follett was arguing for participatory leadership. According to Shafritz and Ott, the "beliefs, values, and tenets of organizational behavior [in human resource theory] are noble, uplifting, and exciting . . . [and] the perspective developed into a virtual movement" (2001, p. 150), or cause. Times, however, are changing. Bart Victor and Carroll Stephens (1994) argued that all was not well regarding the human side of the organization in "the brave new world of the 21st century organization, networked, information rich, delayered, lean, hypercompetitive and boundaryless" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 193). The organizational commitment to the worker, they suggested, is being "thoroughly violated, [yet] the employee is expected to exhibit feverishly enhanced commitment to the organization" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 195). They sounded a warning that the human side of organization must be addressed or there will be grave consequences.

"Modern" Structural School

The "modern" structural theorists, according to Shafritz and Ott (2001), concern themselves with many of the same issues as those of classicists Fayol, Taylor, Gulick, and Weber, and their foundational thinking is much the same. They are, however, "modern," and as such have built on the concepts of organizational efficiency, rationality, and the production of wealth using the newer tenets added to organization theory by the neoclassicist, human resource, and systems schools of thought. The basic assumptions were described by Lee Bolman and Terrance Deal (1997) and include these:

- Organizations are rational and their purpose is to accomplish specific objectives through systems of defined rules and formal authority with controls and coordination being key for maintaining their rationality.
- There is either a "best" or a most appropriate structure for any organization, depending on its objectives and its environment and its technology for production.
- Specialization and the division of labor increase quality and quantity of production, especially in operations that call for highly skilled workers.
- Most of an organization's difficulties are caused by structural flaws and can be solved through structural change. (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, pp. 197–198)

Tom Burns and G. M. Stalker (1961) addressed the key issue of structure, suggesting that mechanistic systems are appropriate to stable conditions and organic systems are appropriate to changing conditions and that "the beginning of administrative wisdom is the awareness that there is no one optimum type of management system" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 204). In a similar vein, Arthur Walker and Jay Lorsch (1968) wrestled with the issue of organizing around product or function, concluding that the solution must lie in analyzing "the multiple tasks that must be performed, the differences between specialists, the integration that must be achieved, and the mechanisms and behavior required to resolve conflict and arrive at these states of differentiation and integration" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 221).

The influence of Chester Barnard's humanistic tenets are injected in the modern structural school through the work of Peter Blau and Richard Scott (1962), who described the formal and informal organization and noted that the nature of social relations involves various patterns of social interaction and people's feelings about each other and that the status of each group member depends on his or her relations with others. "As a result, integrated members become differentiated from isolates, those who are widely respected from those who are not highly regarded, and leaders from followers" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 207). Henry Mintzberg (1979) argued the need for an elaborated administrative hierarchy of authority that he suggested must develop middle-level managers as the organization becomes more and more complex. In addition to these *managers of managers*, Mintzberg argued that there is a need to separate the *technostructure* and the support staff from the middle-line managers. Mintzberg's concept of the middle-line manager is that he or she "performs all the managerial roles of the chief executive, but in the context of managing his own unit . . . the job becomes more detailed and elaborated, less abstract and aggregated, more focused on the work flow itself" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 229). Mintzberg described the responsibility of the chief executive, or "the strategic apex," as ensuring that the mission is accomplished effectively and that those to whom he or she is accountable are satisfied. The chief executive had, according to Mintzberg, three sets of duties: (a) direct supervision, including roles as resource allocator, disturbance handler, monitor, disseminator, and leader; (b) organizational boundary conditions management—the organization's relationships with its environment; and (c) development of the organization's strategy (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 227).

Elliott Jaques (1990) cited similar critical features for which managers must be held accountable: for (a) subordinates' work as well as their own added value; (b) sustaining a team that is able to do the job; (c) "setting direction and getting subordinates to follow willingly, indeed enthusiastically. In brief, every manager is accountable for work and leadership" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 237). Little is mentioned regarding communications in the "modern" structural school of organization. Most comments are incidental regarding "feedback" or juxtaposing informal-formal communications at various strata of organizations. From the lack of prominence of communications in the literature of this school, it would appear that the fairly intricate structural designs assume the act of communication.

Systems School

The systems school, according to Shafritz and Ott, began to dominate organization theory when Daniel Katz and Robert Kahn articulated the concept of organizations as open systems in 1966, followed shortly by James Thompson's 1967 discussion of the contingency perspective and rational systems. Information systems, computers, the use of statistics and a variety of measurement tools may have served as contributing factors to what became the conventional thought in organization theory for the next several decades. The underlying assumptions of systems theory include the applicability of general systems theory to organizations and the use of tools and techniques to quantify and explain the "complex relationships among organizational and environmental variables and thereby to optimize decisions." Systems theory "views an organization as a complex set of dynamically intertwined and interconnected elements, including its inputs, processes, outputs, and feedback loops, and the environment in which it operates and with which it continuously interacts" (Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 242). It further suggests that organizational cause-and-effect relationships are complex and multidimensional and that those various relationships are dynamic and constantly adapting to their environment if they are to survive. Likewise those relationships have a reciprocal effect, in that their actions and decisions modify the environment in which they function.

Systems theory relies heavily on quantitative analysis to identify optimal solutions through the use of a variety of tools, methods, and models, including statistical probability models for use in decision making and other organizational processes. Because of the reliance of systems theory on technology, serious philosophical differences emerged between its theorists and those of the human resource school, according to Shafritz and Ott (2001), but by viewing most organizations as "open systems," Katz and Kahn (1966), as well as Thompson (1967), were able essentially to mediate and merge the various perspectives of the classicists, the neoclassicists, the human resourcists, and the "modern" structuralists.

Power and Politics School

The power and politics theory of organization, according to Shafritz and Ott, rejects as "naive and unrealistic, and therefore of minimal practical value" (2001, p. 298), the assumptions of rationality held by both the "modern" and systems schools. In particular, according to Jeffrey Pfeffer (1981), one can distinguish the power model if there is "no overarching organizational goal . . . or even if such a goal does exist, decisions are made which are inconsistent with maximizing the attainment of the goal" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 314). In power theory, organizations are "viewed as complex systems of individuals and coalitions, each having its own interests, beliefs, values, preferences, perspectives, and perceptions" (Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 298) constantly competing for scarce resources and thereby experiencing frequent conflict. Influence is the critical tool or "primary 'weapon' for use in competition and conflicts."

Shafritz and Ott (2001) suggested that in the power and politics school of thought, goals are the end result of individuals' maneuvering and bargaining; they are not established by formal authority. Loyalties shift easily and cross both horizontal and vertical boundaries as activities are pursued in ad hoc coalitions. Legitimate authority is viewed as "only one of the many available sources of organizational power, and power is aimed in all directions" (Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 299). Henry Mintzberg (1983) suggested that there are five general bases of power, including control of (a) a resource, (b) a technical skill, or (c) a body of knowledge; (d) legal prerogatives, or exclusive rights or privileges to impose choices; and (e) access to those who can rely on the other four (cited in Shafritz and Ott, 2001, p. 354).

John French and Bertram Raven (1959) also identified sources of social power and suggested that the more useful focus to explain power attraction and resistance is in the reaction of the recipient agent rather than the agent possessing the power. French and Raven's five power bases include (a) reward power; (b) coercive power, or its perception; (c) legitimate power, or organizational authority; (d) referent power, or association with others who hold the power; and (e) expert power, earned through knowledge or ability. They concluded that the use or perception of power from each the different bases has different consequences relative to attraction and resistance (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 300).

Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1979) argued that power is "the ability to mobilize resources (human and material) to get things done" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 343) and that leaders can accomplish more when they marshal power appropriately. They may also suffer from powerlessness if they lack supplies, information, and support; and powerlessness, or perceived powerlessness, can be a more substantive problem than the abuse of power. Kanter further developed the concept of empowerment, of growing one's "productive power" by sharing it, and she argued that "sharing power is different from giving or throwing it away. Delegation does not mean abdication" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 351).

Organizational Culture School

Another organization theory "counterculture," the organizational culture school, also rejects the assumptions made by both the "modern" structural school and the systems school, according to Shafritz and Ott (2001). Organizational culture theory assumes that behaviors and decisions are "predetermined by the patterns of basic assumptions that are held by members of the organizations." These assumptions form the unquestioned basis for organizational behavior and "may continue to influence organizational decisions and behaviors even when the organization's environment changes. . . . They are so basic, so pervasive, and so completely accepted as 'the truth' that no one thinks about or remembers them." Rather than being controlled by rules and regulations, people are "controlled by cultural norms, values, beliefs, and assumptions" (Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 362).

The organizational culture school suggests that "knowledge of an organization's structure, information systems, strategic planning processes, markets, technology, goals, and so forth can provide clues about an organization's culture, but not accurately or reliably" (Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 362). This school rejects the quantitative methods of the "modern" structural and systems schools "for studying organizations, mainly because these methods have produced very little useful knowledge about organizations over the last thirty or forty years . . . [favoring rather] qualitative research methods such as ethnography and participant observation" (Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 362).

Organizational symbolism, an integral part of the organizational culture school, has three foundational tenets, according to Bolman and Deal (1997):

1. The meaning or the interpretation of what is happening in organizations is more important than what actually is happening.
2. Ambiguity and uncertainty, which are prevalent in most organizations, preclude rational problem-solving and decision-making processes.
3. People use symbols to reduce ambiguity and to gain a sense of direction when they are faced with uncertainty (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 364).

With the publication of a variety of writings in the 1980s, organizational culture theory reached a turning point almost overnight, according to Shafritz and Ott (2001). Among other works, Tom Peters and Robert Waterman's *In Search of Excellence* in 1982 and Gareth Morgan's *Images of Organization* in 1998 helped to demonstrate the importance of this school of thought. W. Edwards Deming's successful work with the Japanese finally was "discovered" in the 1980s by American business, and the total quality management philosophy and its various iterations significantly furthered the cultural school's movement. Harrison Trice and Janice Beyer's (1993) considerations for changing organizational cultures summarized much of what this school of thought rests on: "capitalize on propitious moments; combine caution with optimism; understand resistance to culture change; change many elements, but maintain some continuity; recognize the importance of implementation; select, modify, and create appropriate cultural forms; modify socialization tactics; and find and cultivate innovative leadership" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 366).

Understanding the need for an altered organizational culture is the first step in "reshaping organizations to be more flexible, responsive, and customer driven" (Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 366), and it is not one which is easily accomplished. According to Trice and Beyer: "Cultural innovation involves the duality of creation and destruction. . . . Cultural change involves a noticeable break with the past; it also inevitably involves changes in both ideologies and cultural forms." Trice and Beyer identified three types of cultural change: "(1) relatively fast, revolutionary, comprehensive change; (2) subunit or subcultural change; and (3) a more gradual cumulative but comprehensive reshaping of a culture" (cited in Shafritz & Ott, 2001, p. 422).

Industrial Era Organization Summary

Each of these seven schools of industrial era organization thought built on the schools it succeeded, perhaps even while purporting to reject the prevailing or preceding theory. Even the two "counterculture" theories, the power school and the culture school, serve to further explain the nature and behavior within the mechanistic organizations described by the earlier theories. Most of these schools, in one way or another, could be classified as "mechanistic" in approach. According to Morgan (1998), these "mechanistic approaches to organization work well under conditions when machines work well" (p. 31): when the task is straightforward; when the environment is predictable and stable; when the product to be produced is essentially unchanging; and when people must comply and behave as they are expected to behave. The limitations that Morgan delineated are that mechanistic approaches have difficulty with change and that they can result in the creation of mindless bureaucracies.

Each school of thought contributes to an overall understanding of organization theory—theory that was relevant, helpful, and dynamic during the industrial era. It certainly can be agreed that there were and are many different types of organizations; they exist in a variety of environments; and they are staffed by people whose values, skills, and knowledge differ widely. The most effective organizational form, if there is such a thing, is determined on a case-by-case basis. There is no one-size-fits-all template to overlay on organizations. While all organizations seek to produce value, to do so as effectively and efficiently as practicable, and to provide meaningful work for their employees to the degree possible, they cannot all attain these goals under the same conditions. Organizations, even small and relatively simple ones, are complex in nature. Human behavior and group dynamics combined with the efficient production of goods and/or services yield issues that those who study organizations will continue to grapple with as the environment continues to change, as the type of work that is done continues to change, and as the profile of the worker changes. The challenge at this point in history, as we transition out of the industrial era, is to evolve to yet another, more comprehensive, organization school of thought that accommodates all these varying conditions and all these changes—if that is indeed possible.

Moving to the Postindustrial Era Organization

The world of organizations is spinning through a monumentally transitional time, crossing from one era to another. The industrial era, with its fixation on scientific principles, efficiency, and command and control bureaucracy was a time of black and white with little room for gray. While some voices did sound different calls, mainstream industrial era organization theory seems to have existed in a world that was, more or less, understood by its inhabitants. As society transitions into what has been alternately call the information age, the postindustrial era, or the postmodern era, the world is confronted by change in every aspect of organizational life. There is no standard, expected, and easily recognized pattern of the single best way of organizing to accomplish work. This new era that the world is careening into could also be called the age of uncertainty. The challenge is to determine how organizations can best function in an environment where the work is different, the tools are different, the workers are different, and the world itself is different.

Tomorrow's Organizations

In Hesselbein, Goldsmith, and Beckhard's (1997) compendium of authors contributing thoughts on tomorrow's organizations, Peter Drucker (1997) provided a number of insights that united these writers. According to Drucker, increasingly in the organization of the future, people will no longer be working as employees of an organization; rather, they will be temporary or specialist workers, suggesting that society is moving to a network structure from the traditional employment structure. Ownership, as well as command and control, will be further "replaced by or intermixed with all kinds of relationships: alliances, joint ventures, minority participations, partnerships, know-how, and marketing agreements—all relationships in which no one controls and no one commands" (cited in Hesselbein et al., 1997, p. 2). Drucker, however, countered theorists who suggested that the end of the organization is near. Precisely because there will continue to be a great deal of ambiguity, flexibility, and variation in the new organization, he argued that much more clarity would be needed regarding mission, values, strategy, goals, and results as well as decision-making authority and command during times of crisis. While new organizational thinking is needed, Drucker asserted that the organization as a unit of society that gets work accomplished is needed more than ever. Above all else, organizations are social; they are comprised of people; therefore, the purpose of the organization must be more than economic; rather, its purpose must be "to make the strengths of people effective and their weaknesses irrelevant" (Hesselbein et al., 1997, p. 5).

In his contribution to Hesselbein et al.'s peek into the future, James Champy (1997) suggested that if the pace of change was leaving one breathless, then one needed to learn to breathe differently. He declared that form no longer need follow function; that organizations must reinvent their entire business, rather than merely a few of their processes; communication throughout the organization must be thought of in terms of conversation; boundaries must be more porous; and the company must be agile and able to sustain change. In the same futuristic context, Michael Hammer (1997) suggested that security, stability, and continuity are out; freedom and personal growth are in. Further, according to Hammer, obedience and diligence are no longer relevant. Working hard, he suggested, no longer matters; rather, results matter, and instead of protection, an organization owes its employees opportunity and growth. In the same volume, Ric Duques and Paul Gaske (1992) stressed the importance of acting small, particularly ensuring that arrogance, which frequently comes with size, has no place in the organization of tomorrow. Client loyalty and retention translates to "managing the business with zero defections" (Hesselbein et al., 1997, p. 36); and agility, flexibility, and responsiveness are necessary to sustain that loyalty and encourage organizational growth. Jeffrey Pfeffer (1997), another contributing author to this visionary work, predicted that retaining and building capacity would require keeping employees who possess the organization's tacit knowledge, plus the experience and commitment necessary to make the organization successful. He added that those organizations must possess the courage to be different because "following the crowd will probably not permit an organization to outperform the crowd" (Hesselbein et al., 1997, p. 50). Ian Sommerville and John Edwin Mroz (1997) summarized seven areas of competence for the new organization:

1. Committing to a higher purpose
2. Instilling responsible leadership
3. Encouraging multidisciplinary teaming
4. Forging organic partnerships
5. Promoting knowledge networking
6. Fostering a global search for the best ways of doing business
7. Embracing change

The common theme, predicted and proven: Change is everywhere, and it is here to stay.

Uncertain Times

Charles Handy—part poet, part philosopher, part deep-thinking futurist, and part organizational theorist—put forth his theories of future organizations in 1996. One of his predictions was his 1/2-by-2-by-3 rule of organizational fitness: "half as many people on the payroll, paid twice as well, producing three times as much" (p. 25). Handy suggested that as the workplace trims its employee rolls, many will become independent members of the organization's contractual support network: consultants, temps, and pieceworkers who are hired back for fees paid for work accomplished, not wages or salaries for time spent. He further discussed the "portfolio" worker, one whose assets can be illustrated in a personal portfolio that will demonstrate the value that he or she can bring to an organization. He modified the "Third Age of Living" stage of one's life to include work of one's choice that allows one to feel useful and valued, and suggested that now is the time to develop one's "portfolio" skills that will enable one to do just that. In describing the workforce of the future, Handy suggested that workers "prefer small, autonomous work groups based on reciprocal trust between leader and led, groups responsible, as far as possible, for their own destiny" (1996, p. 40).

Another primary theory that Handy put forth described federalism in terms of the workplace. He suggested that federalism deals effectively with several paradoxes of power and control: "the need to make things big by keeping them small; to encourage autonomy but within bounds; to combine variety and shared purpose, individuality and partnership, local and global" (1996, pp. 33–34). This, according to Handy, includes a center that exists to coordinate but not in terms of control. Relationships are unique and built on mutual respect and shared interests instead of on stringent controls and legal pronouncements. Federations are held together by trust and commitment to common goals. The most important of federalism's principles is *subsidiarity*, meaning that power and authority belong at the lowest point in the organization. Subsidiarity requires that leaders and managers train, advise, and support their subordinates in appropriate decision making. The reverse of empowerment, or the giving away or delegating of power, subsidiarity is the assumption—the expectation—that power must rest at the lowest point in the organization.

Evolving Postmodern Perspective

The whole of organization theory was summed up by Mary Jo Hatch (1997) through her divisions of the theory into four perspectives: the classical, the modern, the symbolic-interpretive, and the postmodern. While her focus was on the current and emerging postindustrial organizations, she presented theories from the classical period that reigned supreme during the industrial age and came to serve as the foundation for all organization theory. Hatch matched each of the four perspectives with a specific root metaphor, and it is helpful to take a look at the metaphors that explore the early perspectives to better understand the current ones.

The classical period perspective is represented by the machine metaphor, reflecting the image of the organization as a machine that has been designed and constructed by management, as engineer, to achieve specific, predefined goals. This metaphor deals primarily with structure and efficiency as well as predictability and reliability. Boundaries are clearly delineated, tasks and processes are defined, and people are slotted where they can most efficiently be "used" until they wear out or break. Clear sources of power and authority are spelled out, usually in hierarchical bureaucracies large and small, and management's job is to produce the most that the organization is capable of producing. Success is measured in things quantified through observation and historical analysis. Hatch refers to Martin Kilduff in identifying the now-popular computer metaphor as merely an updated machine metaphor. While times are changing, the machine metaphor representing the classical perspective is still alive—but not necessarily well—in today's postindustrial world.

The modern perspective is represented by the organism metaphor, reflecting the image of the organization as a living system that performs and produces and adapts for the purpose of survival in a hostile world. Management is viewed as an interdependent part of this system, but it is the part that provides authority and control, whether seen through the cybernetic model of standard setting and monitoring of activities and outcomes or through agency theory, wherein management serves its own interests. The modern perspective accepts contingency theory that there is no one best way to organize; no one-size-fits-all that will work for organizations. The organization is viewed through objective measures and is dependent on the environment for those resources that it needs to survive. Processes transform input to output, and changes in the internal or external environment affect the entire system.

Emphasis is placed on the organization's dependence on the external environment, on technology for transforming it, and on structural adaptation.

Hatch's (1997) symbolic-interpretive perspective uses the culture metaphor to create an image of the organization as "a pattern of meanings created and maintained by human associations through shared values, traditions, and customs . . . [with management as] an artifact who would like to be a symbol of the organization" (p. 52). The organization is viewed through subjective perceptions and observation of participants.

The metaphor that Hatch (1997) selected to describe the postmodern perspective is the art form of collage. This metaphor suggests that an organization theory may be comprised of bits and pieces of knowledge and understanding that are pasted together from many theoretical sources as well as one's own knowledge and experience; taken together, the resultant whole forms a new perspective, one that has reference to the past. The manager is viewed as a theorist who is at the same time an artist. According to Hatch (1997), a collage may "stimulate surprise by juxtaposing incongruous images that unleash powerful ideas and feelings capable of providing the viewer to change his or her accustomed ways of seeing and experiencing the world" (p. 54).

In addition to describing these perspectives, Hatch (1997) delineated six core areas for comparison: (a) the environment, (b) technology, (c) social structure, (d) culture, (e) physical structure, and (f) the nature of work. Environmental concepts that apply to the postindustrial era include: global competition; fragmented markets and decentralized production; consumer choice and the demand for customization; social movements and the service class; and pluralism and diversity. Technological concepts include automation and the flexibility of manufacturing, the use of computers for many organizational functions, just-in-time systems, and a focus on speed and innovation. Social structures come in new forms, such as networks, alliances, virtual organizations; they are flatter and communicate across boundaries; functions are outsourced; participation, culture, and communications provide informal means for influencing; and boundaries between internal and external units and organizations are being loosened or eliminated. The postindustrial organizational culture celebrates uncertainty and paradox, and organizational values embrace quality, customer service, innovation, and diversity. The organization's physical structure has a lower level of concentration of people and a reduction in time links between places, which encourages a global orientation. A shortening of product life cycles leads to a compression of time dimensions. The nature of the work has become complex and even frenetic; skills are knowledge based; teamwork is performed cross-functionally; there is a greater value placed on learning; and there is more outsourcing of work, subcontracting, telecommuting, and self-employment (Hatch, 1997, pp. 25–26). The world has changed from the routine, the stable, and the standardized. Bureaucratic hierarchies focused on command and control represent yesterday's model. While all four perspectives that Hatch describes exist in today's world, it becomes increasingly apparent that the postmodern perspective, the building of a model to custom-fit an organization, will likely evolve into the dominant, most viable theory. "Postmodern perspectives challenge existing orders and inspire thoughts about alternative realities while raising ethical questions and heightening consciousness through self-reflexivity. This perspective does not theorize change, it attempts to provoke it" (Hatch, 1997, p. 376).

New Meaning Through Metaphor

Metaphor is a useful tool to explore organization theories, and Gareth Morgan (1998) has done so with eight detailed organizational metaphors. By using one element of experience to understand another, "metaphor gives us the opportunity to stretch our thinking and deepen our understanding, thereby allowing us to see things in new ways and to act in new ways." However, Morgan also warned that one must be cognizant of the limits of metaphor, in that it produces one-sided insights, it creates distortions, and "while capable of creating valuable insights, [it] is also incomplete, biased, and potentially misleading" (p. 5). In addition, Morgan suggested metaphor is paradoxical by nature in that the way of seeing something becomes a way of not seeing. However, these limitations aside, the creative use of metaphor to explore concepts through a different lens can expand understanding of organizations.

Like Hatch (1997), Morgan (1998) explored organizational images as machine, as organism, and as cultures. He further identified and elaborated on five other organizational metaphors including the organization as (a) information processing brains, (b) political systems, (c) psychic prisons, (d) flux and transformation, and (e) domination. While each of these explorations holds points of interest, perhaps the most relevant to postindustrial organization theory are those regarding organizations as information-processing and holographic brains and organizations as flux and transformation. Certainly in this postindustrial age with its massive information technology structure and its resultant crushing level of available data, sorting and processing information and converting it into knowledge is a survival skill for any organization. The holographic imagery speaks to the need for knowledge within an organization to be highly specialized while still self-organizing and regenerative because its knowledge is contained in each piece of the whole. Because of the organization's flattened, decentralized, and flexible structure, there is a need for knowledge to be distributed throughout it. In the event of the loss of a knowledge worker, others must take his or her place. Morgan identified five paradoxes that derive from this metaphor, suggesting that the theorist must reconcile them: (a) logical reduction and creative expansiveness; (b) specialization and distributed function; (c) randomness that produces a coherent pattern; (d) enormous redundancy as the basis for efficiency; and (e) a highly coordinated and intelligent system that has no predetermined or explicit design. Morgan (1998) argued, "Organizations are information systems. They are communication systems. And they are decision-making systems" (p. 74).

Viewing organizations as flux and transformation, Morgan (1998) explored four "logics of change": (a) the theory of autopoiesis, (b) chaos and complexity theory, (c) circular cybernetic ideas, and (d) dialectical tensions. Autopoiesis suggests that "all living systems are organizationally closed, autonomous systems of interaction that make reference only to themselves" (p. 215) rather than being open and responsive and dependent on their environments—certainly a great departure from both modern and symbolic theory. Viewing organizations through a chaos and complexity lens allows one to consider the organization and the environment as interconnected patterns that will always produce coherent order from randomness, unpredictability, and surface chaos. Autopoiesis, chaos, and complexity theories lead to thinking about change in circular patterns "in terms of loops rather than lines and to replace the idea of mechanical causality . . . with the idea of mutual causality"

(p. 234). This allows for organizational thinking in terms of exponential change or of small changes producing very consequential results. Finally, the logic of dialectical change presses theorists to view organizations in terms of opposites and paradox. Morgan argued, "Any organization wishing to sustain a competitive advantage must recognize how its successes are going to become weaknesses" (p. 252). This way of thinking allows for new understandings of the nature, source, and consequences of organizational change.

Postindustrial Era Organization Summary

The key points of these works revolve around change, contradiction, ambiguity, and paradox and how managers can skillfully and creatively address the changes and challenges that they face. The new organization, the organization of the future—and the future is best defined as *now*, and if not *now* then *very soon*—has to deal with the postmodern world, a world that is messy and complex. There is no formula, no single organizational archetype, no template that can be superimposed as the one great way, no final solution to the organizational "problem." For too long, organization theory was considered a science, the implication being that a "best way" could be determined and studied. There can be no final science, only the acceptance of the addition of what science has considered a weak sister—art. Managers must loose themselves from the lofty notion that they are practicing a science; management is both science and art, and practitioners must take on the virtues of the artist as well as the scientist. In addition to adding the artist's eye, the scientist's eye needs to be grounded in the paradigms and metaphors of the new sciences, as described by Margaret Wheatley (1999), and be ready for the mind-boggling "messiness" of those new sciences: quantum physics, complexity theory, and chaos theory.

Efficiency and effectiveness in the new organization are drawn from its fluid, flexible, and flat nature and structure. People, specifically knowledge workers, represent the most valuable resource an organization can acquire. The workforce is a microcosm of the society—all voices are represented, and all voices are heard. Authority accompanies responsibility and accountability and is located at the lowest organizational level—if indeed there are levels. Self-determining and self-monitoring teams accomplish much of the work. Decision making is a shared responsibility.

The work of the new organization is performed in a structure—or antistructure—that may resemble a series of concentric circles, intersecting circles, circles within circles, matrices, webs, networks, or federations of units. It embraces the paradox of being both simple and complex, small while perhaps large, and able to rapidly adapt to changing conditions as necessary to embrace new projects, processes, or structures. The new organization measures its success through factors beyond market share and profitability. People work in these organizations because they choose to do so, and this choice is based on factors beyond the profit-loss bottom line. The workplace is meaningful, not rendered meaningless. There is a need for a larger purpose, social responsibility, and a contribution to the larger community. Leadership is found and encouraged at all levels of the organization. Integrity is the core value sought from all levels of leadership. Boundaries, both internal and external, are fluid and permeable; communication is free flowing. The new workplace, while it is lean, cannot be "mean," or its most valuable resource will give notice and go elsewhere.

Not all organizations can or will embrace the theories and practices that are part of the postmodern, postindustrialist era. Some do not have the resources, the technology, the time, the talent, or the heart. Some use the excuse that they are too big, too busy, too bureaucratic, too controlled by external authority, too controlled by markets, too controlled by relationships. These are the organizations that ultimately will not survive. The work is changing, the worker is changing, and the world is changing. The workplace must also change. There are plenty of options in the new era. Leaders and managers should be aware of the possible perspectives and potentialities in their organizations, and they must be willing to do the new work—the hard work—that is required in and of the postmodern, postindustrialist organization.

Implications for Volunteer Resource Managers

There is wisdom to be gained from each of the industrial era theories, and arguments can be made for bureaucracy as the crowning achievement of the industrial era. However, the industrial era, with its essential principles of organization, has all but given way to the entirely new historical context, and it is time to embrace new theories or create newer ones. New thinking must accompany the shift from the modern era to the postmodern era, the transition from the industrial age to the postindustrial age.

While this may sound groundbreaking, monumental, and dramatic—and it is—if we scan the bigger picture, the modern era has occupied a period of only about 200 to 300 years. It is time for a change, and this generation is privileged to be offered the challenge of grappling with the reality of the "brave new world" that has been ushered in during our lifetime. We are immersed in information, information technology, and information networks, but the postmodern world is not only about information and technology. Organizations are about people, and the human element is more and more critical in our organizations than ever before. Organization theory must find ways to serve the human element in the wake of the accelerating information that the initial stage of the postmodern era is driving.

The world of organizations is changing; the work of organizations is changing; the role of the worker is changing; the worker is changing; and these workers provide much of the volunteer workforce that is available to nonprofit and public-serving organizations. Nonprofit organizations and other public-serving organizations are not only themselves experiencing the transitional shift from one era to another, they are also experiencing the shift through their volunteer workers—through the needs of their volunteers as well as through the skill sets and abilities these new volunteers have to contribute. The role of both the volunteer and the volunteer resource manager in this postindustrial, postmodern era is undergoing an elemental and enormous change. Understanding the organizational context of this change can help managers to reframe their thinking as they optimize the value that volunteers can bring to their organization.

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DIGITAL C

Organizational and Programmatic Benefits from Adversity

Comprehending the Centrality of the Role of Adverse Experiences in and on the NPO and Its Programs

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In many cases adverse experiences lead people to start nonprofit organizations (NPOs), to volunteer, and certainly to access services NPOs provide or support. How might the backdrop of adverse experiences influence the organizational mindset? Can it foster an attitude of "power over" (and the perpetuation of constituents as "less than") instead of shared power and collaboration? What is the impact of adverse experiences on individuals and organizations, and how might this play out in the organizational environment? How does moving to an "experience-informed" culture reduce the risks of transferring damage?

Organizational Genesis: Why Start a Not-for-Profit?

Being moved to action by compassion, caring, or concern motivates many to start not-for-profit service organizations. The impact of personal experience with an issue, whether direct or observed, also fuels the motivation: Sometimes a person whose life is impacted by an issue is able to address that issue more effectively than someone who only knows about the issue. From these two statements, three drivers emerge as reasons for the starting of most NPOs: feeling needed, making meaning, and creating impact.

Reason One: To Feel Needed

Everyone needs to feel needed. Feeling needed bolsters self-esteem, sense of self-worth, and the feeling that one has a place in life. When we feel needed by others, when we can help meet specific needs they have, we are visible. Others' hopes and expectations that we can somehow help create that reflection in the mirror that says "I am" and "I am needed."

FEELING NEEDED AND PURPOSE Feeling needed helps fulfill that sense of purpose, which generates drive and commitment for many people. The drive to fulfill this purpose often takes shape in the environment of the NPO and in the process of rendering aid of some sort, whether funding, direct contact, or advocacy.

And if inner life is challenging, feeling needed may also serve the positive function of distracting from difficult feelings. Busying oneself with the process of serving others to avoid facing inner life is effective and carries with it positive and negative benefits. The positive, at the most obvious level, is that others receive care and the individual providing it feels good. The obvious negatives are that this can come at the expense of accessing one's own need for healing and that the act of serving may (after the fact) be devalued.

CONSTRUCTING THE FEELING OF BEING NEEDED How do people construct the experience of feeling needed? The need to feel needed acknowledges (at some level) there is some area of the self demanding attention.

It may be that we can only experience wholeness when we see our work reflected in others; that we seek to "fix" or "help" others as a symbolic means of doing the same for ourselves.

Or it may be that our need to be needed is an expression of a need to make things the way we think they "should be" to preserve some internal sense of order in our lives.

TO BE NEEDED REQUIRES OTHERS TO BE NEEDY The experience of being needed requires another person with interlocking, complementary requirements. This requirement exists regardless of each party's level of wellness and health. If no one needs you, it is hard to deal with being needed.

Can it be said that serving others through the formation of an NPO is a way to fulfill the need to be needed? Is it a pure expression of commitment to the needs of others, a selfless act of service? Might it be this personal need to be needed masked as a spiritual drive or a genuine spiritual drive, which can be identified only subjectively? Or is it simply the recognition of a place where ability meets need?

In many ways, exploring the questions is more important than the answers. Often asking such questions in search of answers skews the exploration. It is sometimes difficult to say "I need to be needed, and here are people who have needs I can fulfill—this is a personal mission." Once having set that stake in the ground, expectations abound, and they can be a burdensome cloak not easily cast off. A set of "shoulds" can develop that forever lock an individual into a mission. Questions are less prone to become cast in stone than answers, and the discomfort of an examined life can in fact create an even clearer sense of purpose.

Starting an NPO to enable feeling needed is fulfilling and rewarding. It creates a sense of doing the right thing and can bring satisfaction as well as serve others whose needs might otherwise go unmet, or perhaps be met in lesser ways. Serving others to complete the equation of feeling needed—whatever the origin of the desire to do so—is a time-honored and rewarded reason for starting an NPO.

Reason Two: To Make Meaning

Meaning is constructed in the space created in relationships. Our earliest relationships with parents and caregivers help us learn who we are and what to expect of the world around us. They help us learn how others respond to us when we are in distress and teach us how to respond to others and what to expect as a result of helping others.

PROVING THE WORLD IS AS WE BELIEVE IT TO BE Our lives are crafted from childhood on to prove that our constructs of the world are accurate. We do what is required to prove that the constructs we learn in our first years are the way the world is; part of the strategy of preserving our inner safety and sense of who we are. Thus, if we receive recognition and approval for "helping" others, this pattern becomes a natural process we seek to repeat.

While the innovative identification or invention of need can accommodate a person's experience and expectations, it requires testing to prove the construct is accurate. Will people behave as we expect them to? Will we set out to prove that what has happened is what will always happen or that it will never happen again? Will we do what is necessary to generate recognition and approval following our earliest imprint? These questions, whether overt or covert, are constant companions.

SUBJECTIVE ORDERING OF OUR WORLD The challenge of this self-fulfilling prophecy is the foundation of the need to make the meaning "right," keeping order in our world. Note that "right" can mean many things according to personal belief and ideology.

Some people move against their original self-fulfilling prophecy or perhaps the prophecies created for them by others. Their success in accomplishing lives considered unlikely or even impossible creates meaning, and sharing this meaning through an NPO may be the ideal way to increase their belief in their own success as well as to help others become more like them, which can reduce the sense of existential isolation that comes from separating oneself from prior expectations. This change in fundamental meaning is a paradigm shift.

MEANING DRIVES PARADIGMS The relationship between "meaning making" and paradigms is both simple and complex. A paradigm is a set of beliefs, expectations, and rules by which people function, which give evidence of the meaning they assign the visible and invisible world in which they live. It is also governed by the difference between the stated and the operational and by the ways in which individuals have learned to engage with the larger world.

Stated beliefs, expectations, and rules are those that are named, or identified—the overt. What some call "the way things really are" refers to the operational beliefs, expectations and rules that are often unstated and perhaps more powerful than the stated.

Meaning making is the core of the conversion of belief to action in any situation. It is intertwined with feeling needed, which is meaningful. Making meaning, which can include giving meaning to an experience, deriving meaning from an experience, or determining that "this" means "that," is often key in the foundation of NPOs.

Reason Three: To Impact a Situation

Translating meaning to practice requires the creation of form. The form is the NPO, which is designed to impact a specific condition, create a particular condition, or meet a unique need. Thus, NPOs are in many ways organizations that are expressions of meaning making.

OUTWARD EXPRESSION OF AN INTERNAL NEED This outward expression of an internal meaning or need represents moving beyond the self. Taking externalized action reinforces people's beliefs about the way the world is and their ability to affect it.

In some ways, it is proof of the rightness of the meaning people have made of their circumstances and of life. While this "proof of rightness" is subjective, it is still important to individuals, and to their need to feel needed, and it is evidence of their commitment to the cause that is of concern to them.

Individuals do the work they do for specific reasons, and when they impact situations they have deemed important, an inner pressure to effect change may be relieved. Some are so committed to the need to contribute to change that their work is done without expectation of either success or failure, it is done simply because it is worth doing.

"I CAN MAKE A DIFFERENCE" "I can make a difference" is perhaps one of the most altruistic statements anyone can make. Whether it emerges from the need to feel needed, the effort to make meaning, or the desire to impact a situation, it represents an individual's belief in their agency. To make a difference requires being seen and heard, taken seriously, and relationships in which to act. "Making a difference" is one of the core tenets of the nonprofit sector, whether as management or volunteers.

Impacting situations is a way of making a difference, making meaning, and supporting the need to feel needed that is part of being human.

Power of Connection and Relationship

Connecting and relationship are primal needs, formed through and grounded in our earliest experiences with our parents and caregivers. The transactions that occur between and among people create social reality, define the dynamics of caring and shame, and create a symbolic container for the experience of being human.

Relationships and the Self

"Self" is developed in relationship to others. A person in isolation has no feedback, no opportunity to learn how others act in similar situations or to gauge expectations of response. "Self" is molded by reactions to and responses from interactions, whether with people, animals, or the source of one's spirituality. These relationships teach us what we expect from the world and others and model how we are to respond to other. The patterns we learn drive how we expect to get our needs met, what we require to know who we are, and what we expect of others. The earliest and most ongoing expression of this is in the process of attachment, which begins with the first gaze soon after birth.

The move from utter dependence as infants to interdependence with others as adults carries the mark of early modeling. The trust (and expectations) we have of self and others is based on how reliable and predictable our relationships were from the beginning of our lives. If no one is there for us when we are in distress, what we learn about support seeking and offering support is filtered through this lens of absence of response. Our connections are based on this "dance" of "self-in-relation."

Individuals who consciously work to strengthen their relational skills recognize that the inevitable shifts in connection offer opportunities to expand skill sets and to increase the web of interdependence in life. Extending oneself to and receiving from others in reciprocity is the mark of maturing relationships.

In the NPO environment, the relationships among boards, employees, volunteers, and constituents all reflect styles of relating. From organizational fit (based on correlation of styles) to stated and operational beliefs about constituents, each interaction reflects what has been learned about what to expect from others and from the world and about how people will respond. The self is extended in the service to others, and in this service, relationships reflect attitudes, beliefs, stated and unstated expectations.

Power of Connection

The investment NPOs make in others represents a commitment to the specific needs of their constituents. Addressing those needs demonstrates that the constituents are valued and considered worthy of the care and attention that is the focus of the NPO's mission.

The power of connection defines the work of the NPO as a form of developing or increasing community. In many charitable organizations, this development of community recognizes acts of kindness and compassion as fundamental to the betterment of individuals, groups, communities, cultures, and societies.

Among constituents, the evidence of being held in esteem increases the potential for resilience and feeling worthy of life. The interplay of helping and being helped fosters the social cohesion that is a hallmark of community. Community involves connection, which engages relationship and the self.

Models of Power and Connection

POWER OVER/POWERLESS Power-over models support a feeling of superiority. To feel superior, people must believe they possess some special knowledge or gift not attributable to the other, which minimizes and demeans the other, making them somehow "less than," which is a vertical process. Vertical processes mandate connection based on control and domination.

The power-over model clearly requires a "powerless" actor in the relationship. Powerlessness is more often attributed to constituents and, if part of the dynamic, begets one party either giving up or overtaking another.

When people feel they have no value or worth to others, or when there is no hope of change, they feel powerless. They are likely to give up. Some who give up languish; others who feel there is nothing to lose may engage in risky behavior, even put themselves in harm's (physical or emotional) way.

Connection from a position of powerlessness fosters belief in self-as-victim, which feeds the need to interact with someone who has power. Recovery from adversity in life and (independently) bettering oneself or helping others better their circumstances is difficult enough without the added challenge of continued positioning as powerless.

To phrase it another way, the challenge is that "power over" and "powerless" need each other. They create a self-perpetuating cycle. These two positions represent extremes that prevent advancement and growth.

SHARED POWER The alternative to the extremes of power over and powerless, "power with" asserts that others have power equal to one's own even if in different areas. It affords others dignity and respect and requires learning as much as teaching.

"Power with" respects the knowledge others have of their own world and of their own needs, valuing culture, belief, and condition. It liberates others so that they may grow and learn. It respects differences in personal and professional expertise and values both parties equally. This model fosters connection based on authentic collaboration and choice.

There are at least two means by which "power with" is avoided. One is through asserting that it is only a possibility (not a reality) when food, shelter, and clothing are adequate. The words "only," "possibility," and "adequate" expose perceptions of superiority over another. Another means is the judging of another as somehow defective in origin, character, or physiology, effectively placing oneself as above the other.

Seldom does an organization or an individual consistently hold the position of "power with." Significant forces work against the consideration or conscious adoption of this position, including the natural consequences of damage to healthy connection (especially in early childhood) and the consequences of adverse experiences.

The power of connection is that healthy connection fosters healing and positive growth; healthy connection includes a conscious move toward shared power and the concomitant suspension of one's personal judgments in service of including the other as an equal.

Yet even the best of benevolent circumstances and experience can still incline individuals and organizations away from "power with." And since adversity is more likely to stir response from charitable organizations and other forms of NPOs, adverse—not benevolent—experiences are the focal point of this discussion.

Adverse Experiences: The Invisible Epidemic

What makes an experience adverse? In many cases, others make the determination of what is adverse. Legal codes, cultural and social mores, and deeply held personal beliefs influence what a person calls "adverse." In reality, an experience can be defined as adverse only by the person who experiences it, even when others differ in opinion.

Adversity's Many Faces

There are general categories more likely to be considered adverse by larger groups: abuses and losses (from individual to cultural), forms of militant conflict or terrorism, natural disasters, and poverty. These general categories encompass many events.

ABUSES, LOSSES, VICTIMIZATION As one of adversity's many faces, this category incorporate physical, emotional, sexual, spiritual abuse, loss, and victimization.

Abuse includes any activity one person undertakes at the expense of another with lesser power, knowledge, or authority. Fundamentally, it is the choice to use power in a demeaning way.

Losses focus on ability, income, death, housing, property, relationship, or esteem that can occur with or independent of abuses. While grief is a normal response to loss, it may be an overwhelming event that impairs an individual's usual processes. At the organizational level, sudden and unexpected losses in funding, credibility, or purpose can be devastating, and rebuilding from those in and of themselves may be traumatic.

Victimization includes events such as child abuse, criminal assaults in adulthood (rape, robbery, home invasion, identity theft), and again being used by another for their gain in a relationship or scam or generally being taken advantage of by another.

POLITICAL AND MILITARY CONFLICTS, FIRST RESPONDERS, TERRORISM People affected by events in this category include soldiers, paramilitary, noncombatants, law enforcement, fire and emergency personnel, emergency management personnel, and their families and friends. In a political conflict, no one is unaffected. And in emergencies and accidents, there are also multiple audiences. The same is true in terrorism.

While it may be an unsavory thought, consider the families of those who become suicide bombers in any country and of any persuasion. Consider the families of those who choose such extremes as immolation as a spiritual gesture, such as Norman Morrison, and the Buddhist monk in Saigon during the Vietnam War. For families—on all sides of the event—adversity spans from the anxiety of not knowing about one's loved ones to the process of recovery and reintegration after the event.

Every person touched is impacted by adverse experiences such as war, catastrophe, crime, accident, and terrorism. Each of these categories can readily include abuses, losses, and victimization. Risks occur in recruitment, training, deployment, combat, and return; in the immediate and long term response by others; in how entities assigned power might react or respond; and in the response of those whose professional identity includes providing assistance.

These risks are also part of the experience of others impacted by the conflicts or terrorism and who are engaged with law enforcement and first responders. Subtleties such as the impact of injury and chronic exposure to life-threatening stressors cannot be overestimated.

WEATHER-RELATED/NATURAL DISASTERS Extreme weather and natural disasters can occur with or without warning. "Bolt from the blue" adversities in these categories include

- Earthquakes
- Tornadoes
- Avalanches

- Lightning strikes
- Rogue waves

Those that give enough warning to respond include:

- Hurricanes
- Forest fires
- Rising water
- Tsunamis (sometimes)

Tornado watches may help increase the time to respond, yet tornadoes are exceptionally unpredictable, and even strong storms may, for those already sensitized, be overwhelming.

LIVING WITHOUT Food, shelter, and clothing are required for survival. These basic necessities may not be present at a minimum level for a growing number of people as a result of economic pressures, and often they are not present for those displaced by wars and disaster.

In 2010, homelessness, poverty, hunger, and loss of shelter impacted millions of people around the globe. Their families, friends, and acquaintances and those who observed their plight in the media were impacted by the experience of their adversity. Those responding to situations of privation are always reminded by repeated media exposure, which has a secondary impact on those who are immersed in viewing or hearing the news.

ADVERSE CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES The Adverse Childhood Experiences (ACES) study (www.acestudy.org), provides another list of experiences (occurring in the household of a person under the age of 18) that have negative impact on an individual:

- Recurrent physical abuse
- Recurrent emotional abuse
- Contact sexual abuse
- An alcohol and/or drug abuser in the household
- An incarcerated household member
- Someone who is chronically depressed, mentally ill, institutionalized, or suicidal
- Mother is treated violently
- One or no parents
- Emotional or physical neglect

There is a strong association between adverse childhood experiences and long-term physical health consequences.

OTHER POTENTIALLY ADVERSE EXPERIENCES For some, medical visits for physical medicine or dental care may be adverse experiences, depending on previous associations. The experience of being singled out, or of being symbolically made invisible; or of being part of a minority culture, such as the community of sexual minorities; or being in the minority ethnically or in terms of one's religion may also be adverse based on an individual's experience of it.

SUBJECTIVITY OF EXPERIENCE The definition of an adverse experience, while marked by some commonalities, is subjective and unique to each individual. While there may be common markers that indicate the types of experience a person may judge "adverse," there are also many unique characteristics.

Knowledge of how the experience of adversity affects individuals—and the organizations they found and lead—is critical in creating the experience-informed organization.

How Adversity Shapes People and Community

No matter how resilient an individual or community is, adversity affects all areas of life. The ACES study from Kaiser Permanente and the U.S. Centers for Disease Control shows long-term effects manifested in health problems ranging from obesity to coronary disease, cancer, risks of injected drug use, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease, all pointing toward adverse experiences and the risky behavior that often follow.

PHYSICAL CHANGES Adversity results in the dysregulation of multiple physical systems. Endocrine, cardiac, and neurological changes are well known and documented, especially when the distress of adversity causes an individual's fight-or-flight button to get stuck.

Breathing irregularities, gastrointestinal distress, sleep difficulties, musculoskeletal pain, and other physical symptoms may be related to the event of the adverse experience or to people's efforts to cope with it as they encounter reminders in their daily life and work.

Some changes are longer lasting than others. All involve the overload of stress hormones, which reduces access to the "executive control" center of the brain.

RISKY BEHAVIOR Risky behaviors used to cope with adversity also compound changes in physical health. These include self-harming behavior (from cutting to overwork) and the use of alcohol, tobacco, or any other psychoactive substance for the purpose of coping. Eating, sex, and many other behaviors—even exercise—can be used to self-soothe and self-regulate and can become problematic when overused.

PERSONAL CAPACITIES An individual's personal capacity is also affected. Self-doubt or the inability to trust one's own judgment is a common consequence of difficult experiences. Difficulty making sense of things, confusion, and distorted beliefs may also result when overwhelmed by an event.

Being unable to think or solve problems is also common at various points following adversity, with different effects for each individual based on several factors. These include developmental level at which the event occurs, strength of positive connections to others, and the internal resources the individual has and can access.

EMOTIONAL IMPACT The emotional impact of adversity can be profound. "Dangerous" may become the norm (and therefore "safe"—i.e., "the devil you know"). Individuals may develop push-me, pull-you ambivalence from longing to connect coupled with the fear of injury. Strong feelings without the skills to manage them can cause chaos or emotional shutdown, even as the individual presents as if everything is fine. Black-and-white, all-or-nothing thinking is common, representing the inability to see things on a continuum.

SPIRITUAL IMPACT At the spiritual level, adversity can result in a disconnection between beliefs and experience, challenging what an individual believes. It may result in a view of the self as deserving to be rescued or punished or even as owing a debt that only service can repay.

This need to make right and have others make right and the need to make meaning from one's difficulties is a central function in rewriting the narrative of life. Meaning making is critical in recovering and improving mental health.

RELATIONAL ABILITIES Relational abilities are the outward and visible signs of adversity that are encountered in organizational process among founders, employees, volunteers, and constituents.

Some people may have difficulty finding the balance between trust and fear. The balance of power becomes difficult to find and hold, and the expectation of injury becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy. Limits to access and resources affect the person's initial and ongoing response, which can impair relational abilities further—and it is the relational process that helps people recover from adversity and improve mental health.

STIGMA Cultural adversity has an impact on everyone who is part of the community. The institutionalized stigma that results from judging others as defective based on origin, physiology, or character becomes a characteristic associated with the community as a whole as well as with the individuals in it. And individuals may adopt the attributes projected on them. Remember that one response to adversity in communities is organizations targeting issues specific to that community.

Access and resources and are often the focus of the NPO. What they are, and how they are offered and implemented, is based on the individual and communal impacts of the adversities each experiences.

VIRAL EFFECT OF EMOTIONS Sayings such as "misery loves company" and "she spreads joy like sunshine" have been part of idiomatic language for years. Studies such as those from Harvard University illustrate the truth in both—happiness seems to spread in social networks. In the study, Nicholas Christakis of Harvard Medical School and James Fowler of the University of California, San Diego, mapped the social relationships among 5,000 Framingham Heart Study participants from data gathered over 20 years and found that when one person gets happier, the impact is felt three degrees out in his or her social circle. Sadness travels as well, although not with as much strength (http://christakis.med.harvard.edu/pdf/publications/articles/095.pdf).

How do adverse experiences, NPOs, and the viral effect of emotions relate? Adversity often brings with it negative emotions and a diminished sense of meaning.

Acts of meaning making (such as volunteerism) increase a sense of life purpose, and happiness. NPOs often mediate between the impact of adversity and meaning making for both constituents and those who work with the NPOs. This aligns with recent research by Michael F. Steger et al, who consider whether the concept of "calling," usually considered a religious experience, is applicable to work. Currently, the research indicates that a correlation between people who experience meaning in their work, psychological adjustment, and positive work attitudes. If staff and volunteers are consciously or unconsciously tending to the need to make meaning of adverse experiences, in a healthy environment that takes into consideration the impact of adversity, the effects of these efforts at meaning making will likely be viral.

MIRRORING PROCESS We mirror the people around us. As we change what we reflect to them, we create a symbolic space that changes the mirror they reflect. An antidote to feelings often evoked by adversity are feelings of satisfaction, belonging, and worthiness of life.

It could be said that when we change in the mirror, we change the reflection and in turn the mirror. We react as if we see something different, and in turn we do. An important and yet unanswerable question is "When we expect to and see something different, does it change, do we change, or are both changed??

Community, the mirror at a macro level, bears witness to experience and is a symbolic container of relationships where depth can be kindled. It is also the "epidemiological epicenter" for the viral nature of the feelings of the individuals and the impact they have on others and on the community as a whole.

Impact of Adverse Experiences on Organizational Process

From founding through closure, organizations are developing, enacting, and adjusting processes.

Organizational processes are the actions and steps required to complete a specific task that supports the accomplishment of a goal or mission. These processes involve people, technology, and systems, organizational design, adjustment to existing processes, and the management of people as they execute day-to-day tasks. In the case of the NPO, the organization has the added layer of volunteers who often provide the bulk of service delivery.

From One to Many: The Viral Nature of Mirroring

It is easier to work in a place where people have common traits and commitments. There is a higher level of comfort where people are like each other to a certain extent. When someone is too different from the majority of the individuals in a situation, others tend to become uncomfortable. Organizational leaders tend to hire people and select volunteers more like them than different, and these individuals are expected to fulfill the leadership's mission and vision.

While this accomplishes the organization's task of fulfilling its mission, it also keeps the mirroring in place. Stated and operative beliefs about one's constituency drive marketing, fundraising, service delivery, measurement, and program evaluation. Marketing to the masses must support the mission. The response generated by the marketing effort increases the strength of belief. The self-reinforcing cycle continues, seen perhaps as an organic pattern with clearly visible currents of one perspective and of another, with these patterns shifting as people believed, adopted, acted, and evaluated their experience. The mirrors and reflections in them shift, creating a dynamic landscape over the life of people's individual and collective experiences.

Symbolic Reenactment

The drive to master an adverse experience, especially when it occurs in some form of relationship—as in the case of riots, family abuse, or even a crime such as home invasion—is paramount for people who experience adversity. Mastery occurs through identifying something about the event that can be redone, reframed, or handled differently and colluding with one's environment to place oneself so as to encounter that "something" later. The saying "You gotta do it till you get it right" applies in a subtle way. It is as if the deep interior is saying "I will master this." Leaders benefit from being aware of this fact, as they recognize that everyone brings their history to the workplace.

Those who understand the role of reenactment in meaning making recognize the social judgments about repeated experiences or dynamics. People who find themselves in the same situation over and over typically face one of several judgments by others:

- "They just do that to get attention."
- "They're mentally unstable . . . they just don't want to 'get better' or change their life."
- "You can't practice what you learn about a situation until you face something similar to it again."

Reframing symbolic reenactment to a learning process changes the dynamics from shaming to supportive. It also creates a space for reflecting on the repetition (or reenactment) in a way that fosters learning for application the next time the dynamic is encountered. This is a form of mindfulness, and a conscious decision to reframe that becomes viral.

Dynamics of the Wounded Leader

The Greek legend of Asclepius, a physician, is that once Asclepius identified his own wounds, he created a sanctuary at Epidaurus to treat others. Wounded leaders who start or work in organizations where they might heal their own wounds as they help others can be assets or liabilities at any given moment in time. Whatever level of resolution and mastery they bring to the organization is likely to be the limit of the organization's capacity to respond. The same can be said for their level of resilience, openness, and skill in leading beyond any bias or consequence of their own experience.

Developing an Experience-Informed Culture

Organizational culture change involves a process of assessing the culture to determine the as-is state, defining the desired state, and implementing a series of orchestrated actions to achieve and sustain it. In the case of the experience-informed culture, this means recognizing and buying into the influence, acknowledging areas of the organization that are impacted, reframing the process, and developing organizational mindfulness.

Owning the Influence

The cardinal principle of an experience-informed culture is this: *Everyone has been impacted by adverse experience.* Everyone, from founder to the next potential member of the constituency, has been overwhelmed at some time in life. The reaction each person has is profoundly affected by his or her level and security of strong positive relationship, level of development, resources, response of others, and community culture at the time the person was overwhelmed. Nature, nurture, and culture collaborate in this response set.

Making the conscious choice to recognize that experience—and for our purposes, adverse experience—is part and parcel of every person's history makes it possible to consider how all experience impacts dynamics and processes. It creates a frame-set that is different from the assumption that all people bring their lives with them to the organization through the conscious focus.

Another aspect of this principle is that owning the influence allows flexibility in framing people, processes, and systems of service. This becomes important in organizational process in that a collaborative structure must accommodate different frames of "normal." Normal is what each person grew up with, and it varies. Overwhelming events change normal, and a person's expectations of life are based on his or her normal. To avoid creating an organization where "power over" becomes the organizational pattern, leaders must be willing to accommodate multiple models of normal. An organizational pattern that says "anything goes," however, abdicates appropriate power and models powerlessness. Either extreme is ineffective in organizational process.

Acknowledging Areas Impacted

Adverse experience can affect specific areas of an organization and its life. Human resources, relationships, coping skills, and decision making are key organizational skills impacted by a person's experience basis.

HUMAN RESOURCES In *human resources*, most people choose to work around people like themselves—the founder/leader/organizational self colors hiring and culture decisions. The hiring process, including recruiting and selection, tends toward mimicking leadership (sometimes setting up the victim-enabler-offender triangle). This happens even when selecting volunteers. Assuming everyone is "like me"—even at an unconscious level—reduces the need to challenge, confront, and collaborate, and it fosters homogeneity.

Further, the formal management of human resources and the creation and exercise of policy and procedures also reflects the personality of the organization. The difference between the stated and the operative norms, policies, and procedures can be profound. The greater the distance between what organizations say they do and what they actually do, the greater the challenge in attracting and maintaining staff and volunteers.

RELATIONSHIPS *Relationships* among staff, volunteers, and constituents are also an area of major impact. Managing conflict is an area where relational skill is critical. This area spans all organizational elements and levels. Certain styles of conflict management may be appropriate at one level yet not at another. The style of identification and management of conflict in any organization is part of its culture. That style is a direct reflection of the leadership in the organization and is expected to be adopted by all others.

Psychological development is disrupted at the point in childhood or adolescence that an adverse experience occurs. This may result in impairment of the individual's ability to identify and regulate feelings and a lack of confidence in his or her own competence and judgment. When conflict occurs, disrupted psychological development can result in difficulty:

- Identifying shades of gray or multiple options that inclines conflict to focus on more concrete issues
- Recognizing alternatives and the ability to compromise
- Making and acting on choices
- Getting on the same side of the table
- Staying present during the process
- Allowing the conflict to exist
- Choosing to believe that a win-win can occur
- Valuing friction
- Factoring in the impact of coping style

Communication—one reflection of coping skills—is another challenge in relationships. The experience of adversity can cause mismatches in people's communications. They may feel as if they are whispering when others hear them speaking loudly, or their expression may not match what they are feeling. Silence, speaking, and specific words may have multiple meanings.

COPING SKILLS The manner in which an organization member responds to work situations depends on the *coping skills* he or she uses. He or she may adhere to rigid black-and-white or a highly polarized perspective, a challenge when organizational process and service delivery may require fluidity and comfort with ambiguity. The need for and balance of choice and control can represent past experiences; if polarized, the person may not make a choice or may want to make all of the choices to control the environment. Further, the triggering of a past event in the present by something as seemingly innocuous as smell, taste, sight, sound, or touch impacts communication and relationships.

Coping skills, often stunted or redirected as a result of adverse experiences, are critical for fit in organizational culture. Supervisors and managers should remember that subordinates' adversity-influenced perception of self-worth and competency may result in their being either too sensitive or not sensitive enough to communication cues and may reduce available coping skills under stress.

DECISION-MAKING PROCESS The *decision-making process* is also affected by people's past experiences. Decision making usually focuses on satisfying the needs of key stakeholders who broker the power in the organization. Decision-making styles range from coercion to consensus. Expectations, needs, and issues particular to each person, as well as to each function, can skew this process.

People who feel they have been passed over for resources or that their needs have not been considered often make decisions from the subjective perspective of remedying their sense of "less than." Those who feel their needs have been attended to may approach decision making from a more objective perspective. Obviously, the impacts of these perceptions are compounded by the frames of reference for the individuals in each function. What meaning do people assign to receiving or being denied a specific resource? How do they separate their feelings from known facts? What suspicions do they have about facts they do not have? How open are they to considering that the end result of something they began is always subject to the unknown?

Without a conscious commitment to explore and respond to facts as the primary source, decisions are often made based on feelings at the expense of facts. Feeling good can trump a focus on facts and data when people's histories of adverse experiences are engaged, consciously or unconsciously.

For example, people freshly returned from combat or survivors of the issue addressed by the NPO may consciously know they are hypervigilant, yet when somehow reminded of their traumatic experience, their brain remembers the original event and the body responds accordingly, with a flood of stress hormones and a multitude of physiological and neurological changes.

The brain in fight-or-flight—a primitive, automatic experience when we feel threatened—reacts without the benefit of full access to its executive control center. This executive control center, the neocortex, is involved in such tasks as cognition, language, memory, thinking, and awareness of emotions.

Thus, it only makes sense that when adverse experience is rekindled in the brain, the person for whom it is kindled may be less aware of:

- Tone, pitch, and volume of voice
- Accurate ratios of time to effort
- Fact-based assessments of situations
- Forcefulness of judgment or choices
- The balance in words and tone between time-based needs (urgency) and pressure (potentially coercive)

It takes time for the brain to move from overwhelmed to available; the stress-impaired brain must somehow become conscious and accommodated in the process. While it may sound as if this is a call to institute meditation in the workplace to maintain calm, it is actually a call to organizational mindfulness.

Organizational Mindfulness

At the individual level, mindfulness is the conscious awareness of the self. Organizational mindfulness is the awareness that organizations are made up of individuals and the modeling by leadership of behavior that counters the impact of adverse experiences.

This mindfulness, or "paying attention" includes recognizing that work has symbolic meaning in many ways. It is always the place where people address issues of authority and power, simply because the employer (even when volunteering) controls access and resources and, for paid staff, income. How people behave toward others who have authority over them is determined in early life.

People work or volunteer at specific NPOs for specific reasons, of which income and fulfillment are only two. Others include feeling needed, to make meaning in their lives, or to change a situation important to them for any number of reasons. These are the same reasons people start NPOs and again are an expression of the viral nature of social networks among people.

Organizational mindfulness incorporates this knowledge in its recruitment, selection, staffing, service delivery, and evaluative processes. Organizations must remain mindful of how easy it is for personal bias to overtake what should be more objective assessment.

Organizational mindfulness also seeks to balance the awareness of the impact of personal history with the charter and mission of the organization. Everyone has experienced adversity. Everyone brings with them the consequences of adverse experiences that are overtly and covertly expressed. Many unconsciously seek out specific environments in which they may continue to master these consequences. Seldom is the stated purpose of any organization with which they engage the provision of such an opportunity. When individuals sign on to provide services through an organizational structure, they agree to rent the organization a specific set of behaviors for a specific return.

Rather than turning the organizational environment into a clinic, organizational mindfulness allows for awareness. It uses awareness to plan, execute, monitor, and evaluate processes and programs as needed, ensuring the optimization of the people it engages. It does this by

- Fostering work-life balance rather than the self-injurious tendency to overwork or overburden and unevenness in schedule.
- Modeling healthy self-care through the risk and reward process.
- Leadership modeling of the traits of people who are acting as if they grew up in environments with optimal care, support, and resources.

Reframing Process

With an awareness of the prevalence of adverse experiences and their known impact, it becomes easier to recognize that any behavior we encounter in the organization has meaning, even those that might be labeled as annoying, dysfunctional, destructive or not the norm.

The challenge is for the organization to hold an open space where judgment is suspended even as the (known) experiences of all involved are considered. What might cause a display of mistrust, for example? Is it past experiences influencing the present? Does the mistrusted person or organization have a reputation for being predictable and repeatable in behavior? Is it easier to attribute the cause to the individual rather than consider the organization?

Obviously, it would be very helpful if the mistrusting individual could examine her or his own behavior through self-questioning. Such questions would include, in this example, "Are there patterns of behavior I can't see that contribute to how I am viewed? What are they? Who can help me identify this?" "How would the people I admire the most respond to this?" "What pattern might exist in my history: Have I had previous similar situations or problems?"

If individual and organization both could devote that level of effort, much progress in human development and healing might be made. However, a simpler lens exists through which to view the issue. The question "How might this behavior serve or help [the organization] [the individual]?" is a polestar question.

From a sarcastic or judgmental perspective, the answers will be demeaning, minimizing, and derisive. Answered thoughtfully, and with openness, many other more useful answers may emerge. Each of them may provide a clue about how to capitalize on the situation for the benefit of the organization and the individual.

Reframing—the process of looking at something from a different perspective—helps reduce the risk of doing the same thing in response to the same situation and expecting something different. This popular definition of insanity has a ring of truth to it. By way of example, consider people who are unable to ask for what they need in a direct way. The resulting behavior is often labeled manipulation. How might this "manipulation" help them? An experience-informed answer could include phrases such as "It's another way to ask for what they want" or "If asking has resulted in harm, then it would be difficult to ask for what you want directly." By applying an outdated tool—the safer indirect request—to a current time, the person who "manipulates" preserves a sense of safety in the past. Organizations behaving the same way generate the same result.

By looking at it a different way, meaning changes, and the person's mind soon follows. The experience-informed organization is aware of this and encourages reframing that generates changed action. Given what is known about mirror neurons and the viral effect of emotion, reframing becomes a powerful ally in many situations.

Reframing allows conscious choice of belief about people's motivation for behavior. It opens the door to different cause-effect relationships. Instead of maintaining a closed system where pictures of the past are used to paint pictures in the present, reframing offers a way to open the system up, asking different questions and in turn getting different answers.

Creating the Experience-Informed Culture

As with any culture change, increasing the degree to which an organization becomes experience informed is a process. Here are eight ideas that support the process:

1. Recognize that whatever is accepted as normal becomes the normal in the organization. This includes stated and operative norms, values, and objectives.
2. Train board, volunteers, and employees on the impact of adversity from a trauma-informed perspective. Doing so supports reframing under all circumstances and helps shift dynamics.
3. Identify and avoid behavior and processes mimicking harmful experience. This is predominantly power-over behavior, coercion, co-opting, and competition used for self-promotion or to demean others.
4. Expect, support, and model shared laboring toward a common end. The symbolic phrase for this is "Ensure all are rowing in the same direction."
5. Foster the use of objective, neutral language. Help people practice "I" statements, and practice letting people know that the use of labeling or pejorative language is harmful.
6. Ensure systems are transparent and open to all. Secrets foster organizational and individual dysfunction and create invisible obstacles around which all maneuver.
7. Respond to people in distress. Acting as if distress does not exist or responding with flat impassive reactions sends a strong, clear message that distress is not happening. And if an individual is experiencing distress, it *is* happening. The experience-informed culture recognizes that empathetic recognition may be all that is needed. Fixing, protecting, intervening, and violating boundaries are not helpful when people are in distress.
8. Curb labeling (when people are referred to by a label or a pejorative term). Refer to the first item in this list. Pejorative labeling is abbreviated language based on judging another person defective. While it may also be considered politically incorrect, in this material, it is a reflection of belief about others.

Volunteer Program Cycle: Programmatic Considerations to Minimize the Impact of Adverse Experiences on Volunteers and Staff

When organizations absorb the experience-informed view, three things follow logically.

1. Programming, supervision, and management incorporate the reality that people do the work they do for reasons often related to the cause—and many times, that includes adverse experiences.
2. More often than not, as NPOs recognize the impact of adverse experiences across the organization, they increase their focus on incorporating known best practices from other fields. For example, many of the concepts and principles from trauma-informed care in the mental health setting transfer.
3. In each activity in the NPO, specific shifts based on this new knowledge can increase effectiveness. Implementing strategies and tactics that reduce the stress of working with adversely impacted individuals, increase the quality of interactions at all levels, and increase the application of sound experience-informed or even trauma-informed models increases all stakeholder's wellness.

This chapter discusses the implications and effective responses to these understandings.

Experience-Informed Programming

Parallels Trauma-Informed Care

In many ways, experience-informed programming parallels the trauma-informed care model favored by the federal government and adopted by helping organizations. It does this at the most basic level simply by making a conscious effort to recognize the impact of experience, especially traumatic or adverse experience.

Further, elements in experience-informed programming, policies, and procedures support recovery and restoration over cure and "fixing." A more recovery-based model can be applied to criteria for funding, service delivery, and operations.

Key assumptions in trauma-informed care and in experience-informed programming are listed next.

- NPOs exist to foster change and transformation.
- Association with an NPO invokes or is a result of self-redefinition.
- Many pathways exist for accomplishing goals.
- Experience has known and knowable impact.
- An individual's style and level of connection to others influences the impact of experience.
- Expectations and needs of self and others are shaped by experience, adverse and favorable.
- Behavior in context exists to meet needs expressed indirectly or directly.
- Change and transformation involve culture and all aspects of self.
- Relationships with self, others, and community matter.

The expansion to experience-informed care reflects raising to a conscious level the impact of adverse experience, including some experiences that might be traumatic to one person but not another. This expansion is useful in reducing the stigma associated with trauma.

Is Data-Informed and Guided

The experience-informed model incorporates current data about the visible experiences (as reported by constituents and others) and the likelihood of hidden incidents, those unreported or existing but unfounded by objective, forensic evidence.

Data, evidence, and research about the stated target of the organization's effort is mapped against the organization's mission, strategic plan, and goals and used to craft programs with the greatest likelihood of success. Doing this accommodates the visible and known issues of concern as they relate to the desired outcomes.

Staff and volunteers focus on facts as well as feelings to dismantle stereotypical thinking and promote new understandings. They master and transfer skills and knowledge that support optimal responses. Reducing the influence of myth on the reality of response is critical in the experience-informed response.

The use of data and evidence decreases the impact of personal attributions and judgments that may distract from the organization's potential to make a difference.

Recognizes that Experience Drives Interest

Experience-informed programming assumes that those who are passionate about the issue have some relevant experience that ignited their care for this particular issue.

This experience may be first or secondhand, or perhaps even more distal to their own lives. For example, an organization that serves people who have experienced sexual assault may attract people who have experienced this crime, who know someone who has experienced this, or who have come in contact with the injustices of gender and violence in other ways.

As in any situation, past and present play important roles in organizational process. While the past is a good predictor of the future, the experience-informed organization takes into conscious consideration that those who serve its constituents can, do, and will change as their own relationship to the mission changes.

Knows that Work Imitates Life

In analyzing the impact of experience and how it informs the organization, particular attention is paid to the dynamics that may be reenacted in the delivery of services and the management of paid and volunteer staff.

This attention includes an examination of policies, processes, interactions, and cultural markers, including use of language, images, and public postures for their impact on the population served.

Experience-informed programming considers how operations may imitate life, especially given the risk of the re-creation of painful dynamics.

Focuses on Relational Skills to Strengthen the Organization

At the level of day-to-day work, the experience-informed program emphasizes relationships. Genuine respect for others, attention to the many communications present in each conversation, and conscious listening are reinforced and praised.

Respect is grounded in the openly promoted belief that those who are part of the organization add value, each in a unique way, at an existential level, making respect unconditional. "Unconditional respect" includes making a conscious decision to find the value in the person who seems most challenging. Simple actions, such as removing barriers that serve only to foster an awareness of status or protection of one group from another, demonstrate respect.

Communication focuses on making needs known in a direct and open way rather than indirectly, which often feels manipulative. Rather than telling others what they need, should do or feel, or in other ways defining their reality, open communication supports people as they become self-directing and self-determining.

Inquiry and interview allow space for others to construct a response, show that silence is comfortable, and use questions in service of self-direction. Open-ended questions (those beginning with "who," "what," "where," "when," and "how" to explore and gather information) are used more frequently than closed-end questions (asking for a selection or agreement).

Attention is paid to constituents who may be uncomfortable or unfamiliar with choice making and thinking through potential options available to them. It may take them more time between question and answer, and they may need nonpatronizing coaching on what to think about.

Consensus-oriented agreement is managed through building collaboration and processes that emphasize looking for the common good. Consensus represents the process of sitting with ideas and listening, working toward agreement through understanding as a form of influence. People move forward through anonymous processes of indicating their comfort level. Only when the group comfort level meets a threshold for action is action implemented.

Conflict is managed by looking at the common goal and common needs and exploring the possible missing pieces. Personal attacks, vilification, and judging others as defective in response to conflict are addressed openly and discouraged. Conflicts are mediated and resolved rather than hidden and buried. This means exploring how experience, culture, and expectation impact the ability to identify, manage, and modulate strong emotions.

Connection is critical in experience-informed organizations. While marketing, publicity, and social networking are good contemporary ways of staying in touch, expanding reach, and attracting people to an organization, connection is more than these. Connection, which in clinical communities might be called attachment, is about the bonds that form among those who care and those cared for. In all contexts, contact with the organization fosters either connection or disconnection, and the relational skills and expectations of everyone involved construct a specific culture in the organization.

When people engage each other, each feels what the other feels as a result of mirror neurons. This fact has major implications. Think about the day-to-day experience of direct contact in relief work, humanitarian aid, and organizations that serve people experiencing or recovering from adversity.

The implication of this mirroring is that repeated exposure causes the worker to experience, at some level, the emotions of each person contacted. Known and knowable consequences are the same for the worker as for the person served. This finding mandates a higher level of attention to culture, policies, and relational process. The practices that foster physical, emotional, mental, and spiritual health are vital both to individuals and to organizations. Connection matters because each contact has lasting impact: positive, neutral, or negative.

Every contact made by anyone in an organization begins, builds or diminishes a relationship. Experience-informed organizations consider the needs of everyone touched by the organization—all the stakeholders—as equally important. They recognize that negative emotions bring useful information that should be valued rather than judged, even though it is uncomfortable. Experience-informed NPOs focus on agreement over conflict and collaboration instead of co-opting or coercion. These "experience-informed organizations" are aware of the ease with which staff and volunteers can be held to different standards of behavior, and model single standards. The frame of reference they apply in the environment incorporates both personal history and the impact of contact.

Stakeholders and Processes

IDENTIFY AND INVOLVE ALL STAKEHOLDERS Experience-informed organizations work to bring the constituents to the table, engaging all stakeholders as valued providers of information about needs, barriers, bridges, and solutions. They include anyone who has a critical interest in the organization, such as:

- Board members, who have governance and fiduciary responsibilities and who represent guiding leadership and direction
- Constituents, without whom there would be no need for the organization
- Staff, responsible for day-to-day operations and management
- Volunteers, the backbone of service delivery, development, and other functions
- Patrons, grantors, and donors providing financial support
- Interested others, such as communities, others who provide services to the constituency in the continuum of care, notably those from whom constituents are referred or received (suppliers) and those to whom constituents are referred or transferred (customers)

They recognize that people identifying with the mission or who are constituents are part the service delivery chain, from board members through customer organization. Some may be active recipients of the organization's services, some may have utilized other similar services, and still others may have positive regard for someone represented as a constituent.

By including all stakeholders and assisting them, if necessary, in identifying their own interests and needs, experience-informed organizations can consider policies and programs as they actually help the stakeholders.

IDENTIFY PATTERNS AND DYNAMICS Valuing stakeholders and process also includes recognizing the specific patterns of thought, emotion, and response that are often in operation in NPOs. These include patterns of minimizing others such as:

- The emotional need to diminish or pity others in order to feel whole (a benevolent controller)
- Judgment of constituents as totally responsible for their circumstance, blaming them (the shaming adult)
- Judgment of constituents as irresponsible, in need of one's specific help and less than fully competent, if they do not comply fully (the critical parent perspective)
- The need to "fix" others or the belief that one can do so (a godlike perspective)
- The belief that one's solution is the only and best solution (a perspective of superiority and disrespect)

The courage to consider these patterns is notable in and of itself. Organizations, like individuals, often hope to hide patterns in themselves they dislike in others.

This said, the willingness to be open to possibilities and to "own" them if found is critical. Ownership of destructive patterns can occur without negative self-judgment and shame; it is simply the observation and, as appropriate, integration of one's conscious choices about these patterns in response.

Identifying patterns also means looking for the patterns that optimize others:

- Integration of other people's stated needs
- Use of inclusive, person-first language and thought as matter of course

- Engaging others' knowledge of their world
- Policies that focus on shared power rather than people exerting power over others
- Use of space in ways that minimize isolation and differences (except regarding legal requirements, such as secure record keeping, and role-related requirements, such as the need for private conversation require privacy)
- Response to needs for privacy and safety that dignify others
- Maintaining belief in the highest and best potential of each person
- Sharing power, responsibility, consequences and outcomes

These patterns share a common theme: directing toward others what one hopes is offered to oneself.

RECOGNIZE THE REALITY OF COMMON SHARED EXPERIENCE The experience-informed organization accepts that everyone involved is likely to have common shared experiences that bring him or her to the organization. This is the operational integration of knowledge about the prevalence of adversity and its impact.

With this acceptance comes the ability to increase the positive value assigned to the shared experience and to understand some reactions and responses among different groups that interact. Some people react strongly (others not at all) to issues and concerns that have touched their lives—all behavior has meaning when placed in context.

When parties who share common experiences (but who may not know this, or whose roles may inhibit or prohibit sharing this) interact, the unknown dynamics of their lives heavily influence the interaction. They may become reactive, as evidenced by taking everything personally, or they may numb out, which is evidenced by becoming disengaged. This is another reflection of mirror neurons and interaction at work.

MODEL QUALITY MANAGEMENT PROCESSES The experience-informed program also models concepts basic to Six Sigma and total quality management processes. While implementation takes time, the commitment to measuring, managing, and improving processes should be an organizational tenet and practice. These commitments cannot be at the expense of services and care, and they do not place numbers above people.

Developing meaningful, observable measurements based on all parties' needs ensures meaningful (rather than punitive) use of the measurements implemented. Identification of the factors and attributes that are critical or key performance and process indicators must recognize and involve all stakeholders and must consider patterns and multiple roles.

This process orientation acknowledges that many of the challenges occur in the interfaces between the constituents, the service delivery process, and the internal processes of the organization. While many organizations can identify the inputs and outputs, many have difficulty identifying what is in between them and perhaps underneath (the organizational dynamics and beliefs).

The general principles of quality management specified in The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) and their translations to experience-informed organizational process are:

- *Customer focus.* In the experience-informed organizations, this means involving all stakeholders in the planning and execution of decisions that affect them.

- *Leadership.* Experience-informed organizations empower people to perform and improve.
- *Involvement of people.* Everyone touched by the organizational mission is involved in fulfilling it
- *Process approach.* The focus is on the entire sequence of each process, not just one step.
- *System approach to management.* Functional areas of management are identified and connected to other functional areas.
- *Continual improvement.* Constantly and forever improving the quality of services and processes to make them easier, quicker, less costly in all ways is a critical-to-quality principle.
- *Factual approach to decision making.* Experience-informed organizations own the impact of personal history and attached emotions on the process of influence.
- *Mutually beneficial supplier relationships.* Constituents supply the organization by bringing needs the organization can fulfill; the organization supplies the constituents by acting on their mission to fulfill the constituents' needs. This same two-way relationship exists in all other customer-supplier relationships among stakeholders: without need, there is no reason for the organization to supply in response.

Note that factual decision making incorporates rather than eliminates feelings and that the focus is on reciprocal mutual relationships.

REDUCE THE RISK OF RE-CREATION At a subtler level, in the experience-informed organization, the impact of experience is important to the organizational process. Every experience, adverse or favorable, shapes a person. Each person works to resolve the adverse, revisiting the dynamic in many ways over time.

Those mastering adverse past experiences apply new learning to new situations, supported by connection, respect, collaboration, and the subsequent increases in dignity over time. The end result is an increase in the person's health, self-direction, and self-determination, whether that person is a funder, board member, staff, volunteer, or constituent.

The awareness of and conscious attention to the organizational culture reduces the risk of re-creating the dynamics of adverse experiences. It does this by incorporating the reality and residuals of personal history (even without the details). Acknowledging personal history expands the possibility of more balanced power, less labeling, and more concerted effort focused on the relationships that enable fulfillment of the mission.

This possibility of more balanced power occurs because the lens through which staff, volunteers, and constituents are viewed changes. The new lens places in perspective the possibility of common history and the known impact of this history. The outcome is a focus that is less on black-and-white or polarized thinking and more on a process that might have many points of view, many more pathways.

Programming Focal Points

RECOGNIZE AND RESPOND TO THE IMPACT OF ADVERSE AND FAVORABLE EXPERIENCES Experience-informed programming recognizes the role of constituents' overwhelming experiences. It also considers the likely personal histories of all other stakeholders.

Obviously, the individual impact on each stakeholder and group varies not only by personal history but also by role and perceived power.

IDENTIFY AND RESPOND TO THE CONTINUUM OF DELIVERY Specific programming focal points accommodate the continuum of delivery in community and for constituent issues. From first contact through final record keeping, there is a service continuum. At each point, different considerations may exist based on history and role of each stakeholder.

Identify the roles, needs, and characteristics of stakeholder groups at each point along the continuum relative to what the organization provides and expects in return. Apply criteria to those groups that address relative levels of power to ensure maximum collaboration. Incorporate knowledge of the customer-supplier relationships. Review criteria and questions against knowledge of the impact of personal history in organizational process.

For example, at first contact, who does what? If the organizational environment has an intake process:

- What does the intake process consist of?
- What happens that might evoke adverse personal history?
- Who performs what steps?
- Who has the power to withhold something desirable?
- How does the physical environment foster respect, collaboration, and shared power?
- How does the organization help intake staff manage the effect of their ongoing contact with people in distress (if this is the case)?

DESIGN PROGRAMS THAT CONSIDER THE IMPACT OF ADVERSE EXPERIENCES Conscious design of programs in the experience-informed organization includes a review of processes. Organizational service delivery procedures usually include some form of entry process, record keeping, interaction/service provision, and record of contact process. There are also specific sets of actions related to marketing, funding and finances, and overall record keeping. Specific organizational roles (volunteer and staff) have specific responsibilities at different points in each of these processes.

This review identifies ways to improve the opportunity for people to consider the impact of adverse experiences in their contacts with others. People who experience adversity or trauma (especially in childhood) may feel less than worthy of life, doubt their competence or ability to manage situations, and have difficulty managing strong feelings. They may not trust their own judgment. It may be challenging for them to speak directly or to allow others to speak freely. Difficulties of this sort may manifest in contact with constituents, peers, staff, board, and funders.

Take, for example, a typical process for a service-providing NPO: intake, create person record, provide service, create next contact, and so on.

For each process, ask questions about it that focus on how the process might be difficult for someone with the lived experience of your issue (i.e., a victim of a drunk driver, a person abused in childhood, a displaced person, etc.), such as:

- How would a person who feels overwhelmed react at this point?
- What would this look like to a person who doubts his or her competence?

- If a person is upset or frightened, is this too complicated? Too fast?
- How might this remind a person of other adverse experiences?
- Does this process offer the person being served with choices, at least two and fewer than five?
- How might the physical environment give messages about the differences between people who provide and receive services?
- How and when does the process allow and encourage understanding of the impact of overwhelming events?

The organizational analysis that occurs when programs are designed or as a first-time analysis is a critical baseline on which to build. It supports organizational health as use of the experience-informed model deepens and measurements are implemented.

REFRAME BEHAVIOR Adverse as well as favorable experience teaches people the behavior required to survive and protect their sanity, safety, and to keep flesh and bones intact. Behavior that serves this purpose (supporting survival) is repeated. If it fails and harm occurs, another behavior is substituted until they find the communication pattern with the greatest chance to get their needs met with the least risk of injury. This behavior typically is what people call manipulative.

While manipulation is indeed an attempt to steer the outcome of a conversation, the emotional response to this communication pattern is usually resentment, anger, and mistrust. Another and more helpful framing is that the person who uses this communication tactic has learned that it is not safe to ask for what he or she really needs.

Framed as manipulation, such behavior feels like being deceived or lied to. When people feel manipulated, they feel taken advantage of. A natural reaction is that the power dynamic moves to a power-over model as an instinctual response to the feelings.

When "manipulation" is framed as a natural self-protective response, the pattern becomes more understandable, and much of the emotional charge is dispersed. Instead of lying and deceit, it is a reflection of fear of rejection and unmet needs.

One of the most powerful experience-informed responses is to reframe behavior from a more benevolent perspective. Doing this allows for a change in reaction, from anger and power-over to a collaborative and empowering response that invites more direct feedback.

Another response is powerful reframing of behavior itself. Every behavior has meaning in the context of the experience during which it was learned. Once reframed in the context of doing whatever is required to protect sanity, safety, and body, behavior becomes less personal and more functional. When people sincerely ask of a behavior "How might this help preserve sanity, safety, and body?" or "How does this help the person?" the answer is often transformed from one grounded in an attitude of superiority to one of compassion. "To get one over on me" might become "Perhaps in the past they were hurt for asking for something."

Reframe "productivity" to include self-directed care and nurture at an individual and organizational level. This mandate is in the interest of managing vicarious trauma, or the experiencing of the other's experience. Organizations serving others recognize they must take very good care of themselves to mitigate the impact of caring.

UNCOUPLE WORTHINESS AND DESERVING FROM NEED While perceiving someone has a need the organization can meet is one side of the service equation, the other side of this equation is cultural, organizational, and personal determinations of who can receive services and who cannot. For individuals, perceptions of cultural or spiritual superiority as well as personal history influence one's perceptions about who is worthy and deserving.

One decision is to clearly couple "worthy" and "deserving" with "need." The operational model is "Only the deserving who are in need should receive help." What "deserving" means might be clear organizationally and in conflict in some way with personal values and history. Worthiness is conditional when in this situation.

The experience-informed organization uncouples "worthy" and "deserving" from "need." Doing this increases unconditional respect. In the face of unconditional respect, the atmosphere of being worthy of life is increased. This frame reduces risks of power-over and increases chances of collaboration.

Incorporating Experience in Processes Related to Programming

REVIEW THE ORGANIZATIONAL MISSION

Whom Does the Mission Serve? People who are "X" are the organization's constituency, the people to whom the organization provides services. This is the target population.

Ask "Who" Several Times Asking "who" again and yet again helps define the characteristics of "X" more accurately. These characteristics are useful demographics for program design, marketing, and mapping of program characteristics. Consider questions such as these:

- Whom do we serve? (Imagine "X" is the label.)
- Who are the Xes?
- Who calls the Xes other things, and what do they call them?
- Where do Xes live?
- What percentage are male and female?
- How many are how old? (Use a common scale for sorting by age, perhaps in categories used in state or federal services.)
- What percentage, male and female, are veterans?
- What adverse or traumatic experiences have Xes probably been through?

How Does Fulfilling the Mission Serve Different Groups? Identify the results of fulfilling the mission for each stakeholder group: community, funders, board, staff, volunteers, and constituents. Remember that while "serve" implies a positive impact, it is important to also note negative impact.

For example, if an organizational mission is "to improve child health in remote areas of the United States," how does fulfilling the mission serve different stakeholder groups?

- Children in remote areas have better chances at good health.
- Families in remote areas have lower health care costs and better health.

- Communities have a population that is healthier and able to contribute in a different way, although they may also face loss of some of these children as they move away for "better opportunities."
- Staff and volunteers get to "make a difference" and be of service.
- And so on—out to funders, benefactors, and others.

Each stakeholder group is served in some way, and for some risks may also exist.

What Might the Relationship Be Between the Mission and Experiences that Threaten Sanity, Safety, and Body? When considering the potential relationship between the mission and overwhelming experiences, the questions are fewer and simpler:

- Is the focus of the mission a response to an adverse experience, such as crime, natural disaster, terrorism, regional or local conflict, poverty, privation, or abuse of some sort?
- Does the mission address any experience that might be perceived as so overwhelming that the person cannot make sense of it or integrate it into his or her experience? If so, what is the experience?

Map the Value Chain Define the value the agency adds (the what) in terms of constituents (customers), suppliers, and stakeholders (the who).

Consider this question: "What value do we add to whom?" The answer may fit into this kind of form: "We add value by ________________ [doing what] for ________________ [name the stakeholder group] group." Look for patterns, suspending expectations and simply observing. The introduction of positive or negative personal judgments clouds the ability to identify value others may see.

Identify the overall process (the high level) from contact through completion, including programs, for the constituents who represent 80% of the population served. Also do this for the other 20%, categorizing in a meaningful way the characteristics of each end (the 10% to the left and the 10% to the right) of the bell curve. These "outliers" in the constituency represent the people who are at the extremes (sometimes the least desirable people who consume the most time on one end, and the people who migh be called the "poster children").

At each point in the overall process, identify how value is added to constituents, suppliers, and stakeholders. Consider using the questions and format listed, beginning with "What value do we add to whom?" The value and the service may be the same or may differ across multiple dimensions such as group, time, or level and type of need.

This is all preparatory to considering the relationship of each point on the value chain to the mission. There are three questions to consider:

1. Does the activity at that point connect to or disconnect from the mission?
2. If it is connected, how does it connect?
3. If it is disconnected, what do you think might be the cause of the disconnect?

Create a visual map of positive and negative fulfillment of the mission across the process in terms of value. This map serves as a foundation for using the information gathered so far.

This map also shows you where there are opposing tensions (connection *and* disconnection) that may cause conflict in the organization. It also shows you when there is a uniform direction in multiple items—for example, several activities for which there is positive value added and that connect to the mission, and where there are no disconnects.

Evaluate and Adjust Policy Policy is important in many functions of the NPO. It serves as a rule-set by which the organization operates in areas such as human resources issues, development or fundraising, and operations.

Some policy is driven by law, some by culture. There are several questions to ask about policy as you review different areas:

- Is this policy driven by and compliant with applicable law?
- Does this policy reflect evidence of power-over in places where power could be shared more collaboratively?
- Are there ways in which this policy could align more with the mission as well as the needs of stakeholders?

Evaluate and Adjust Programs Identify organizational criteria for program success based on concrete metrics, such as: numbers served; cost per contact; specifics of what is delivered; what the donor community recognizes; and what volunteers, employees, board members, and constituents recognize as being of value. Balance the metric-focused perspective with qualitative information, and look for trends based on repetitions in language and phrases.

For each program on the value chain, consider how it may or may not replicate the dynamics of adverse experiences. Based on general knowledge of the impact, these might be some of the questions to ask.

Given what is known about the people we serve:

- Might this cause an internal fight-or-flight response (visible or invisible)?
- Could this program (or the processes it requires) evoke feelings of incompetence as well as memories of perceived failure?
- Do persons served act as if they are overwhelmed, confused, or doubting their knowledge and competency?
- Is the stated or operative attribution about expressions of feeling overwhelmed, confused, self-doubting, incompetent, or like a failure most commonly drugs, alcohol, or mental illness?
- Are perspectives and frames of reference strongly polarized, representing either-or or black-and-white thinking?
- Are there adverse events that have affected any of the communities of which this person is a member?

Ask questions of the process relative to how it may or may not, from the constituents' point of view (and this can be difficult to remember):

- Replicate power-over
- Seem coercive

- Offer conditional respect
- Make people invisible
- Refer to people as labels
- Be confusing or overwhelming
- Judge people defective
- Align with other markers of adverse experiences.

At each step of the process, engage key stakeholders from multiple perspectives and gain their input on questions that are critical to quality and performance.

Then score and rank perceptions of quality using multiple measures. Employ standards that align with experience-informed actions, when possible. While deviation from standards is the norm, having generally agreed-on guidelines helps create consistent expectations across the organization and the constituency.

Program adjustments should be made based on facts rather than feelings and only then on trends over time. The time span depends on the time spans in your organization. An event that happens once a year is a single point of data unless you measure the same factors and attributes each year across multiple years. A trend is when a specific factor shows repetitive scores in one area across at least three years.

Create evaluation points based on industry standards as well as the input of key stakeholders. With regard to industry standards, focus on the ones that are considered important by key stakeholders. Consider these questions:

- Of the sets of standards available for adoption, which are the most important, and why?
- Is the organization pursuing certification? If not, why not?
- Is the organization adopting the standards even if it is not pursuing certification?
- How would someone looking in from the outside recognize a standards-based organization and programs?
- What process is used when deviation from standards needs to occur? Is there any documentation of the planned deviation, reasons, rationale, and evaluative methods?

End-to-end adjustment plans should be made with careful analysis of who might be affected and then with their input. These plans should be considered carefully before action is taken. Too often, change that benefits one part of the organization hampers another, often because all affected groups are not involved in the planning of change. Change also has unpredictable consequences that may occur as an organization undergoes change.

Develop guiding questions to consider for each change, and ensure they reflect the experience from the point of view of people having it. A useful tool is the creation of stakeholder teams who are engaged in any design changes. As the change is rolled out, utilize communication skills focused on collaboration, transparency, and authenticity.

Above all, help staff and volunteers balance their work and exposure to the content of the work, especially in relief or service provision. The simple act of an empathic response and the exposure to another's concerns causes both people to feel the same emotion, even if unconsciously. This is because of the activation of mirror neurons, which cause one person to feel what the other feels.

Self-care supports staff and volunteers in maintaining a life of awareness or mindfulness, increasing balance, and choice making in the service of healthy self-interest.

Volunteer/staff self-care includes assessing the motivation for one's work, exploring how personal history and work may interface, and then looking at current and possible levels of self-care. Finally a plan for change is created and, in the best of organizations, events for self-care are scheduled and relished.

Self-care involves attending to physical, emotional, psychological, and spiritual realms. It includes caring for oneself as one wishes for others to care for themselves—modeling the behavior desired and expected of others (getting enough sleep, eating nutritious food, getting enough exercise, taking time to look inward, etc.). It is a fundamental tool both for eroding any existing self-contempt and for modeling for others a healthier level of love for self.

Incorporating Experience in Processes Related to Programming

TWO MAJOR RISKS In the conscious incorporation of the impact of experience, especially negative or overwhelming experience in organizational process, there are two risks worth noting. While in some respects they simply represent the extremes, in others each carries distinct challenges.

Ignoring the Impact of Past Experience When organizations simply assume they comprehend the impact of experience or are somehow unaffected, they are unlikely to consider the impact of the past on the present.

Ignoring the possibility in no way mitigates the consequences. It only presents the organization with a large invisible elephant that sits in the middle of the heart of the organization waiting to be seen.

Overemphasizing the Impact of Past Experience The opposite of ignoring the impact of past experience is dwelling on it. Some people and some organizations use adversity as a frame of reference for either entitlement or absence of accountability. Overemphasizing the impact of past experiences risks living as captives to them.

When people in stakeholder groups are captive to their pasts, self-care, openness to change, and resiliency are compromised. All three are needed to fulfill the mission.

The balance in between may take time to achieve, yet the benefits are well worth the effort.

LIVING FROM HEAD AND HEART Finally, incorporating experience in programming means living from both head and heart, considering the evidence for what works as well as being keenly sensitive to how it may trigger or exacerbate past experiences.

The organization that lives only from its head is in the world of thinking and doing, of planning, protecting, and pursuing measurable outcomes for the sake of the numbers.

The experience-informed organization adds living from the heart, of recognizing the role of overwhelming experiences as a factor in the organizational and volunteer life cycle, nurturing the organizational environment as an opportunity to resolve and renew.

Living from head and heart occurs not through any clinical process but through a heightened awareness of how critical respect and connection are at all levels of interaction.

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The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
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DIGITAL D

Options for Volunteer Involvement

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In many ways, for-profit and nonprofit institutions are similar. Both rely on information and their ability to use information to transform their processes to achieve goals and objectives. The primary difference is that one has financial goals and objectives and the other does not. What separates successful organizations in the for-profit arena is generating profits from new customers and at the same time maintaining loyalty from existing customers. Similarly, volunteer-driven nonprofits achieve their goals and objectives by systematically attracting new volunteers and at the same time retaining loyal volunteers.

This chapter focuses on the options for volunteer involvement by examining the factors that influence involvement. The chapter starts by examining volunteer behavior similarly to the way a market system relates to consumer behavior. Consumer behavior is the study of when, why, how, and where consumers buy or do not buy products or services. Volunteer behavior focuses on when, why, how, and where individuals do or do not volunteer. The focus of volunteer involvement moves to a perspective on volunteerism by looking at the social, economic, and cultural trends driving the voluntary sector. Social, economic and cultural trends impact the type of volunteer involvement in today's nonprofit organizations. The chapter concludes by suggesting that social, economic, and cultural change and technological advancement requires that nonprofit organizations move from volunteer management to professional volunteer management in order to attract potential volunteers.

Market for Volunteers

Market systems have often been used to describe consumer behavior (Gummesson, 2008). Likewise, market systems can be used to describe the supply and demand for volunteers (Handy & Srinivasan, 2005; Lien, 2010). In research on markets, consumer behavior has been represented by the customer relationship life cycle (Gronroos, 2000). Each stage in the customer relationship life cycle provides a different marketing challenge focused toward consumers. In the initial stage, the marketing objective is to create interest in a product of service. During the purchasing process stage, interest should be converted into action. The consumption or usage stage should invoke a positive experience for the consumer. The perceived service quality stage translates into resale, cross sales, and enduring customer relationships; poor experiences result in product abandonment and loss of future sales.

Similarly, the market for volunteers can be represented using a volunteer life cycle (see Exhibit D.1). The volunteer life cycle also includes three stages: the volunteer determinants stage, the decision to volunteer stage, and the volunteer activity stage. Creating customer interest in a product or service is analogous to making the public aware of volunteer opportunities. Similar to the products market for consumers, the general public has many volunteering options. Moving consumers to action

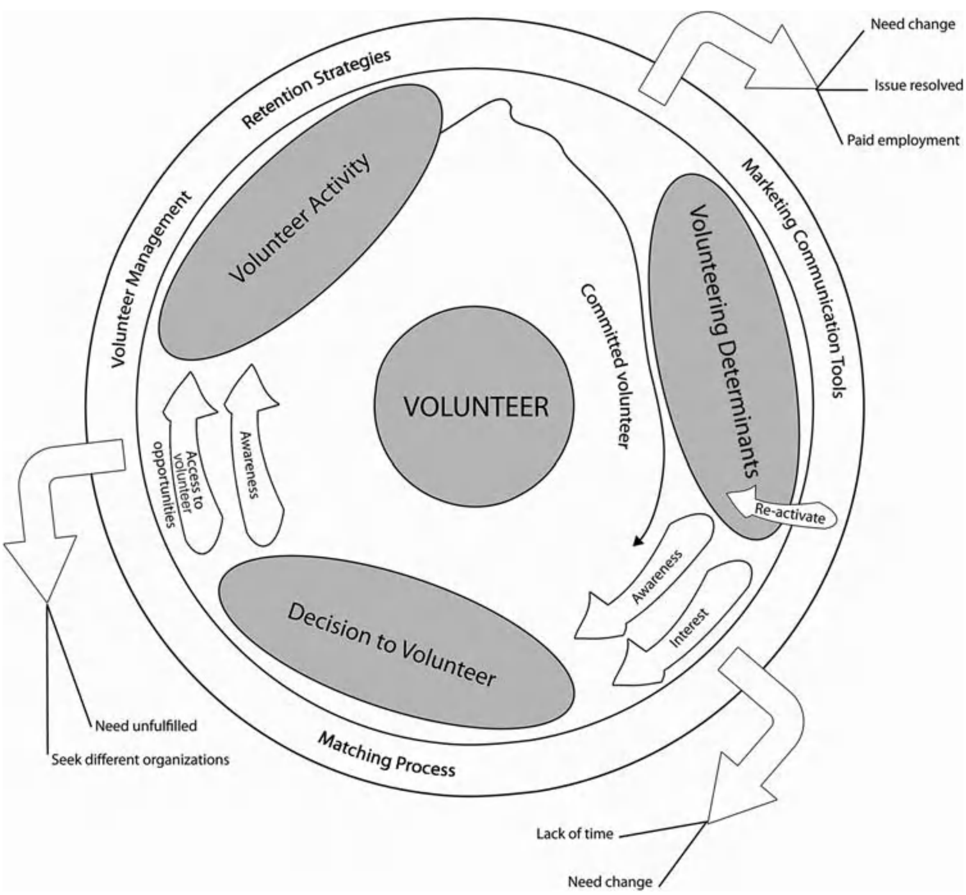

EXHIBIT D.1 Volunteer Life Cycle

Source: Bussell, H., & Forbes, D. (2003).

through the purchase process is consistent with the general public making a volunteer choice. A consumer's response to consumption of a product or service is similar to the response a volunteer would have from a volunteer activity. A high level of satisfaction from a volunteer experience is likely to result in volunteer retention, thus extending the volunteer life cycle. This finding is consistent with perceived service quality by a consumer that leads to repeat purchases. Likewise, a poor volunteer experience usually leads to unfulfilled needs by a volunteer, and the life cycle is shortened.

Volunteering Determinants

The first stage in the volunteer life cycle is the volunteering determinants. This is the stage that the general public becomes aware of volunteer opportunities in a nonprofit organization. Two important tasks are relevant at this stage: a needs assessment and a marketing plan. In volunteer programs, needs assessments create various opportunities for volunteer involvement that will help meet a nonprofit's goals and objectives. A marketing plan should be developed to make the public aware of these opportunities. Multiple communication channels should be used to market volunteer opportunities.

Decision to Volunteer

Having raised awareness of the organization and the need for volunteers, it is important to move awareness through to the next stage, which is the decision to volunteer. The decision to volunteer is about motivation. Numerous studies have been conducted to understand why people volunteer (Arnold & Dolenc, 2008; Clary, Snyder, & Ridge, 1992; Esmond & Dunlop, 2004; McCudden, 2000; McEwin & Jacobsen-D'Arcy, 2002; Mueller, 1975). Each of these authors has added to the knowledge base of volunteer motivation and provides a comprehensive guide to volunteer motivation. Potential volunteers will likely approach the organization. There is an interest already based on the awareness, but the outcome may not necessarily be certain. Much depends on their reception and the skill of assessing motivation. Is the office welcoming? If not, it may deter the volunteer. Does a plan exist for how volunteers will be involved? If not, there is a risk of losing that opportunity. Successful volunteer organizations maintain a current list of volunteer tasks that varies in intensity and duration. The difference maker is matching a need in the organization with a need of a volunteer.

Volunteer Activity

People who are provided with an appropriate volunteer role pass on to the third phase of the volunteer life cycle, which places the emphasis on volunteer management. Having acquired volunteers and placed them in specific roles, organizations must seek to retain their support. This is a combination volunteer development, leadership, and management on the part of a volunteer resource manager. To assist the volunteer resource manager, numerous models have been developed. One such model, ISOTURES (*I*dentification, *S*election, *O*rientation, *T*raining, *U*tilization, *R*ecognition, *E*valuation), is a nationally recognized volunteer development model that encompasses the same concepts that would be used in hiring decisions for paid staff. This systematic approach (Boyce, 1971) to volunteer administration emphasizes the need to:

- Identify how volunteers will be involved.
- Select the most appropriate volunteer for a volunteer role through effective recruiting strategies and screening.
- Orient volunteers about the organization and their specific duties.
- Train volunteers and staff to increase their capacity.
- Utilize volunteers through empowerment.
- Recognize volunteers for their contributions.
- Evaluate volunteers by focusing on results.
- Sustain volunteer involvement.

Implementing all aspects of this model will support volunteers in the completion of their roles and in all likelihood extend a volunteer's life cycle.

Social, Economic, and Cultural Trends Driving the Options for Volunteer Involvement

There are a plethora of economic, social, political, and technological trends that will potentially impact on volunteering over the coming decades. It is not possible to do them all justice in this small space, so instead we discuss briefly seven key trends and their implications for volunteering: (1) the aging population, (2) unprecedented affluence, (3) changing family and household arrangements, (4) escalating education and delays in financial independence, (5) mushrooming choice, (6) the information and communication technology revolution, and (7) raised aspirations.

Age

The population is aging. But do not expect baby boomers to retire in the traditional sense—or certainly not at age 65. Barring illness, someone age 60 today does not think of him- or herself as old, nor does anyone else. As a result, organizations may find volunteers "aging in place," tenaciously clinging to traditional roles and responsibilities and entrenched in key leadership positions.

On one hand, this may mean that there will be a large body of older people looking for something to do with their postretirement time. On the other, the impending pension crisis likely will result in older people remaining in the workforce for much longer and therefore having less time to give for charity. It may also mean that voluntary sector resources will be increasingly directed toward the older population.

Income

Numerous studies have documented that levels of volunteering are related to social class, with those having a higher socioeconomic status being more likely to volunteer. A reasonable conclusion then would be to suggest that the more affluent people are, the more likely they are to give something back by volunteering—if merely by virtue of the fact that they can afford to. Although personal income growth has slowed over the past 5 years, average personal income is predicted to rise over the next 30 years.

For a greater segment of the population, there is enough money for food, shelter, and small luxuries. This means that citizens can increasingly think beyond their own immediate needs for survival to that of their own emotional and self-esteem needs as well as the needs of others. Certainly there is evidence to suggest that growing affluence is associated with a greater desire for self-fulfillment.

Family Structure

Half a century ago, a child typically was a part of a broad family unit made up of grandparents and parents as well as a number of uncles, aunts, cousins, and siblings. As people began to live longer and have fewer children, the family has become more vertical, with children increasingly likely to know their great-grandparents, but less horizontal. Fewer children mean fewer uncles, aunts, cousins, and siblings. Family structure does not stop there. The vertical family structure has become increasingly complicated because of the increase in divorce and remarriage and decrease in marriage. In 1998, the divorce rate was a staggering 52%, up from 6.5% in 1960. This widespread fracturing and re-forming of the family unit has resulted in some very complex and disjointed family arrangements.

This trend toward increasing fragmentation and isolation is bad news for volunteer organizations on two fronts. First, the strong relationship between volunteering and social connectedness suggests that a breakdown in family and household connectedness likely will lead to a breakdown in volunteering. Second, social support is a well-known protective factor against personal crisis. As family and household support decline, the voluntary sector will have to work harder and will need to recruit more volunteers in order to pick up the pieces. Seeking out disconnected people and wrapping them in the social connectedness of volunteering could be the role the voluntary sector embraces over the coming years.

Education and Independence

The central reality of the past half century has been a mass increase in higher education. While some countries called for or achieved mass access in the first half of the 20th century, globally it is a quite recent phenomenon. Although some developing countries still have fewer than 10% of the post–school-age group in higher education, almost all have dramatically increased their participation rates. This has a number of key implications for organizations that rely on volunteers.

Students now represent a sizable and relatively easy-to-reach pool of potential volunteers. Additionally, those people who volunteer will be highly educated and will expect that their knowledge and skills will be used effectively. Given women's increasing commitment to education, it is possible that once they have children, they will minimize the time they have to spend at home and in the community. This may mean that more fathers will share child-rearing tasks and therefore will be available during the day for voluntary work. It also may mean that if charities want to take advantage of stay-at-home parents, they should target those with very young children. As the workforce becomes increasingly educated, practical experience will become more important in terms of differentiating between which students will get selected for employment and which will not. This means that students will be more willing to volunteer for organizations that offer appropriate experience. Furthermore, students may opt to volunteer in the corporate sector in order to gain experience. Students are now graduating with more sizable debts. This fact may mean that they will have to put volunteering for purely altruistic reasons on the back burner for some time. Increased time spent in education and greater student debt may give modern workers a greater ownership of any financial success. They may therefore be more reluctant to give "handouts," wanting to better understand who their time is helping and why this group is so deserving.

Choice

Choice across every aspect of society is growing. This growth in choice is driven in some cases by market competition but also by deregulation and the new technologies of television, telephones, and the Internet. Some examples of how choice is growing can be found in virtually every aspect of life but include choice driven by competition, by technology, and by deregulation.

Every day citizens become more adept at managing this proliferation of choice and competition. At the same time, they also become more discriminating and demanding in terms of what they expect when they commit to any particular volunteer organization.

Information and Communication Technology

If a volunteer organization has not yet adopted the role of new information and communication technology in recruiting and retaining volunteers, it should be prepared to be left stranded on an island as the boat of opportunity sails off into the sunset with any number of competitors on board. Experts in the voluntary sector have reported a clear competitive edge that can be gained through early mastery of information technologies such as the Internet, digital television, and mobile communication.

Aspirations

Research shows that it is not just more self-fulfillment that individuals are aspiring to as their wealth increases, it is more of everything. Research data indicate that not only do more people feel that the basics of a good job and sufficient accommodation are "absolutely necessary to live properly," we also feel a greater need for friendly neighbors and to be useful to others (nVision, 2005). Perhaps most striking of all is the increase in the proportion of people claiming that sufficient leisure time is a necessity and not just a luxury. It seems that we are witnessing the evolution of the status of leisure from luxury to necessity. For volunteer organizations, leisure increases the competition for volunteer involvement. As John Ramsey of Citizens Advice points out, this has implications for volunteering when he warns, "It's not about us competing with the Samaritans or whatever, it will be us competing with cinema or holidays or golf" (Evans & Saxton, 2005, p. 19).

Types of Volunteer Involvement

Over many, many years, the options for volunteer involvement have evolved. The social and economic factors just discussed have transformed volunteerism. The array of duties and tasks appear to be limited only by the imagination of a volunteer resource manager. To that end, a chapter on the options for volunteer involvement must include a discussion of the evolution in types of services provided by volunteers. These types can be described by what volunteers do, how they serve, where the volunteering occurs, who performs the service and virtual volunteering.

Volunteer Involvement by What Volunteers Do

In the most basic classification of volunteer involvement, volunteers either work directly with clientele of nonprofit organizations or they provide indirect support to the nonprofit in fulfillment of its goals and objectives.

DIRECT SERVICE A direct service volunteer generally is described as one who is working directly with the clientele that a nonprofit organization is trying to serve Examples are mentoring, tutoring, delivering blankets or providing shelter to the homeless, working with a special needs child, serving food at a local food bank, and acting as docents and ushers. Direct service volunteers are highly visible and are in great demand by most nonprofit organizations.

INDIRECT SERVICE Services provided by indirect volunteers support the nonprofit organization. These services often include time spent:

- Planning and preparing for an event, program, or activity
- As advisory committee members
- Promoting the organization's service activities
- On setting up or tearing down for a service activity
- Recruiting and managing other volunteers for the organization
- On fundraising
- Advocating for the organization

The clear distinction in indirect service roles is that the nonprofit organization is the object of the service, and not the clientele of the organization. The most important point to be made about direct and indirect options for volunteer service is that to expand volunteer involvement, nonprofit organizations must include opportunities for potential volunteers to serve in both roles.

Volunteer Involvement by How Volunteers Serve

An alternative way to view the types of volunteers is to examine how they service. Length of service has been used to describe types of volunteers. The common terms most used to describe length of service of a volunteer are long-term, short-term, and episodic volunteers.

LONG-TERM VOLUNTEERS Long-term volunteers provide regularly occurring service to an organization for an extended period of time that lacks an end date. One extraordinary woman gave over 45 years of service to a county 4-H program in Colorado. While her case represents the far end of the spectrum, it is not uncommon for long-term volunteers to spend years with an organization. Traditionally, organizations have relied on and preferred direct service volunteers who could be counted on to be with the organization for a long time. In the past, some organizations discouraged and even turned away potential volunteers who could not give lengthy commitments. Nearly all organizations devote the most resources to recruiting, training, and supporting long-term volunteers because of the high return on investment that can be obtained. This is understandable since the type of organization that needs volunteers typically is one that does not have limitless resources. Today an exclusive focus on long-term volunteers may cause an organization to miss the benefits that short-term and episodic volunteers offer. At the same time, long-term volunteers tend to be very loyal to the organization for which they provide service and often feel a strong sense of ownership.

SHORT-TERM VOLUNTEERS Short-term volunteers provide regularly occurring service to an organization for a finite amount of time. The previous edition of this handbook identified this type of volunteer as an "occasional episodic volunteer" or a volunteer who "provides service at regular intervals for short periods of time" (Macduff, 1999, p. 188). That definition has been abandoned for the sake of clarity. Short-term volunteers do not provide the type of infrequent or irregular service most commonly associated with the terms "episodic" and "occasional," although certain aspects of each term's definition may apply. An advantage to serving as short-term volunteers is that individuals can take time off between commitments. For nonprofit organizations, short-term volunteers provide a stable source of volunteers that can be called on from time to time.

EPISODIC VOLUNTEERS Episodic volunteers provide infrequently occurring service to an organization, typically for a single-day or multiday event. The minimal time commitment of episodic volunteering provides maximum flexibility for potential volunteers—the type of flexibility that adults may increasingly desire. Perhaps the largest event of this kind in the United States is known, aptly enough, as the Big Event. Each spring, the students at Texas A&M University pick one Saturday to show their appreciation for the communities of College Station and Bryan, TX, by gathering en masse to complete service projects. Residents submit requests for students to complete projects such as yard work, house painting, and window washing. Requirements to serve as a volunteer are minimal, and all students, faculty, and staff are eligible to participate. This unique approach to episodic volunteerism has evolved into an event that in 2010 included nearly 13,000 students completing projects for over 1,450 residents.

For volunteer resource managers, the advantage to episodic volunteers is also a disadvantage. Although barriers to becoming a volunteer as a result of time commitment are removed for episodic volunteers, time related to planning, implementing, and evaluating episodic volunteers sometimes can increase the workload of volunteer resource managers. So while more volunteers are available, management requirements also increase.

Where Volunteer Involvement Occurs

The Corporation for National and Community Service (2010) found nearly one-third of Americans, 63.4 million, volunteered in 2009, contributing more than 8 billion hours worth of service valued at approximately $162 billion. A variety of organizations benefited from this massive influx of unpaid labor, therefore volunteer resource managers would benefit from understanding where volunteering occurs.

Religious organizations benefit the most from volunteer involvement. In 2009, 22.6 million Americans (35.6%) provided volunteer service to religious organizations. Education, including elementary schools, middle schools, high schools, and universities followed religious organizations with 16.7 million (26.6%) people providing volunteer service. Social and community service nonprofits, such as homeless shelters and food banks, round out the top three organizations that benefit from volunteer involvement. The following is a list of organizations that benefited in 2009:

- Religious organizations (35.6%)
- Education (26.6%)
- Social services (13.8%)
- Health (8.3%)
- Civic organizations (5.4%)
- Sports/arts (3.5%)
- Other (6.9%)

Volunteer Involvement by Who Volunteers

As volunteerism has evolved, who volunteers has become an important focus. Individuals have always been a common target of volunteer marketing. Today, however, the attention to group volunteering is on the rise. Why? Many individuals like to be part of a group but are uncomfortable venturing into the unknown. Volunteerism is often one of these unknowns. By volunteering with a group, the fear of the unknown becomes less important. They can be employees from a particular company, members of a club or association, or even just a group of friends who would like to spend time together at a volunteer activity. Some groups that often volunteer are discussed next.

CORPORATE VOLUNTEERING Corporate volunteering is volunteer involvement from employees of a business or department within a business. Why do businesses get involved? Some businesses promote volunteering as a way for employees to learn more about each other and to see each other outside of the workplace. Other businesses use volunteering as a team-building exercise or to increase morale. Additionally, businesses gain publicity and generate a positive community profile, but corporate volunteering also fosters good feelings among potential customers and clients. Corporate volunteering is not limited to large businesses but also includes many small firms. The savvy volunteer resource manager markets to the needs of businesses and makes opportunities for large-scale involvement.

FAMILY VOLUNTEERING Many families are looking for opportunities to spend time together. Households are faced with many time constraints including work, children, spouse, and the need for self-fulfillment. A new concept in volunteering addresses these and other family issues. Family volunteering can be done by a whole family together or by one parent and one child or teenager. Family volunteering can also include several siblings together. Other options can involve both parents or one parent and an extended family member, such as a grandparent or aunt/uncle. The mix-and-match possibilities are endless.

What motivates a family to volunteer? First of all, volunteering together adds quality time with each other. Families can share a bond while doing something worthwhile for others. Voluntourism is one example of a family volunteer opportunity. Voluntourism is the combination of tourism and volunteerism. Although not exclusive to families, many families have started realizing that going away on a vacation with the purpose of volunteering provides an opportunity to learn about and experience new places and at the same time work together toward the same goals. Families will continually look for opportunities to spend quality time together; therefore, providing volunteer opportunities that meet this goal will expand a nonprofit's volunteer base.

STUDENT VOLUNTEERING Today, students provide a rich source of potential volunteers. Volunteering:

- Allows students to build up their resume.
- Lets students explore a particular career field, gain experience, and hone skills.
- Allows students to feel like they are contributing to their community or taking responsibility for something.
- Volunteering sounds fun, challenging, and important.
- Is required by some high schools and colleges.

How do volunteer resource managers meet the needs of students? Students want responsibility within a structured environment. They want to explore and see what they are capable of but need a clear understanding of what is expected of them. They also need to know that there is someone to turn to when they have questions and concerns. Students want credit for their hours volunteered. Finally, they want letters of recommendation. Nonprofits should let students know that staff members are willing to write a letter after students have finished volunteering. For many, this letter of recommendation could mean the difference between getting into a college or even getting a job.

CIVIC CLUBS AND ASSOCIATIONS Civic groups and other social organizations are a potential volunteer source for other nonprofits. For example, Rotary International is a service club organization with more than 1.2 million members in 33,000 clubs worldwide. Rotary members are volunteers who work locally, regionally, and internationally to combat hunger, improve health and sanitation, provide education and job training, promote peace, and eradicate polio. One key to engaging civic clubs as volunteers is ensuring that the nonprofit seeking their support has a mission that is compatible and inclusive of the mission of the civic club.

Virtual Volunteer Involvement

In the past, physical location of the volunteer and the nonprofit organization defined the available opportunities for involvement. Today, as a result of technological advances, physical location has been eliminated as a barrier for potential volunteers.

New types of virtual volunteers, such as cyberservice volunteer, teletutor, and telemonitor, grace the landscape of volunteerism. These volunteers participate with no physical presence required. Virtual volunteering is similar to telecommuting, except that instead of online employees, these are online volunteers. Virtual volunteering does not mean that volunteers work solely via the Internet. Many nonprofits find a combination of on-site and online tasks for volunteers that work best for volunteers, staff, and clients. Assignments can have different levels of virtuality. For instance, one volunteer may interact with clients online but meet on-site with a staff member regularly; another may talk with a client via e-mail in addition to their regular face-to-face visits.

There are a number of benefits to consider with virtual volunteers. Volunteers may have better computer equipment than the organizations they serve. Virtual volunteering is environmentally friendly and does not take up office space. Traditional offline recruitment might not reach all volunteers in the community. E-mail provides fast, easy communication options with the volunteer pool. Virtual volunteering taps into new groups of volunteers who may be more prone to use computers and electronic media. Virtual volunteering tasks should not require high security, can be measured qualitatively, generally involve the handling of information, and are not dependent on a team's efforts. These tasks are well suited to virtual volunteering:

- Administrative
- Calculating
- Data entry/processing/programming
- Database administration
- Reading
- Record keeping
- Research
- Sending e-mail
- Support activities
- Technical assistance
- Typing/word processing
- Writing

From Volunteer Management to Professional Volunteer Management

In many ways, the future of volunteering will be what nonprofit organizations make of it. Although many social trends will influence who volunteers and how, ultimately the voluntary sector itself will determine whether the volunteering product is something that people want to buy into. As new trends emerge in the 21st century, the focus of volunteer management must adapt to encompass these changes. According to analyst Lee Burns (1993), the ability to maximize the "gazinta" has become paramount for many individuals. The gazinta is the ratio of satisfaction to time (the amount of satisfaction derived/amount of time invested). Burns explains that maximization can be accomplished in one of two ways:

1. Increasing the amount of satisfaction gained during any given period of time (e.g., by ensuring everything volunteers will need to get their work done is ready when they arrive)

2. Reducing the amount of time taken to achieve the same amount of satisfaction (e.g., by ensuring volunteers have access to time-saving techniques)

The implication for nonprofit organizations that seek to expand options for volunteer involvement is the need to move from volunteer management to professional volunteer management. Professional volunteer management includes (1) reestablishing the image of volunteering, (2) increasing the professionalism of volunteers and volunteer management and (3) targeting volunteers. Each of these professional criteria will help maximize gazinta.

Reestablish the Image of Volunteering

The image of volunteering has been widely debated by industry experts. For many in the volunteer development business, volunteer image represents a type of brand. But there is a question of what this image or brand should be. Should it be fun and career enhancing, in line with the Russell Commission finding (Gerodimos, 2008) on what young people are looking for? Should it appeal to the generation of retiring baby boomers who are looking to keep their lives busy, socially engaged, and fulfilled? Or should it aim to increase diversity by appealing to sections of society that do not really fit the white, middle-class, affluent profile? The answer seems obvious: It needs to be inclusive of all the above. No longer can one message or one image be expected to appeal to all age groups and all cultures. For this reason, the volunteering brand needs to reflect passion, enthusiasm and diversity.

Whose job is it to nurture and reestablish the volunteer image? Although volunteer consulting organizations, volunteer support centers, and government have an important role in promoting a dynamic and coherent volunteer image, paramount to the brand's success are the individual nonprofit organizations and their volunteer resource managers.

Consider any successful product. While state-of-the art-branding and marketing will ensure that people are inspired to try the product, it is the product itself that will guarantee success. People will not go back for seconds and they will tell all their friends not to bother, that the exciting image is all hype. Therefore, it is vitally important that efforts of consulting organizations, volunteer support centers, and government that promote volunteering are preceded by efforts to ensure that the voluntary sector actually can deliver on what is promised. Similarly, nonprofit organizations need to be prepared to meet these support organizations halfway. There are many things that individual organizations can and should start doing today to improve the experience and therefore the word-of-mouth image of volunteering.

For example, volunteer resource managers can:

- Ensure that available volunteering roles are diverse, coherent, and vision based.
- Ensure that volunteers' skills are used effectively and that their time is not wasted through poor organization.
- Provide more creative and flexible opportunities.
- Collaborate with other organizations to consolidate their efforts.

Evans and Saxton (2005) provide this final thought with respect to the image of volunteering. Too often, volunteering is perceived as a generous gift of time from the volunteer to recipients of services. There is no understanding that together volunteers and beneficiaries of volunteer efforts are head and tail of the same coin. That is, at the same time as service recipients derive benefits from the actions of volunteers, those who provide these services also richly benefit from the experience. Added together with training and other benefits provided by a nonprofit organization, arguably the interconnectedness between volunteer and beneficiary and the elements that the beneficiary brings to the table should be better promoted.

Increasing Professionalism

There has been much talk about increasing the professionalism of volunteers and volunteer management. But what does this mean, and why is it important? Professionalism in general can be referred to as an adherence to courtesy, honesty, and responsibility in one's dealings with clients, customers and associates together with a level of excellence that goes over and above the standard expectations and legal requirements. In the voluntary sector, professionalism encompasses treating volunteers with respect by ensuring they are not taken for granted, respecting a volunteer's motivation to volunteer, and ensuring volunteers understand our obligations to them and vice versa. Therefore, increasing professionalism has implications for the nonprofit organization, the volunteer resource manager, and the volunteer.

NONPROFIT ORGANIZATIONS At the organizational level, professionalism of volunteering does not mean turning voluntary work into the equivalent of paid work, minus the pay. Rather, it means that volunteers should be managed in a way that increases their effectiveness and satisfaction and decreases the risk to the organization. As this is a chapter on the options for volunteer involvement, professionalism at the organizational level implies that the organization itself is accessible to volunteers who want to help in the cause. This occurs when all members of the organization have developed a shared vision for how volunteers will be integrated and welcomed into the organization, including boards of directors, top-level management, professional staff, and clerical staff. Perhaps the goal at the organizational level should be inclusiveness and not exclusion. Accessibility also occurs when volunteers are encouraged and opportunities are provided for volunteers to be actively engaged in organizational and strategic planning, day-to-day management, and organizational performance evaluation and not just tasks. Increased professionalism means that resources are available to support volunteer-related initiatives. Finally, organizations become more accessible when engaging, involving, managing, and leading volunteers is the primary responsibility of a professional volunteer resource manager, not just an add-on task to someone else's duties. Maybe there is some truth to the Governor of Minnesota Harold Stassen quote: "I don't care to be involved in the crash landing unless I can be in on the takeoff." (Stassen, n.d.)

VOLUNTEER RESOURCE MANAGERS Many experts have suggested that success in engaging, involving, and leading volunteers is as much an art as it is a skill. Today's volunteers include those who serve on a regular basis and those who serve less frequently. This is complicated by the fact that we may not come face-to-face with many of today's volunteers. Therefore, volunteer resource managers must build and maintain volunteer management systems to accomplish the goals and objectives of the nonprofit organization or charity. What does this mean? A research study of volunteer resource managers suggests that they must: (1) develop their personal readiness; (2) define the scope of volunteer involvement; (3) engage volunteers; (4) build the capacity of volunteers; and (5) sustain volunteer involvement (National 4-H Professional Development Task Force, 2004).

Volunteer resource managers must develop their personal readiness to engage, manage, and lead volunteers. Holistically, developing personal readiness should include developing a personal philosophy of volunteerism, understanding the trends in volunteerism, and advocating for volunteerism. Specifically, personal readiness implies that volunteer resource managers have the ability to articulate a belief in the competence of volunteers and are able to identify and engage a diverse audience of volunteers and educate others on the value of volunteerism.

Additionally, volunteer resource managers need to define the scope of volunteer involvement. This includes creating a positive climate for volunteers, identifying a variety of organizational needs that volunteers can fulfill, and developing volunteer role descriptions to meet these needs. A positive climate would ensure that volunteer roles and staff roles support each other. Community and organizational needs assessments are performed. Finally, role descriptions would be flexible to meet the needs of 21st-century volunteers and consider length of commitment and physical location.

Twenty-first century volunteer resource managers will develop effective strategies to engage volunteers, including both volunteer recruitment and selection. Professionalism in volunteer recruitment starts with an understanding that volunteer engagement is about relationships. Like any relationship, success starts with each participant in the process getting to know the other, continues through cultivation, and finishes when both parties needs' are met. The big difference today is that professionals understand that a relationship is cultivated over time. Professionalism also includes the understanding that volunteer selection is about placing the right people in the right roles. Doing this leads to success. The old paradigm "Anybody, anywhere" is a strategy for increased conflict and hardship in a volunteer program.

Today's successful volunteer manager understands the importance of increasing the capacity of volunteers. Not all volunteers are blessed with all the information that they need to be successful. Volunteers expect—*no, demand*—training. This starts with orienting them on the organization, policies and procedures, and their specific volunteer role. Capacity building continues by understanding each volunteer in the program and developing a training plan that improves a volunteer's effectiveness. Doing this includes delivering training face-to-face, through webinars, and via self-guided instruction. Failing this, volunteers will seek opportunities elsewhere.

Finally, 21st-century volunteer resource managers understand that it takes ten times more effort to recruit a new volunteer than it takes to retain an existing one. Therefore, sustaining a volunteer program not only creates consistency; it improves efficiency. Sustaining a volunteer program includes supervising and coaching volunteers, managing their performance, recognizing volunteer contributions, and evaluating volunteers and the volunteer program.

VOLUNTEERS Finally, volunteers currently serving within our organizations must be expected to achieve a level of professionalism commensurate with the role that they serve. They advocate on our behalf and carry out the mission of our organizations. Rather than provide a list of all potential competencies, an example from 4-H will suffice. 4-H is the largest volunteer-based organization in the United States if not the world. With the support and leadership of professional volunteer resource managers, volunteers help youth: (1) develop a sense of belonging in an inclusive environment, (2) become engaged in learning and developing new skills, (3) to see themselves as active participants in the future, and (4) learn to value and practice service for others. To accomplish these goals, a group of professional volunteer resource managers developed the Volunteer Research & Knowledge Competencies (VRKC) to identify the professional competencies needed by volunteers to be successful at helping youth achieve these four goals (Culp, McKee, & Nestor, 2007). These competencies include:

- *Educational delivery.* The ability to plan, implement, and evaluate research-based learning opportunities that effectively promote positive personal development
- *Positive youth development.* The ability to intentionally and appropriately apply the principles and best practices that result in the positive development of youth
- *Interpersonal characteristics.* The ability to develop effective relationships, work competently with individuals and groups, and express empathy and understanding for others
- *Communications.* The ability to create, deliver, and interpret information effectively through formal and nonformal means
- *Organization.* The ability to engage others in planning, providing, and delivering positive 4-H youth development programming in a community
- *4-H program management.* The ability to understand and follow appropriate policies, procedures, and safety guidelines when acting on behalf of Extension 4-H.

These expectations and those established by other organizations are important for today's volunteers. Twenty-first-century volunteers are more educated and professional than ever before, and they expect a level of professionalism within the organization and of other volunteers they serve with. If we want to have access to these volunteers, we must expect professionalism from volunteers. The example provided by 4-H is consistent with establishing courtesy, honesty, and responsibility in one's dealings with youth, professional staff, and other volunteers together with a level of excellence that goes over and above the standard expectations and legal requirements of a volunteer program.

Targeting Volunteers

Growth in the nonprofit sector has provided many new options for volunteer involvement. This growth has increased the competition for volunteers and has set the bar even higher for volunteer resource managers. To accomplish the goals and objectives of the nonprofit through volunteers, there will not only be a need to recruit more volunteers; but increasingly the emphasis of volunteer recruitment will to shift to recruiting the right volunteer (Randle & Dolnicar, 2009). For years, the for profit companies have segmented the market in search of high value, low maintenance customers (Dolnicar, Freitag, & Randle, 2005). This has been in response to the realization that marketing and support budgets are limited and expenditures must maximize profits.

In many ways, nonprofits have similar dilemmas. There are not enough resources to recruit, train and support every potential volunteer an organization desires. Targeting volunteers in many ways resembles market segmentation. The goal is to attract volunteers that significantly contribute to mission of the nonprofit organization and at the same time maximize supervision and support resources.

To target volunteers requires increased professionalism in the voluntary sector. Volunteer resource managers must identify how volunteers will support the mission of the organization. Next, professionals must identify the tasks associated with volunteer roles. Finally, expenditures for recruitment strategies must be utilized to match the interests, skills and abilities of a potential volunteer with a specific task or function of a nonprofit organization.

Conclusion

This chapter focused on the options for volunteer involvement by examining the factors that influence involvement. It began by using the volunteer life cycle to illustrate volunteer behavior as similar to the way a market system relates to consumer behavior. The chapter provided insight into the social, economic, and cultural trends and advancements in technology that impact the options for volunteer involvement. The types of volunteer involvement have changed over time and can be characterized by what volunteers do, how they serve, who is volunteering, and physical location. The chapter concluded by suggesting that social, economic, and cultural change and technological advancement provided sufficient force to move nonprofit organizations from volunteer management to professional volunteer management to extend the volunteer life cycle.

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DIGITAL E

Managing Voluntourism

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This chapter discusses the emerging concept and practices of "voluntourism" or volunteer-tourism. Voluntourism involves a combination of leisure travel and varying levels and durations of voluntary activities of travelers at destination sites. Voluntourists are volunteers, who combine their vacation travel with certain voluntary activities at destination communities with the assistance of volun-tour operators and local hosts. While some aspects of what is currently known as voluntourism have been practiced for several decades, if not centuries, it is a relatively a new phenomena that is gaining momentum with the establishment of numerous operators and host organizations. During the past few years, several studies have been conducted on the motivations of voluntourists, marketing of nonprofit voluntour operators, responsibilities of host organizations at destination sites, issues that need to be addressed, and prospects that are yet to be explored.

This chapter reviews various aspects of voluntourism, to provide perspective and "actionable" information regarding this fast-growing and important form of volunteering within the context of volunteer resource management by reviewing the history and trends in voluntourism; motivations of voluntourists; roles and responsibilities of voluntourism operators and host organizations; recruitment; and orientation and training of voluntourists. Complementing the findings of two recent major surveys that included approximately 1900 voluntourists (Cheung, Michel, & Miller, 2010; McGehee, Clemmons, & Lee, 2009) explaining their motivations and experience, the authors conducted interviews with a selected group of voluntourism operators in order to identify and highlight important aspects of participation in marketing and managing voluntourism programs.

Defining Voluntourism

Voluntourism, in general, bridges traditional voluntarism with traditional tourism, so that volunteers provide their services to needy communities in destinations to which they travel. Due to the merger of these two major fields, it is not easy to narrowly define voluntourism, especially due to the use of other nomenclatures like moral tourism, charity tourism, ethical vacation, social tourism, goodwill tourism, and leisure travel philanthropy. However, in the fast-growing literature on the subject, a few authors have provided generally acceptable definitions. The following are some of those definitions:

- Voluntourism is "the conscious, seamlessly integrated combination of voluntary service to a destination with the traditional elements of travel and tourism" (David Clemmons, Founder of voluntourism.org). It is the "utilization of discretionary time and income to go out of the regular sphere of activity to assist others in need" (McGehee & Santos, 2005).
- Voluntourists are "tourists who, for various reasons, volunteer in an organized way to undertake holidays that might involve aiding or alleviating the material poverty of some groups in society, the restoration of certain environments or research into aspects of society or environment" (Wearing, 2001).

Voluntourists pay for their travel and living expenses and also often for the expenses of the voluntourism project in which they participate. Unlike traditional volunteers who participate in voluntary projects in familiar communities closer to home, voluntourists work in locations often far away from their home countries, where they may have never been before. They work in unfamiliar surroundings that include new people, communities, cultures, traditions, physical environments, climates, and living arrangements. In essence, from the voluntourists' perspectives, there are innumerable unknowns surrounding the projects they participate in.

Although voluntourism projects can take place anywhere in the world, for the most part, voluntourism is embarked upon by individuals and groups of volunteers from industrialized western countries that travel and serve communities in developing countries. Voluntourism is steadily growing in several European countries, Australia and New Zealand. However, Americans lead the world in voluntourism in terms of absolute numbers, time spent on voluntourist services, and donations contributed to those services. This fact is also complemented by a strong and steadily growing number of nonprofit organizations that host voluntourism programs in partnership with international travel agencies and field/site NGOs with whom the voluntourists work during their endeavor.

Voluntourism options can range in duration from about one week to multiple months and involve projects ranging from building houses for impoverished communities in Cambodia (Tabitha Foundation; www.tabitha.ca) to teaching basic swimming skills to communities in India to prevent drowning fatalities (Project Swim International; projectswiminternational.org). Unlike traditional volunteering, voluntourism involves travel and living expenses and prolonged periods of time away from home. From the voluntourists' perspective, the main purpose of their trip can be varied: mainly to volunteer with a supplemental travel; leisure travel with a supplemental volunteering project; or business travel with a supplemental volunteering experience.

History and Trends in Voluntourism

Some features of voluntourism have existed all over the world for centuries, mainly through religious organizations that promoted travel-based charity for their members to help the needy in underdeveloped countries as part of their religious responsibility or mission. Natural and man-made disasters throughout modern history also mobilized volunteers to travel to affected areas across the world to provide various relief, rehabilitation, and reconstruction services. Major nonprofit organizations such as the Red Cross pioneered methods and practices for recruiting, training, and sending volunteers abroad for disaster relief services. But the major initiative that transformed the way in which volunteers provided services abroad was the establishment of Peace Corps in 1961, a U.S. government agency that provides American volunteers to countries around the world requesting volunteer assistance. By inspiring prospective volunteers with the slogan of ''Life is Calling. How far will you go?,'' Peace Corps has mobilized more than 200,000 volunteers to serve in 139 countries since its establishment, most of them from the developing world (peacecorps.gov).

The next wave of volunteering abroad began in the 1970s when major U.S. universities launched Study Abroad programs with focuses on cultural learning, service learning, and volunteering. This initiated a strong trend of young adults volunteering abroad as part of their college education. It was in the late 1970s that several religious organizations, in addition to the overseas religious missions of their members, began long-term volunteer services in developing countries; and they continue to be important providers and operators of voluntourism opportunities today. For example, Habitat for Humanity, a nonprofit ecumenical Christian housing ministry established in 1976, has provided opportunities for volunteers to build over 350,000 houses around the world (www.habitat.org).

The 1980s saw an explosion of activities in the tourism industry. Like never before, Americans began to travel to locations that were never part of traditional tourist destinations. This period also ushered the era of ''niche tourism'' that catered to various interests of individual tourists. In addition to leisurely and vacation travels, the tourism industry expanded its scope to include ecotourism, cultural tourism, sustainable tourism, medical tourism, and sports and adventure related tourism among others. These niche tourism markets emerged to provide alternate experiences for those who viewed mass tourism as exploitive to the host destinations, communities and societies. A considerable number of the tourists who chose these niche tourism ventures began to show interest in providing some form of voluntary services to their local host communities during their travel. Several U.S.-based nonprofit organizations that provided services abroad began formal operations to utilize the volunteering capabilities of tourists, especially in the countries they served.

From the latter part of 1980s, the corporate sector began to include volunteering as a part of business travel towards the general goals of social entrepreneurship, corporate social responsibility, and improving their image among the consumer public. As a way to express their social responsibilities, several corporations included voluntourism as part of their employees' attendance/participation during conventions and other corporate meetings in developing countries or wherever communities needed assistance. For example, Avaya, Inc., a Fortune 500 company, held its 2006 Global

Sales and Partner Conference in New Orleans, primarily to support the city that was ravaged by Hurricane Katrina. Several employees of the corporation arrived early at New Orleans and worked on voluntary projects organized by Habitat for Humanity and the American Red Cross (Papillion, 2006). This corporate interest in voluntourism, although fluctuating with tides of revenues and economy, has brought additional momentum to its growth.

The 1990s saw a sharp increase in new nonprofits and expansion of existing nonprofits that had voluntourism as a major part of their operation. Realizing the growing interests in voluntourism opportunities, a few for-profit tour operators and travel agents began to enter into partnership with voluntourism host (nonprofit) organizations to expand their operation and to make the travel agenda more attractive to voluntourists. This unusual alliance between the volunteer "industry" and tourism industry on the one hand, and the steadily growing interests among volunteers, tourists, and the corporate sector on the other, has resulted in a dedicated voluntourism industry and has further solidified the growth of voluntourism as a major form of travel. Similar to the interests in and appeal for ecotourism in the 1980s and beyond, voluntourism has garnered a unique niche area among people who find it as a perfect avenue for combining their altruistic beliefs with travel interests to explore societies in need.

The 2009 Forecast Poll by Travelocity.com revealed that 13 % of travelers planned on including volunteer service as a part of their leisure itineraries last year (Luck, 2010). There is also a recent trend for professional association meetings and conventions to include voluntourism in place of the standard golf and spa packages (Schickendanz, 2008, p. 30).

In 2008, a group of dedicated individuals and experts launched www.voluntourism.org, a web portal that provides a wide variety of resources and newsletters for voluntourists, nonprofits and travel companies that organize voluntours, host NGOs and communities at destination sites, and corporate entities that are interested in combining business travel with voluntouring. With the launching of voluntourism.org, voluntourism has become a subject for research, surveys, newsletters, blogs, and opinion discussions. The expert team of this web portal has also made it a treasure of information on various aspects of voluntourism for academics, researchers, and practitioners in the fields of tourism and volunteer management.

Thus, voluntourism is a growing trend both in the volunteering circle and tourism industry, and has become one of the fastest-growing forms of travel in the world (voluntourism.org). Callanan and Thomas (2005) call it a "mainstream tourism niche." Within the short span of two decades, the field has grown tremendously as an alternative travel and altruistic experience and voluntourists have served and are serving needy communities across the globe.

Who are Voluntourists and Why do They Voluntour?

As in traditional volunteer management, it is important to understand the characteristics and motivational factors of voluntourists in order to successfully operate voluntourism programs. Voluntourists can be individuals from all walks of life; some participants are not yet adults while others have recently celebrated their eightieth birthday. For example, the voluntourism operating organization United Planet's primary volunteer members are young adults, college students, and recent graduates. Young women participate more than young men in the organization's voluntourism programs. Their second highest percentage of participants is the "affluent" group. This demographic is made up of older individuals who are physically fit and "looking for adventure and service," "affluent mid-career travelers" and "young adults supported by affluent households." The smallest percentage of voluntourists is made up of three types of participants: single individuals experiencing a mid-career transition, a small number of couples, and a few families. While the demographic characteristics of volunteers tend to be based on the mission and specific services of voluntourism operators, most voluntourists seem to reflect the clients of United Planet.

The basic motivation for voluntourists seems to stem from a rejection of mass-tourism and the embracing of alternative experiential travel that is more meaningful. While mass-tourism represents certain levels of exploitation of host communities and their environment, voluntourism represents the enrichment of the host communities by dedicated voluntourists. Frankl's (2000) theory in *Man's Search for Ultimate Meaning* has significance in this context. Frankl suggests that meaning within leisure lies in four dimensions: physical, mental, social and spiritual, and thus there is a pursuit of inner freedom, perceived self-worth, significance and sense of values, all of which can be pursued within voluntourism.

In general, tourists are motivated to travel through push factors that include the desire for leisure and breaks from routine, and pull factors that include the novelty and unique features of destinations (Wearing, 2002). However, defining voluntourists' motivation using the push and pull model is more complex (Wearing, 2004). For voluntourists, most push factors are intrinsic motivators. The push factors of self-discovery, enlightenment and personal transformation are important to voluntourists, in addition to the physical locations and unique elements in destination countries that make up a mainstream tourism experience. Motivation for a voluntourist may not come from the experience itself but from the external reward of promoting community development and environmentally sustainable travel. Often, voluntourists are not considered tourists either by the host communities or by themselves (Wearing, 2004, McGehee & Andereck, 2009).

Shalini Singh and Tej Vir Singh (2004) provide a different explanation for voluntourists as the "post-materialist/post-modernist new tourists" who find meaning in activities with others that "permit them to 'feel good' by 'doing good'" (p. 182). This new spin to the tourist mentality has offered an environment that is conducive to the growth of voluntourism. Voluntourists are those who have become "jaded with standardized package holidays and are searching for more alternative types of travel offering a range of experiences" (Callanan & Thomas, 2005; p. 183). Voluntourists are also influenced by the following factors: family and friends, environmental context and consciousness, past volunteering experiences, previous overseas travel, cultural experiences, and search for alternative forms of leisure.

Based on his study of voluntourists in a Costa Rica rainforest, Wearing (2001) concluded that "voluntourism provides an opportunity for an individual to engage in an altruistic attempt to explore 'self.' Voluntourism is built around the belief that by living in and learning about other people and cultures, in an environment of mutual benefit and cooperation, one is able to engage in a transformation and the development of self."

Brown (2005) concluded that the following four major motivational themes appeared when determining why people volunteer while on vacation: giving back, cultural immersion, seeking camaraderie, and seeking education and bonding opportunities. In reality, motivations that voluntourists hold are very diverse. They range from seeking to make a truly positive impact on a community, to obtaining a "cheap" vacation with the ease of traveling in a group (Sin, 2009). Those who are motivated by opportunities for cultural immersion or acquiring cultural capital tend to choose their voluntourism destination based on the host culture rather than social issues. This group is also not likely to return to the same voluntourism project again.

McGhee & Clemmons' (2008) *2008 Voluntourism Survey Report,* which was based on an extensive survey of 824 voluntourists and potential voluntourists, identified three clusters of voluntourists based on their levels of motivations. The first cluster is the group with highest motivation called the "vanguards," comprised of individuals who volunteer on a regular basis at home and have fairly high levels of leisure travel experience. Vanguards seek the most physically and mentally intense voluntourism experience. The second group, known as "pragmatists," was primarily motivated by the idea of developing a relationship with members of a host community and was less interested in intense voluntourism experiences. The third group, the "questers," although interested in voluntourism, are least sure of their motivations to participate in voluntourism and unsure of the level of intensity (McGehee & Andereck, 2009).

Another voluntourism survey, conducted by the Georgian College Research Analyst Program, based on the responses of 1,073 voluntourists with an average age range of 20-39, revealed that the primary motivational incentives for the voluntourists were derived from the type of voluntourism projects available (Cheung et al., 2010). Though the motivational incentives were quite similar, the motivations themselves were very diverse. The voluntourism projects that motivated more than 50 percent of the respondents were in the areas of environmental conservation, community development, and wildlife. The survey report concluded that "one size does not fit all" and that respondents of various ages and regions had different motivations (Cheung et al., 2010, p. 5).

According to the renowned voluntourism expert David Clemmons (2010), there are three emerging classes of voluntourists, in terms of length and extent of involvement in voluntourism projects:

1. The 40-Hour Club: Voluntourists who commit a minimum of 40 hours during a week for projects. They tend to complete the projects before embarking on any leisure travel activities. They also might have a long-term commitment to return to specific projects.
2. The 50-50 Club: Voluntourists who commit half of their time to projects and the rest to leisure travel. They tend to be involved in projects between travels (sandwich), or do a week of volunteering followed by a week of travel (book-end), or split a day or week between volunteering and travel (integrated).
3. The Tasters: Voluntourists who combine volunteering with conventions, professional or business meetings. This group also includes persons who engage in "give back getaways," where a small time of leisure travel is spent on projects (Ellis & Clemmons, 2008).

The Voluntourism Partnerships

When planned, organized, and completed successfully, voluntourism projects can result in meaningful experiences for voluntourists and benefit individuals and communities at the destination site. Steadily increasing interests and demand for voluntourism have resulted in "voluntourism partnerships" among six major groups of players:

1. Individual and groups of experienced or potential voluntourists
2. Voluntourism operators, the nonprofits in the U.S. that plan and organize voluntourism trips in alignment with their missions
3. Private travel agencies, tour operators, and online travel services
4. Airlines that provide discounts on travel
5. Voluntourism hosts, the nonprofits or non-governmental organizations (NGOs) that assist voluntourists on projects at destination sites and communities
6. Voluntourism beneficiaries and communities

Each member of these partnerships has certain roles and responsibilities in order to make voluntourism trips/projects successful. While working relationships and nuances of the various aspects of voluntourism between these partners are still evolving, some general observations can be made for efficient and effective projects.

Voluntourism Operators and Tourism Industry Linkages

Nonprofits that began to organize and operate voluntourism programs in the 1980s were clear in the cause and extent of voluntourism projects, but struggled to provide a good "tour" part of the experience. Travel agencies became the natural partners to provide these services, including arrangements for travel documents, air tickets, and other travel opportunities at destinations. These partnerships became solidified in the past decade as travel agencies became familiar with the expectations of voluntourists, operators, and host communities and began to develop mutually beneficial travel packages for operators and their voluntourists. Some of the current major voluntourism operators (example: Planeterra Foundation) are the ones with strong internal networks with the travel industry.

With the growing demand, major travel agencies also saw the potentials for cause marketing in voluntourism. By way of promoting their businesses along with positive image and social responsibility, travel agencies and tour operators began to assist voluntourism operators and voluntourists by providing discounted prices on tour packages. When online travel services such as travelocity.com and cheaptickets.com began to dominate the market in the late 1990s, they too began to offer discounted travel packages for voluntourists. For example, cheaptickets.com launched its Cheap Tickets Volunteers Vacations Savings Program. This program offered specially discounted flights and hotel and vacation packages to ten or more voluntourists traveling for the same voluntourism project. Group of voluntourists or the voluntourism operator could access this program by providing documentation about the projects and the nonprofit status of the operator and/or the host.

The next level of assistance to voluntourism from the travel industry came from two sources: (1) the airlines themselves; and (2) online travel services. As part of their corporate social responsibility and cause marketing, airlines began to directly offer discounts on air tickets for voluntourists. According to Ryan Skoog, President of Fly For Good (2010), some airlines provide savings of 20 % to 40 % in air tickets for people traveling for humanitarian or nonprofit purposes (flyforgood.com). Online travel services, in addition to discounted travel packages, also offer grants for voluntourists. Travelocity's (Travelocity.com) Travel for Good program, through the Sabre Holdings Foundation, provides voluntourism grants up to $5000 for voluntourists who cannot afford to participate in projects without assistance (Travelocity.com LP, 2010). These grants require applicants to select a voluntourism project offered by one of the program's partner operators.

A recent example of a good partnership between the online travel services, operators and the airlines is Fly for Good (2010). This Better Business Bureau-accredited organization, in addition to airfare discount of up to 50 % for voluntourists, also provide voluntourism opportunities through its "The Good Network," a network of more than 200 U.S.-based and foreign based voluntourism operators. According to Fly for Good, legitimacy of all members in the network are verified and they must meet certain standards for providing voluntourism opportunities. The Fly for Good Web site has a "volunteer trip finder," an efficient and interactive tool by which potential voluntourists can identify projects by destinations or activities. The organization, for a small fee, provides individualized International Volunteer Card which provides travel assistance, insurance services, and discounts with numerous travel-related and retail businesses. Fly for Good also provides essential information for planning voluntourism trips, helpful tips and additional links for information sources.

In the recent years, many nonprofits and charity groups have partnered with tour operators to create combined fundraising and voluntouring holidays (Callanan & Thomas, 2005). According to Marriot (1999), sponsored charity tours have become one of the fastest growing sectors of the holiday market (cited in Callanan & Thomas, 2005).

Marketing and Recruiting Voluntourists

In spite of the growing interest for voluntourism, nonprofits and their for-profit travel service counterparts have not streamlined the marketing of voluntourism opportunities well. Marketing voluntourism goes beyond the provision of attractive materials, options and other promotional material. Voluntourism marketing is the art of identifying potential voluntourists' motivation and then connecting them with suitable voluntourism projects.

Voluntourism marketing has one main goal: to spur into action the targeted audience. Because the voluntourists are made up of such a diverse group of individuals, marketing voluntourism opportunities begins with the identification of the demographics of desired/potential participants. In a broad sense, marketing voluntourism is the pursuit of individuals who are interested in the mission, niche service and destination(s) of the voluntourism operator. Alignment between the operator's niche and the desires of potential voluntourists revolves mostly around the following factors:

1. Belief in the cause or the mission of the operator and the voluntourism project
2. Attraction to the region/country/community where the project is located
3. Capacity (skills) and willingness to work on the project
4. Capacity and willingness to pay for the travel and living expenditures
5. Capacity and willingness to pay, in some part, for the project
6. Sense of worth (meaningfulness) from the project in terms of time, work and financial commitments
7. Capacity and willingness to adhere to the operator's procedures

Marketing strategies that take all these factors into consideration are likely to succeed in "connecting" with potential clients.

Voluntourism marketing strategies can be two-pronged: (1) market to any individual and/or group interested in the program without regard to their motivation, and (2) target marketing strategies to individuals and groups that believe in the cause and desire to provide a service that will be of value to the host community.

Needless to say, the travel industry has a major role in marketing voluntourism. Savvy travel service agencies understand the trends in services related to voluntourism and gear themselves up to meet the needs. According to Linda Furry, a travel consultant, travel companies have seen doubling of growth of voluntourists between 2005 and 2010 (Fly for Food, 2010). Most prospective voluntourists are individuals who have gone on "traditional" vacations utilizing the travel agencies, but have wanted more purpose-driven results from their future vacations by getting involved with the local communities of their future destinations. By creating linkages between such clients and voluntourism operators in those destinations, travel service agents can engage in effective marketing that benefit all three parties involved.

Consciousness-raising is an important first step in marketing voluntourism. Before individuals can be mobilized and encouraged to participate, they must first become aware of the issues and inequalities that exist in destination communities (McGehee & Santos, 2005). Voluntourism operators become involved in projects due to their mission orientation. Increasing the awareness of the general public on their mission and how it is translated into destination communities and voluntourism projects, by itself, can be a powerful motivation factor for potential voluntourists who are seeking to combine their travel with meaningful experiences (discussed under the earlier section). "Ensuring that organizations understand the images that their promotional material is creating will help them to position themselves most effectively with the sector, tapping into the correct market to achieve their project goals, and ensure that their volunteers' expectations match their experiences," (Coghlan, 2007, p. 285). Marketing should also promote a sense of being in safe hands, among potential clients. Operator, travel agent, and local host responsibilities need to be highlighted, so clients will feel safe to commit to the projects.

Individuals are also much more likely to identify with and participate in voluntourism projects if encouraged by those around them. Consciousness-raising is transmitted through groups and organizations that are inspired and educated by each other. A positive voluntourism experience may provide a similar indirect/informal channel for exchange of ideas, and in the process, a consciousness-raising experience (McGehee & Santos, 2005). The importance of social networks and word-of-mouth advertisements need to be captured within the marketing strategy. In other words, marketing strategies need to create a sense among potential voluntourists that they are part of a larger group that is interested in like-minded voluntourism ventures. This can be best achieved by mobilizing former voluntourists to spread the word about their positive experience in projects. On the contrary, those with negative experience in previous voluntouring can be detrimental to marketing efforts by passing on information about their bad experience and dissatisfaction. In order to prevent this, prompt remedial measures need to be taken and affected former voluntourists need to be notified of the changes.

Studies (McGehee & Santos, 2005; Taillon, 2007; Cheung et al., 2010) have shown that individuals seek meaningful experiences during critical changes or crossroads in their lives. These may include the periods immediately after college graduation, retirement, some life-changing event, or when considering a career-change. Voluntourism operators should be cognizant of this group in targeting their marketing and recruitment strategies. For example, marketing and recruitment campaigns just before and/or right after college graduations are likely to yield good results. Depending on the target audience, advertisements need to appear for the right duration in right (multiple) media avenues including news, television, and popular Web sites. Social media, especially blogs, Facebook, and Twitter, all can play important roles in reaching out to the internet savvy audience, especially the Millennials. Effective pitch slogans or taglines for these campaigns should invite the prospects to become involved in a voluntourism opportunity. This opportunity could be presented under banners such as “global citizens,” “children of the world,” or “discovery of fulfillment” in serving the needs of communities in destination sites. It is this type of appeal that prompted generations of individuals to serve on Peace Corps and will continue to assist voluntourism operators in connecting better with potential voluntourists.

Best Practices in Voluntourism Marketing and Recruitment

During the research phase for this chapter, five voluntourism operators were identified based on variety, quality of programs, and growth: Cross-Cultural Solutions, Global Service Corps, Globe Aware, United Planet, and WAVES for Development. In-depth interviews were conducted with relevant officials of these organizations in order to provide the most current experiences and insights into the field of voluntourism management. The following are brief descriptions of these organizations.

Cross-Cultural Solutions offers voluntourism programs in caregiving, teaching, healthcare, and community development in Africa, Asia, Eastern Europe and Latin America that ranges anywhere from 1 to 12 weeks (www.crossculturalsolutions.org). Global Service Corps provides programs in the fields of international health, orphanage care, education, sustainable agriculture and food security in Africa and Asia (www.globalservicecorps.org). GlobeAware’s voluntourism program offers short-term project opportunities for doctors, carpenters, nurses, teachers, laborers and entrepreneurs for building schools, hospitals and irrigation projects in Latin America, Southeast Asia, and Eastern Europe (www.globeaware.org). United Planet provides short-term and long-term environmental conservation, orphanage, healthcare and educational voluntourism projects in countries such as Bolivia, Indonesia, Jordan, Mozambique, Tanzania, and Tibet (www.unitedplanet.org). WAVES for Development offers community and youth development voluntourism projects for surfers in coastal communities of Latin America (www.wavesfordevelopment.org).

The following are some of the most efficient and effective voluntourism marketing and recruitment strategies of these organizations. Although their voluntourism opportunities are available to individuals and groups from around the world, residents of the states where they are located seem to receive fair amount of attention in their recruitment initiatives. Organizations with offices abroad (example: Cross-Cultural Solutions, with offices in Australia, Canada & UK) have representatives in multiple countries and regions for strong recruitment presence. These organizations use multiple marketing tools ranging from search engine advertising to on-campus fairs and conferences. Global Service Corps focuses its marketing efforts by ensuring that its Web site is constantly updated and by responding to all inquiries for voluntourism opportunities in a timely fashion. Follow-up phone calls and emails with thorough information on inquiries are key. Cross-Cultural Solutions' marketing focus is primarily on forming relationships with colleges and universities, corporations and other groups.

United Planet directs its marketing attention to on-campus fairs, but its main marketing outlet is through the internet. As social media is blossoming and visual stimuli seems to be the demand of the next generation, United Planet has decided to focus on enhancing its cyber-presence by being included in "organic articles", buying on-line advertisements and including its name in online listings. In addition, constant attention is paid to enhance the marketing initiatives by addressing the opportunities that exist in media relations, magazines, conferences, etc. In addition to strong online presence, Globe Aware has benefited from being featured and/or mentioned in articles on print media such as USA Today (Allen, 2010) and US News and World Report (Gearon, 2010). WAVES for Development (which provides surf voluntourism) because of its niche market, focuses its recruiting on surfers and the surfing-related outlets. It was recently successful in securing an AdWords grant, which is the mega search engine Google's in-kind free advertising to selected nonprofits. The organization has also partnered with several agencies and its voluntourists in fundraising efforts that have resulted in revenue, financial assistance for voluntourists, and word of mouth marketing. WAVES has also partnered with schools and universities to facilitate group education visits. All these organizations extensively engage with their alumni base and promote result oriented word-of-mouth marketing for their voluntourism programs.

The Cost Breakdown

Another fair recruitment practice is to clearly inform prospects about all their expected expenses for participating in a voluntourism project. Voluntourism experience is an expensive undertaking. While typical voluntourist expenses include airfare, living expenses including lodging and food, health care, local travel, and personal expenses, many voluntourism opportunities also require the voluntourists' to make monetary contributions to the project. In any case, it is very important for operators to be up front about all expenses involved. Failure to do so will affect the trust that a voluntourist has with the operator and may result in dissatisfaction with the overall experience.

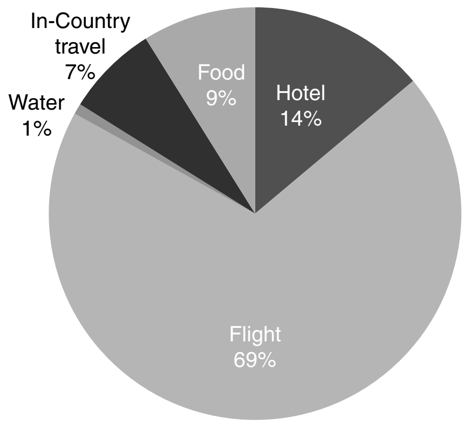

EXHIBIT E.1 Cost Break-Down of a One-Week Voluntourism Project by Tabitha Foundation

Expenses involved in voluntourism projects vary depending on the destination, duration of participation, operation costs, and additional travel plans of the voluntourists. Considering that most voluntourism projects seem to be located in developing countries of Africa and Asia, travel expenses are the largest proportion of total expenses. For example, expenses for a one week voluntourism trip to Cambodia organized by Tabitha Foundation totals to about $2,180.00 (www.tabithausa.org). Exhibit E.1 gives the breakdown of the approximate expenses:

Cross-Cultural Solutions, provides short-term and long-term voluntourism programs. The cost breakdown for its long-term project is shown in Exhibit E.2.

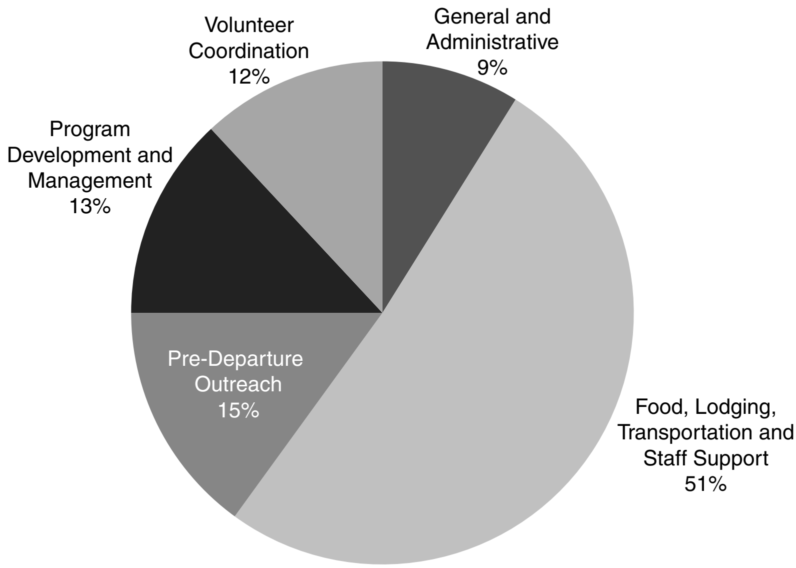

EXHIBIT E.2 Cross-Cultural Solutions' Long-Term Voluntourism Project Cost Breakdown

Voluntourism Operator Responsibilities

The responsibilities of nonprofits that operate voluntourism programs are paramount. Unlike nonprofits that engage volunteers on their home turf, voluntourism operators need to understand and negotiate their way through several facets of voluntourism projects and programs that are actually implemented in foreign countries. First and foremost, operators should initiate only the projects that are in direct alignment with their mission and only after developing a reasonable level of understanding on the needs of projects in host communities and sites. Cultural, economic, environmental, political, public health and other realities of project sites need to be taken into consideration in designing voluntourism projects. These steps are also crucial for marketing and recruitment because they establish prospective voluntourists' trust with the organization and its capacity to complete the project successfully.

Once a group of voluntourists are on board for a particular project, the responsibilities of the operator shifts to a higher gear in order for voluntourists to realize the transformational experience they seek from the experience. From this point onwards, operators' support to voluntourists can be broadly categorized into three levels: (1) pre-departure orientation and training, (2) in-the-field support and monitoring, and (3) post-project debriefing.

Pre-Departure Orientation and Training

Levels of pre-departure orientations vary depending on the duration and intensity of the project, and size of voluntourist groups. However, the following are the common elements that need to be covered in all orientations:

1. Organizational mission and how that translates into the voluntourism project(s) that the participants are about to launch
2. Needs of the host communities and how the specific project will fill those needs
3. Ground realities, in brief, of destination sites including: people, communities, and their socio-economic status within the host country and in relation to the USA, history, culture, living conditions, environment, climate, and politics
4. Basic cultural sensitivity training
5. Details on necessary travel documents such as passport and visas
6. Thorough cost breakdown of all expenses including travel and living expenses
7. Details on required immunizations or other health information and recommendations
8. Living arrangements, food, availability of basic health care
9. List of items to pack for the travel, depending on the conditions of project site
10. Information about local host organization, contact persons for project- related and personal assistance
11. Detailed schedule of the project and possible/actual roles of the individual voluntourist
12. Communication sources such as postal service, telephones, and internet access

Determining the qualifications and/or level of skills needed to complete various aspects of the projects and assign them accordingly to voluntourists is an essential step in the orientation process. Along with information on assignments, highlighting the community need that the specific assignment fulfills will instill in volunteers a sense of purpose even prior to their actual travel to the destination site.

Because transformative learning is one of the goals of most voluntourism programs, participants could be engaged in activities and experiences just before, during, or right after the pre-departure orientation. This exercise will help them examine alternatives to their current way of thinking about themselves, the world around them, and the community they are about to visit. The activity may include visual presentations such as films, arts, video clips and pictures from previous voluntourism trips and other relevant information. (Cranton, 2008).

A major tool that can be of great help to voluntourists before and during their voluntourism experience is a comprehensive and well-written voluntourist handbook. All information covered during pre-trip orientation (listed in the previous section) need to be included and elaborated in the handbook. Voluntourists might not pay attention to or understand part of the information provided during orientation, hence packaging them in the handbook becomes important. In addition, the handbook can also have relevant detailed information about the host organization, clients, partners, and other beneficiaries of the project. These will help voluntourists to connect better with the community if they desire to do so during their time at the destination site.

In-the-Field Support and Monitoring

Although by contractual or other means, the responsibilities of "hosting" voluntourists during their work on projects shifts towards a local nonprofit or nongovernmental organization (NGO) that works with the project communities, it is the voluntourism operator who has ultimate responsibility for the well-being of voluntourists and smooth progression of the projects. While supporting voluntourists to achieve their transformational potentials, operators need to be cautious not to introduce them to a "situation that over-stimulates, i.e., puts them in the danger zone, nor under-stimulates, that is, leaves them in the comfort zone" (Greg Tehven, quoted in McGehee & Clemmons, 2008) and thereby not be able to gain the transformational experience they seek.

It is common for large voluntourism operators to have permanent staff presence at the destination site. Some of them opt to send coordinators or organizational representatives who accompany the voluntourists during the project. The main purpose of such presence at the site is to support the working and living arrangements of voluntourists, and monitor local host involvement.

Post-Project Debriefing

Upon the return of voluntourists from destination sites, it is important for operators to have in place a set of measures to gauge their experiences and opinions. Such measures serve multiple purposes: understanding successes so that they can be built upon to enhance future projects; identifying issues so that they can be resolved for better voluntourism opportunities; incorporating recommendations/suggestions for future projects; collecting data to highlight success rate for use in marketing and recruitment; and maintaining a database of the alumni and their experience for future reference. Debrief process can follow one or more of the following methodologies: group meetings to discuss the experience, focus groups to get details on specific aspects of the experience, individual interviews to get in-depth information, satisfaction surveys to measure project success, and follow-up meetings or phone calls to inform them about changes/improvements, if any. Operators need to be very mindful of the fact that positive experiences of voluntourists can result in word-of-mouth marketing and negative experiences, when shared with potential voluntourists, can affect future projects. When voluntourists show dissatisfaction on any aspects of the trip, they need to be assured that relevant issues will be resolved in future projects. More importantly, operators should ensure that necessary actions are taken to resolve identified issues.

Hosting and/or encouraging alumni reunions can be effective in ensuring continued involvement with the voluntourism organization, thus strengthening future marketing initiatives. These reunions (akin to Peace Corps reunions) would involve successful voluntourism project participants, especially those who were involved in long-term projects. The alumni would provide exceptional support and mentorship to new voluntourist participants by sharing their experience and insight.

Finally, operators should evaluate each voluntourism project in terms of voluntourists' satisfaction, host agency involvement, client benefits, and other relevant information to improve the efficiency and effectiveness of future projects.

Best Practices

United Planet, which offers both short-term (1–2 weeks) and long-term (6–12 weeks) voluntourism projects, has a comprehensive training program to orient voluntourists before their travel. The organization provides extensive documentation to its voluntourists by phone and online to ensure that they are well educated on the host country's macro-environment, personal health and safety information, cultural adjustments, and necessary items they need to pack for their travels. In addition, United Planet also provides extensive on-site training for long-term voluntourists on program logistics, expectations, health and safety, and cultural adjustment. Globe Aware offers a country-specific orientation and cultural handbooks, in addition to general orientation handbooks and a video orientation. Global Service Corps provides its voluntourists with a pre-departure orientation, comprehensive Participant Packet, and a week-long on-site orientation at the destination. Cross-Cultural Solutions, which offers numerous voluntourism projects all over the world, utilizes its alumni to provide country-specific orientations. The organization provides its voluntourist with program handbooks, individual phone consultations, individual emails, and group conference calls. Cross-Cultural Solutions takes responsibility for many on-site functions such as staff operations and volunteer housing. The "home-bases" that provide housing for their voluntourists are either fully owned or rented by the organization.

Voluntourism Project Host Responsibilities

Voluntourism project hosts are, for the most part, local non-governmental organizations (NGOs), or grassroots community-based organizations that have strong connections with the clients or the beneficiary communities of the projects. Many of them are not formal organizations and so, it is not always possible for voluntourism operators to execute formal contractual agreements with them to provide certain host services to voluntourists. However, most, if not all of them, due to their extensive connections with the communities where the projects are located, are major players in the projects. First and foremost, they bring with them the community's trust and support for projects. By increasing awareness on the importance of voluntourism projects, they mobilize community leaders and residents to participate in various aspects of the projects. They also provide linkages to local officials to gain necessary permits and other requirements.

For the voluntourists, it is often the host organization that provides the direct linkage to the communities they serve at destination sites. One major responsibility of host organizations is to foster the cultural exchanges and people-to-people connections between community residents and voluntourists. This role is especially vital for voluntourists whose major motivation is cultural immersion. It is also important for host organizations to monitor community-voluntourists interaction so that they do not overwhelm either of them. In addition to the cultural exchange, hosts also provide a platform for voluntourists to learn from the community, thereby facilitating the process of transformative learning.

Building on the pre-departure orientation that voluntourists receive from operators, host organizations are responsible to provide on-site orientation on their cultural, political, environmental, and socio-economic realities. Hospitality is another major responsibility of hosts in order to make the voluntourists welcome and feel appreciated for their efforts, even if their works are not always perfect. Host organizations can also play a key role in logistics including basic supplies, access to community resources, heath-care centers, and modes of communication.

In many voluntourism projects (example: house building in developing countries) tools used are different from what the voluntourists are used to in their home. It is the role of the hosts to provide training for handling the equipment safely. It is also the role of the hosts to mobilize community residents to work on projects along with voluntourists and make sure that mutual respect exists between them.

Finally it is the responsibility of host organizations to measure and evaluate the outcomes of the voluntourism projects from the points of view of beneficiaries and community residents. These evaluations will highlight issues that need to be resolved and successes that need to be built upon during future projects.

Best Practices

Cross-Cultural Solutions, through its local hosts, also provide work opportunities for community residents. The organization executes a signed agreement with hosts so they will work under the directions of its staff and make sure that the community residents refrain from requesting donations of money or goods from voluntourists. Global Service Corps has established its own local subsidiaries to be the host organization of its voluntourism projects. For example, it has a subsidiary in Tanzania to assist projects in that country. The host NGOs that work closely with United Planet are responsible, through memoranda of understanding, for providing useful work for voluntourists, community volunteers for "positive work placement," and introducing the local culture and customs to voluntourists. Globe Aware requires that their host organizations identify projects that fit its mission, organize materials, and provide logistical support for projects.

Voluntourist Responsibilities

Voluntourists are motivated by a combination of push factors such as escaping the routines of work and social lives and pull factors such as transformational experience and cultural immersion. During the pre-departure periods, most of them seem to believe that their voluntourism experience will be life changing. Studies have proven the experiences of voluntourists, similar to experiences of Peace Corps members, do change their view of societies outside home countries. Just like other players in the voluntourism partnership, voluntourists have a set of responsibilities to make the experience positive and to provide meaningful contributions to destination communities.

First and foremost of the responsibilities of voluntourists is to conduct diligent research about the destination and the voluntourism project before deciding on participating. Important considerations in this process include: alignment with personal beliefs, motivation to complete the project, time and financial commitments, comfort level of travel to the destination, and expectations and realities of what can be accomplished during the project period. Whatever the motives are, without a strong commitment of a voluntourist, the voluntourism project cannot be successful. Once a decision is made on the location and project with a voluntourism operator, financial obligations including all expenses need to be taken care of. While there is a growing trend of fundraising for voluntourism projects, for the most part expenses are borne by voluntourists.

During the pre-departure period it is important for the voluntourists to adhere to operators' orientations, recommendations, and policies. Beyond the standard orientations, it is the responsibility of individual voluntourists to get clarification on and seek answers to various unknown factors about the destination and the project. Following the recommendations of the operators in terms of travel documents, health recommendations, and items to pack are important to avoid hardships during and after the trip. Willingness to cope with unfamiliar and often insufficient living arrangements can prevent disappointments. Being safe and keeping personal belongings in secure places can prevent numerous problems and related stress.

During the time on-site, it is advisable for voluntourists to follow the procedures, practices and recommendations of the host organization. Respecting the host cultures and their customs are important to connect with the communities. Making use of opportunities to interact with locals will provide meaningful cultural exchange experience. Keeping a journal with entries on various activities during their voluntourism experience is a rewarding practice, especially for post-trip reflections and for sharing their experiences with others.

Best Practices

Cross-Cultural Solutions insist that their voluntourists maintain the "in-country policies" that they are required to agree upon and sign twice. Their first signature is required before leaving for the program and the second is required after they have arrived at the destination. The organization's on-site program managers and staff members explain to voluntourists the policies, some of which stipulate that there is to be no illegal drugs, no alcohol under the age of 21, and no sexual relations. WAVES requires that their voluntourists sign an agreement that they will abide by the WAVES risk assessment and safety management procedures, sign waiver forms regarding their involvement in surf classes and free surfing, and agree to abide by the regulations regarding appropriate behavior while part of the WAVES team in the communities that they work with.

Issues and Future Direction

Voluntourism programs are certainly not free of issues. There are several issues that revolve around voluntourism programs. They include inadequate planning that results in voluntourist dissatisfaction; high voluntourists expectations without considering ground realities that results in a sense of failure; complete lack of or poor on-site coordination that result in project failure; inadequate living arrangements that results in voluntourist discomfort and burnout; poor safety and health conditions that result in physical harm; and failure to link with destination communities that results in hostility towards voluntourists, operators and local hosts.

According to Judith Brodie, Director of Voluntary Service Overseas, an international development NGO that engages volunteers for poverty alleviation in developing countries, "many volunteer tourism trips to developing countries are expensive, poorly planned and unlikely to help local people" (cited in Sin, 2009, p. 496). Another issue is the extent to which both short-term and long-term voluntourism programs take job opportunities away from local communities.

From the five voluntourism operators interviewed, two of the organizations emphasized the challenge of assisting voluntourists in setting realistic expectations. They claimed that several voluntourists have unrealistic expectations of changing the world in a short amount of time. Two other organizations mentioned the challenges of "matching' voluntourists" appropriate skill-sets with the communities' project and ongoing development goals. Another issue that a couple of the organizations faced was the limited personal preparation of the voluntourist. In spite of sound pre-departure orientations, many voluntourists faced culture shocks and had difficulty in understanding how or why their way was not better than the community's way of doing the projects, especially construction projects.

Irrespective of how people perceive it, voluntourism is a growing segment of the broader voluntarism. It is an effective method through which nonprofits can deliver services in developing countries based on their mission. It offers numerous benefits to participants in terms of social and cultural interactions, self-realization, transformational learning, alternative ways of expressing their altruistic beliefs, and opportunity to gain a sense of being a part of the global society. Voluntourism certainly serves numerous destination communities and host organizations.

Voluntourism operators and host organizations need to be mindful of all issues and barriers in planning and developing sound projects. Voluntourism management should evolve as a specialized profession and practice within the broad area of volunteer management. Modifying tested and proven marketing, recruitment, orientation, training and retention practices of general volunteer management to suit the unique nature of voluntourism will be a major task for operators. Harnessing the powers of rapidly growing information technology, social media, and the quest for alternative philanthropy, charity and voluntarism will all be the part of how voluntourism can define itself in the near and far future.

The five voluntourism operators interviewed made the following recommendations for making projects effective and efficient:

- Consistent and clear safety and security policies, and clear expectations
- Identification and explanation of cultural differences to minimize cultural shock
- Provision of extensive pre-project/pre-departure training and information to make sure the voluntourists are prepared for the tasks ahead
- Building a relationship with voluntourists through effective communication before, during, and after the project
- Creation of internal mechanisms that supplied transparency and accountability concerning project partners and benefits that are provided to the community
- Provision of local counterparts for each volunteer on site for better understanding of the community, cultural immersion, project details and safety.

Fortunately, in recent years, voluntourism has attracted considerable attention from nonprofit operators, the travel industry, and future voluntourists. Another major development is the steadily growing academic research and practical information exchange on all aspects of voluntourism. Dedicated web portals such as voluntourism.org have ushered in a new era for voluntourism as an important area of the nonprofit sector and philanthropic discourse. These trends, it is hoped, will shape up voluntourism as an effective alternative domain where voluntarism and tourism merge together seamlessly.

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Peace Corps: www.peacecorps.gov
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United Planet: www.unitedplanet.org
Waves for Development: www.wavesfordevelopment.org

The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
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PART II

Strategic Deployment and Implementation

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CHAPTER 8

The Latest Approach to Volunteer Recruitment

Competency-Competence Pathways and Volunteer Resource Management Systems

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WELLth Learning Network

It is worth writing again and again: Volunteers are the lifeblood of a volunteer-based organization. While the organization mission, vision, and values are the backbone, the staff the skeletal system, the clients the organs of the body and the community the skin, it is the lifeblood-sharing efforts of the volunteers that keep the body nourished and vibrant.

With a slight variation on the theme of the Canadian Blood Services' recruitment campaign "Blood: It's in You to Give," it is possible for volunteer-based organizations to present this recruitment campaign: "Volunteerism: It's in You to Share." The same intention is present. The same outcome is required. This campaign is to recruit volunteers just as the other campaign is to recruit blood donors.

Without carrying the people and lifeblood metaphor to extremes, the case is made that "volunteers are important." Therefore, the recruitment of competent volunteers becomes the focal point of volunteer resource managers. Note the adjective before "volunteers" in the last sentence; the aim is to recruit *competent* volunteers.

Recruiting or deciding on competent volunteers has become a science and an art. It is a science when the logical progression of steps and associated checks and balances are used to decide and confirm if the potential and competent volunteer is to move forward. Equally important are the creative, subjective insights volunteer resource managers use to guide their final decisions about confirming and forwarding competent volunteers into the organization.

The suitable selection and use of an electronic volunteer resource management software and/or online platform is important to assist volunteer resource managers with their decisions. The selection and use of a volunteer resources management system (VRMS) increases the availability of data through information (Hobbs & Dyble, 2002) from which informed decisions can be made. However, these decisions still require personal interpretation to move volunteers forward.

An Internet search of vendors selling electronic VRMSs highlights the variety. These vendors claim their systems organize the work from A to Z. However, a buyer-beware recommendation is encouraged when choosing which system will work best for the nonprofit organization (NPO). During the VRMS review, ask this important question from the purchase requirement list: "Is the critical function of recruiting volunteers (screen, interview, and assign) forefront in the day-to-day use of the system? And if yes, is this function simple to use?" Volunteer resource managers cannot be slowed down by cumbersome VRMSs. The recruitment strategy must flow easily and effortlessly with the aid of the VRMS. Also, access to and use by new volunteers, existing volunteers, and managers must be fluid.

This chapter links the wise use of a software or Internet-enabled VRMS with competence validation (explained later) to recruit competent volunteers. The complementarity of the VRMS and validation offers volunteer resource managers a practical way to decide on the best volunteers to move forward into the organization. In other words, the system helps the volunteer managers recruit volunteers who competently fit the job requirements. This assistance is paramount to ongoing volunteer resource viability within the NPO, the realistic efforts of the volunteer resource managers and the coveted time given by the volunteers. Later in this chapter the volunteer competence management system (VCMS) replaces the VRMS mentioned here to emphasize the importance of competence validation.

Challenges with Volunteer Recruitment Today

Marketing to volunteers, just like recruitment (deciding on competent volunteers through screening, interviewing, and assigning), is fast becoming both an art and a science. From within the marketing noise, messages containing an ask must be laser-focused as the NPO delivers its message and receives a favorable reply. To gain the attention of people new to volunteering with the organization or to gain the attention of previous volunteers, volunteer resource managers and their communication colleagues must become skilled in techniques like social media and campaigning. Within the campaign, the recruitment process must be compelling to draw people's attention from the volunteerism clamor and the living-life clatter every day.

What follows are ten challenges facing volunteer recruitment. This list is cursory and meant to highlight what is happening today.

Time Push and Pull

Time is a premium for everyone, perhaps more for those who hold a job than those who have time freedom to share their effort with NPOs. People are pushed and pulled for their time by family, friends, beliefs, desires, and work. This mix of variables is difficult to reconcile unless NPOs campaign in ways to bridge and entwine the personal and work variables.

Savvy: Needs and Wants

Volunteers are becoming savvier in their giving decisions. They are seeking compelling reasons to become involved with an NPO. Whether in giving time, effort, and/or money, they are becoming choosier. Of utmost importance is the ease of access to becoming involved. When they want to sign up, the recruitment and placement system must flow easily and unfold intuitively for them to continue moving forward.

Process Efficiencies

New and existing volunteers recognize that organizations must exercise care in their recruiting. Volunteers are looking for efficiency in the recruitment process. They want to identify what they need to learn and how to move forward. Unexplained delays and process hiccups or lack of communication as to why they have not been chosen must be corrected quickly.

Learning and Development

Every day people are engaged in learning and development. Volunteers recognize that they gain a lot when volunteering. However, learning in and of itself is no longer a substantial reason to volunteer. The learning must have purpose; it must escalate to something more than when they started. Status quo volunteerism is losing its appeal, especially among the new generations of volunteers.

Rewards and Recognition

Woven into volunteer learning and development is the need for rewards and recognition. A reward is managed through extrinsic motivation. Volunteer Resource Managers (VRMs) manage volunteers to follow a clear ladder of tasks and how to move within the organization systems. Recognition is led through intrinsic inspiration. VRMs help volunteers link their involvement with achieving personal milestones and gaining confidence.

Communication: Dialogue

Volunteers seek clear, consistent, and connective communication. Transparency is important. They value the organization knowing what is expected of them and communicating those expectations early in their connection. With the advent of effective Web sites (Allen, Goh, Rogelberg, & Currie, 2010) and social media platforms, communication channels have opened up to support office, office-field, field-based, and virtual volunteers. How people wish to receive communication is shifting as well. Therefore, a communication strategy pertinent to the type of volunteers targeted must be considered and available.

Competition: Organized Approach

The more organized the recruitment approach, the more likely the organization can tap into the group of unassigned volunteers who are interested in social connections or learning. Those who already align with an organization mission will participate in new approaches to organizing them so long as the process is not onerous for them to navigate.

Seasonal Considerations: Length of Involvement

Volunteers may be involved in short-term and/or long-term commitments. As they come and go, they must experience a system that supports their cyclical exit and entrance. Special event volunteers are present to fulfill the needs and assignments of the event. They are personally grateful to do so until the next special event or the return of the event next year. Therefore, the system must be robust to retain records of volunteers who only volunteer at cyclical special events.

Career and Job Advancement

People involve themselves in volunteer organizations as a way to gain experience, knowledge, and skill for resumes and job application. The experience of volunteering provides them with insights into organization life transferable to other jobs. New immigrants volunteer to stay involved and gain insight into community; many use their volunteer experience as a next step along a career path. Volunteering for some can be a forced choice when assigned through judicial requirements. While the volunteer assignment is seen as giving back in return for what people have taken away, the underlying effect is to expose people to meaningful work. Therefore, the transferable knowledge and skills learned can be used in seeking other forms of employment.

Type of Volunteers

There are four broad types of volunteers who operate face-to-face, virtually, and/or in a blended format:

1. *Day-to-day volunteers.* They are available each day or week.
2. *Special event (episodic) volunteers.* They are available for particular and sometimes singular events as they arise or as they cycle through the calendar.
3. *Managerial volunteers.* They coordinate other volunteers on a day-to-day or special event basis.
4. *Governance volunteers.* They are involved with board/organization discussions and decisions.

Of these four types mentioned, recruiting competent managerial and governance volunteers is best served by using a VRMS. It is suggested that some special event volunteers holding senior positions be recruited using the VRMS and competence. However, for day-to-day and other special event volunteers, the VRMS may or may not be helpful. For larger organizations continually recruiting volunteers, the use of the VRMS will be helpful. More insights supporting purchase decisions follow through the rest of the chapter.

Volunteer Resources Management System

Hobbs (1999) presented a three-phase volunteer resources management model in parallel to a human resources management model used in public and private organizations. Since then, researchers and practitioners have presented many illustrations, explanations, descriptions, and prescriptions of the VRMS. Merrill (2003, p. 81) provided a compelling introduction to the many actions within the VRMS, recognizing that "volunteer managers deal with diverse managerial responsibilities." Merrill asked readers to use a pad of sticky notes and pen to list all of the activities inherent in a VRMS. Once the notes are posted on the table or wall, she recommends applying a grouping technique, such as like affinity charting (a data-sorting tool) to arrange the various notes into a recognizable pattern. The meaningful pattern provides the headings and actions within the VRMS.

VRMS software programs became available during the 1990s. Volunteer resource managers were trying them out. Programmers were correcting their code with feedback from the field. The buzz had started; the electronic age of VRMS had begun in earnest. Instead of using spreadsheets and labor-intensive paperwork, volunteer resource managers had access to new electronic systems to help their volunteer administration.

Jump ahead a decade, and even more technology platforms and software are available. These systems are touting the latest and greatest features and benefits, fashion, and functions explaining and describing performance and productivity aspects of their products and services. All are great, with choice discernment. Unfortunately, with new technology comes the marketing noise. It is crucial for volunteer resource managers to sift through the noise to find the most appropriate VRMS for their organization.

This chapter does not present or recommend any software or platform. Its intention is to guide volunteer resource managers in learning how a VRMS supports competence validation of volunteers during the recruitment stage of their involvement with an NPO. Nonetheless, the content presented hereafter can be used to guide volunteer resource managers in purchasing an appropriate system.

Volunteer Resources Performance Management System

With the addition of the concepts and practices of performance and productivity just mentioned, new domains of knowledge and practices for the professionalism of volunteer management (Connors, 2010) have arrived. Here are refined definitions of the terms performance and productivity suggested by the author.

Performance refers to the individual—whether staff or volunteer—to improve performance through educating (training) and non-educating (training) interventions.

Productivity on the other hand is about the people—the organization as a collective—to find the return on service, learning, investment and other key output indicators.

Whereas adult learning principles and education guided volunteer resource managers' preparation of volunteers for assignments in the past, more research tools and techniques are available through performance improvement and human performance technologies. In addition, return on investment metrics and associated research adds more to measuring key productivity indicators. Therefore, the software and Internet-enabled platforms now herald an updated version of the volunteer resources management system to include performance improvement tools and techniques.

When performance is included, it is possible to verify or validate the competence of volunteers before and during their involvement in the organization. Based on the capabilities the volunteer possesses, volunteer resource managers and managers to whom volunteers are assigned can confirm, verify, or validate volunteer competence.

Based on competence validation, volunteer resource managers, other managers, and volunteers can decide what education is needed to fill the gaps and what path suits the successful movement of volunteers into the organization and/or their continued involvement in existing or new jobs.

The competence decision structure focuses on verification or validation of competence:

- Is the person competent? If yes, move on. If no, what education is needed?
- After education, is the person competent? If yes, move on. If no, what education is needed?

Because recruitment (screening, interviewing, and assigning) is a function in the updated VRMS, it is possible to use performance-improvement concepts and techniques like competence validation to recruit competent volunteers. A more detailed presentation of competency, competence, and competence validation follows. Note that this chapter does not dive deeply into the various subelements of screening, interviewing, and assigning, topics discussed in other chapters in this book. A search of the Internet will also reveal many useful resources.

Competency and Competence

Competency as a concept and practice has been discussed in all types of organizations for over 30 years (Velde, 2009). It has received attention in pop culture and academic documents as well as higher education and workplace discussions of prior learning assessment review and current learning achievement review.

Competency and competence are often aligned with human resource management. By extension, the concepts and practices are now connected with volunteer resource management. With continuing advances in technology and application improvements, the concepts and practices have advanced *why and how* the competency-based approach for managing people deserves attention.

World of Competency

Competencies are a way to better inform people of the work within the organization, no matter where in the world the organization and people reside and no matter their type or size of the organization (Velde, 2009). Green (1999, p. 5) defines a competency as "a written description of measurable work habits and personal [knowledge and] skills used to achieve a work objective." They are action-based statements guided by Bloom's (1954) original "action verb taxonomy" and its revision by Anderson et al. (2000).

They become clear and consistent statements of what the organization requires and requests of the volunteer. Then the organization can state what it will supply in support of the competencies. In response, volunteers can align their requirements and requests of the organization to determine the degree of fit. In doing so they can identify what they will bring to their volunteer experience.

Competence and Competence Validation

Competencies beget competence when people self-assess and are validated against the outcome inherent to the competency statement action verbs. Competence is a state of confirmed knowledge and skill recognized by subject matter experts who themselves are validated competent in how to validate and are validated in the subject matter expertise they will validate or verify. In other words, people who validate have also been validated by subject matter experts. For example, if a person validates volunteers in house-to-house canvassing, then that person him- or herself has been validated in house-to-house canvassing.

People who validate usually have two to four years experience in what they are validating. This experience, along with their own validation, guides the organization in its acceptance of the validation outcomes. Such a requirement is particularly important when competencies are deemed critical to the job.

If validators are without suitable experience yet educated in the validation process, they can involve other volunteers and managers. Working through a triangulated review, at least two experienced people join the validator during the validation. The eyes and ears of the attending volunteers will help the validator verify the competence of the volunteer.

Additional rigor accompanies the validation process. The person who validates cannot be the person who educates. Therefore, the person who educated the home-to-home canvasser cannot be the person who validates the person as being competent. This three-way combination of volunteer, educator, and validator triangulates the results, thus adding legitimacy and trustworthiness to the whole process and its results.

Volunteer Resources Competence Validation Performance Management System

The next generation of electronic VRMSs has evolved. They now include the concepts and practices of performance improvement and competency and competence. These additions have been initiated by issues of compliance. Government and industry regulations require a proven record of competence, especially when cases of illness, injury, and death occur. The medical field is using competency-competence and evidence-based assessment on a larger scale, as evident in myriad books now available.

In addition, the professionalism of volunteer resource managers and fundraising managers means more stringent ethical protocols are necessary to meet regulations and community expectations. Legal requirements around performance management require more formal documentation for the professional VRMs themselves, other staff, and the volunteers who support organizational initiatives.

Before moving on, and to lessen acronym ridiculousness, the updated VRMS will be referred to simply as VCMS (volunteer competence management system). Competence validation and performance management or performance assessment are vital elements within this new system. The term and system inherent to VCMS will replace the VRMS concept introduced earlier and will be used throughout the rest of this chapter.

The VCMS is an investment, not overhead. Competent volunteers are key to organization effectiveness. Through the use of this system, VRMs and managers can take corrective or preventive action to increase the personal capacity of each volunteer and collectively the organization's capacity. The money invested in the VCMS will pay for itself quickly.

Recruiting Volunteers Using Competencies

People have capabilities and talents already. They bring them to the volunteer experience. Therefore, it is advantageous for volunteer resource managers to confirm the knowledge, skill, and attitudes that potential and existing volunteers possess before assigning them to jobs. The more volunteer resource managers know about their volunteers' knowledge, skill, and attitude competence, the more these managers can use additional volunteer management techniques of talent planning, succession mapping, and education analysis to keep the volunteers up-to-date, motivated and inspired, and stimulated to stay in a vibrant atmosphere of respect and growth.

A differentiator among NPOs is the quick and efficient pathway they use to recruit volunteers. As mentioned, challenges abound in awakening people to volunteer opportunities and the subsequent recruitment portal and process to enter the organization.

Competency-Based Recruitment Model

Exhibit 8.1 highlights the three major elements involved in recruiting volunteers using a self-assessment of competencies and competence validation approach and provides an overview presentation of the elements working together. These elements are screening, interviewing, and assigning. These three elements are helpful to volunteer resource managers as they decide which people to involve as volunteers.

The first element of recruitment is screening. This element includes:

- Writing a competency-based profile
- Providing access to the self-assessment portal
- Running the screening report to decide who is invited or not for an interview

Exhibit 8.2 highlights the sections of the whole model considered to be screening.

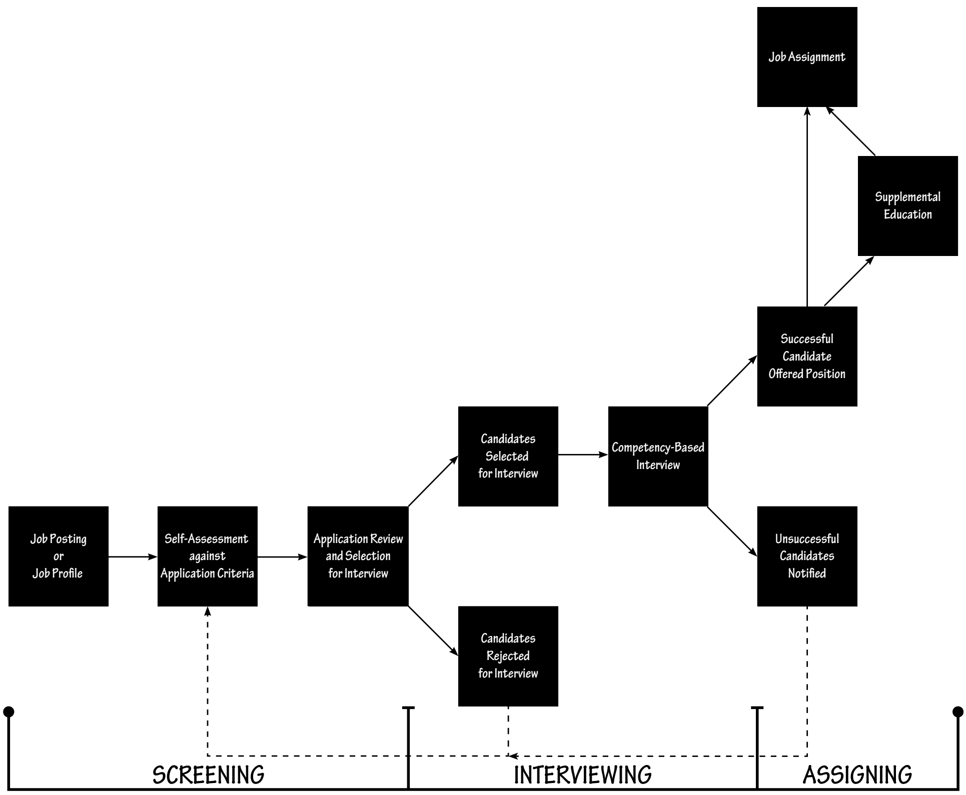

EXHIBIT 8.1 Deciding on Competent Volunteers: Screening, Interviewing, and Assigning

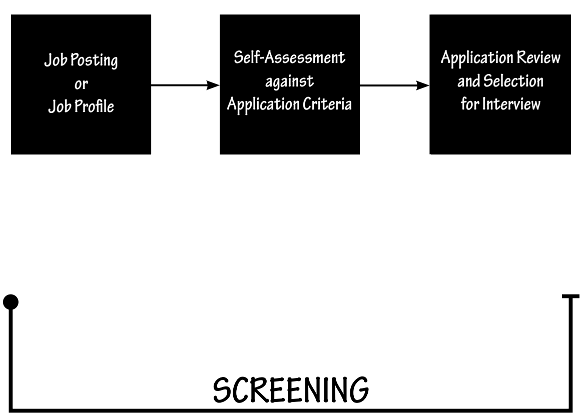

EXHIBIT 8.2 Deciding on Competent Volunteers: *Screening*, Interviewing, and Assigning

Profiling a Volunteer Job

Educational institutions use a DACUM (develop a curriculum) process or variation to identify learning outcomes and learning objectives around which courses are developed and delivered. The learning outcomes identify what people will learn (knowledge, skill, and/or attitude) from the program as a result of their involvement. The learning objectives identify the particular knowledge and skills presented and in what order, and what actions will be taken in the program to fulfill the learning outcomes.

Similarly, collecting the required and requested knowledge, skill, and attitude requirements for a volunteer job are turned into competency categories and competencies. The competency categories are like learning outcomes while competencies are like learning objectives. A collection of competencies form a profile. Competency statements are written using Bloom's (1956) three-phase action verb taxonomy (i.e., cognitive, affective, and psychomotor).

The competency statement is written with an action verb and enough description to clearly identify what the person must be competent in when validated. Generally the statement contains two to nine words. The subsequent descriptive and explanatory statements contain five to nine words. For supporting statements considered straightforward, five words; for statements that require a little more explanation, nine words. Also, the competency statement is a balance between writing a mechanized-robotic competency statement versus a statement so generalized it applies to everyone (unless that is the intention). Every competency must clearly demarcate the knowledge, skills, and attitude required and requested for the job. Once written and used, the profile as a whole is the organization's statement of volunteer's accountabilities and responsibilities. Exhibit 8.3 presents two examples.

Access Portals

When an NPO advertises for volunteers—including on its Web site (Allen et al., 2010)—it lists the access portal to enter the VCMS. Upon signing on, the VCMS accepts volunteers as users. They are taken directly to the self-assessment function and asked to follow the instructions and/or use the job provided.

Access to Technical and Recruitment Support

The type of user support required focuses on technical use questions and the recruitment process. The technical support of lost passwords and navigating the system can be offered through the organization or left with the vendor support group. If set up properly, the entry and navigation by the volunteer is intuitive and requires the least amount of clicks possible. In fact, limiting the entry of any form of written data during the self-assessment is preferred. Therefore, a simple click-and-click format is best at this point of the volunteer's use of the system.

The recruitment support takes the form of answering generic questions about what volunteers need to do, where to, go and what happens as they move forward using the VCMS. A frequently asked questions Web site segment can accompany the job profile advertisement on the organization Web site. However, a percentage of

EXHIBIT 8.3 Two Competency Statement Examples

Competency	**Actions**
Demonstrate respect	Knowledge 1. Define respect. 2. Describe ways of gaining respect. 3. List the benefits of being respected. Skill 1. Obtain and or maintain a high level of personal, organizational, and societal values. 2. Engage in law-abiding behavior. 3. Respect the property and possessions of others.
Competency	**Actions**
Chair meetings	Knowledge 1. List the purpose of a meeting. 2. Identify when it is appropriate to have a meeting. 3. Identify who needs to attend the meeting. 4. Describe the need and method for keeping order in a meeting. 5. Discuss when to take minutes and when to assign taking minutes to another member. Skill 1. Develop a meeting agenda. 2. Take minutes. 3. Communicate minutes. 4. Chair a meeting.

people will still phone. Therefore, someone conversant in the online process will need to support these callers.

Self-Assessing

After signing on to the VCMS, people are directed to the self-assessment of the profile competencies. The type of self-assessment format will vary by type of VCMS. However, the key questions must center on criteria similar to these:

1. When was the last time you took the action described in the competency statement?
2. How much experience do you have in taking this action?
3. Can you take the action independently?

Questions like these guide the person in clearly sharing competency currency, experience, and autonomy.

Level of Confidence

The results of the self-assessment are an indicator of the person's level of confidence. These results are given by the system through the statistical algorithm used behind the scenes to calculate the competency score. The score of a person who has not taken the action for five years, has about one year of experience, and requires assistance would be lower than that of someone who took action within the last three months, has five years of experience and can work independently. Further discussion about the algorithm is best left to discussion between the organization and vendor.

In the job advertisement, when the organization makes the next statement or a variation thereof, it is demonstrating clarity, consistency, and connectivity with new volunteers. From the beginning of the volunteers' experience, they are shown fairness and respect in their application.

> *Dear Volunteer: As you respond to the self-assessment, underestimating your confidence of competence could lead to no interview and overestimating your confidence of competence could lead to difficulties during the competence-based interview. Therefore, it's advisable you answer truthfully. The feedback you receive upon reviewing your self-assessment report guides your decision of what actions to take. You could seek immediate education and update your self-assessment or seek more education to apply again later (merely a suggestion).*

Knowing-Doing Gap

The feedback volunteers receive after reviewing the results of the self-assessment clearly identify what they need to learn and do to raise their score. Therefore, the self-assessed profile report forms a learning contract that guides the volunteers' learning and development.

Screening for Recruitment Report

The screening for recruitment report is available to volunteer resource managers after the job advertisement has run its course and provides data from which these managers learn about volunteers' knowledge and skills. These insights help the managers identify education and noneducation interventions for the incoming volunteers. Obviously, the more volunteer resource managers are prepared to expedite the volunteers' entrance to the organization, the greater the benefit that will be realized by the volunteer and organization.

Larger organizations mounting campaigns for a large number of volunteers can run the screening report on numerous occasions to bring volunteers in for interviewing. Therefore, a constant supply of volunteers aligned with the organization is available for interviews and/or given education support to improve their alignment.

Interviewing

The second of the three elements of the recruitment process used to decide on volunteers entering the organization is interviewing (see Exhibit 8.4). This element includes:

- Informing volunteers who will be interviewed and the process to follow
- Informing respondents who will not move forward to an interview on how to improve their assessment for next time

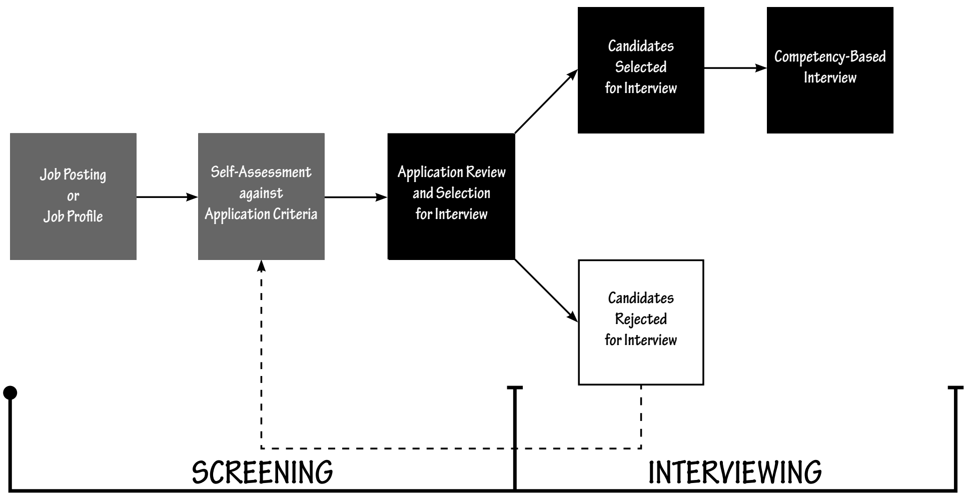

EXHIBIT 8.4 **Hiring Competent Volunteers Screening, *Interviewing*, and Assigning**

- Interviewing volunteers using a competence validation approach to confirm the competence volunteers possess

Inviting Interviewees

Based on the criteria set forth for interviewing, people who match the criteria are contacted for an interview. With access to the self-assessment report new volunteers are clear about what they need to learn to fully match the NPO needs. They prepare for the interview with full insight as to the knowledge, skill, and attitude they have and must gain.

Communicating "Why Not" to Help Reapply

Volunteers not invited to an interview are contacted and given an update on what they need to do to reapply again. Access to their self-assessment report confirms the NPO communication about "why not" and what particular competencies they must update and/or upgrade to apply again.

Resume Submission or Not

Depending on the interview committee requirements, interviewees can submit their resumes. Resume building or document upload functionality is often included in the VCMS. Adopting the "no resume" submission approach is a great green alternative. Instead of working through a pile of paper resumes, VRMS simply check volunteers' online files. The self-assessment, in many ways, replaces the need for a resume.

Competence-Based Interviewing

Competence-based interviewing (Kessler, 2006) is meant to select the best person or people to move along the system of volunteer involvement. During a competency-based interview, the person is given tasks and asked questions to confirm the self-assessed competencies (knowledge and skills). In other words, the interviewer(s) can confirm the volunteer's (a) level of competence and (b) knowing-doing gap. Additional organization culture questions can be asked to gauge the awareness the volunteer has of the organization and its operations. Kessler's (2006) book is a helpful resource for the competence-based tools and techniques for conducting the interview.

Competent Interviewers

For competency-based interviewing to work to its full potential through the addition of relevant competence validation data on the VCMS, the single interviewer must be educated in how to validate and be validated in what (the subject matter) will be validated during the interview.

An option is to convene a group to validate. A minimum of one validator in the interview group will use the eyes and ears of the others to confirm competence. The validator enters the result of the interview in the VCMS. Depending on the competencies considered, through this approach it is possible to interview several volunteers at the same time.

Assigning

The third of the three elements of the recruitment process used to decide on volunteers entering the organization is assigning (see Exhibit 8.5). This element includes:

- Helping volunteers who will not move forward understand what happens
- Guiding accepted volunteers forward to their assignments with/or without education

Two options are available as a result of the competence-based interview.

1. The person does not move forward. In other words, according to the competence validation they did not meet the criteria necessary to keep moving forward. When these situations arise, volunteers are guided to the education resources necessary to meet the criteria. They can be called in again or asked to reapply.
2. The person is invited to continue and is assigned to a manager.

Managers' Involvement

With assignment of the volunteer(s), managers have access to each person's portfolio of competence. Managers are aware of how quickly they can assign work to volunteers and provide education support to strengthen their competence. Volunteers may participate in a general or specific orientation. However, depending on the outcome of the interview, volunteers may be competent in the topics covered in the orientation.

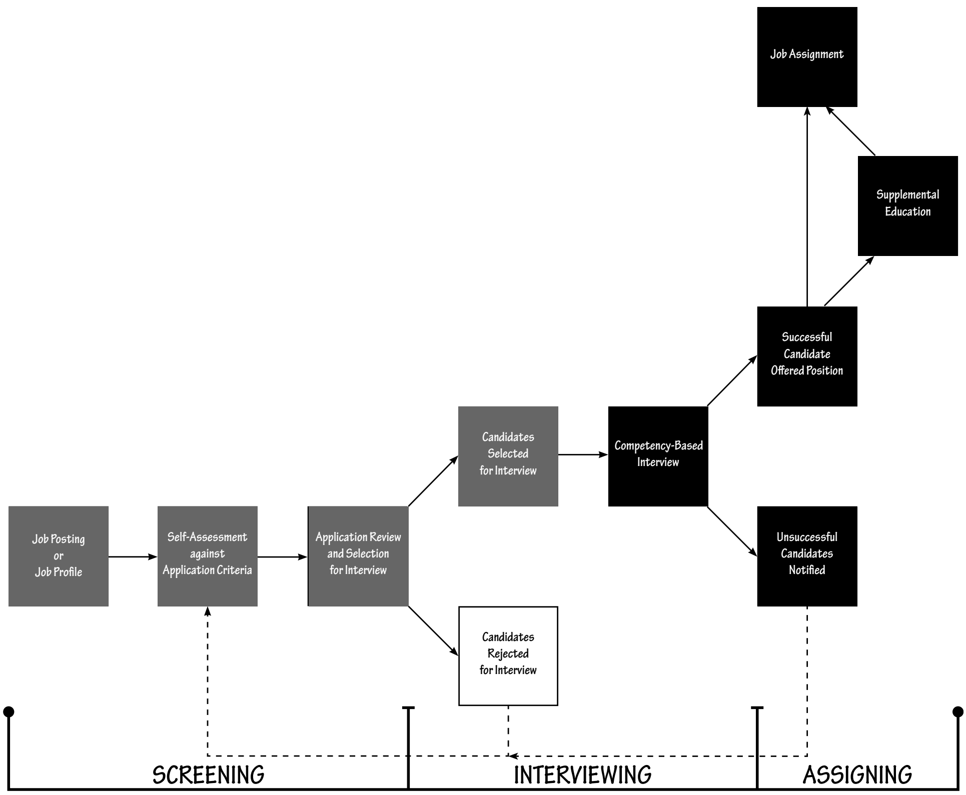

EXHIBIT 8.5 Hiring Competent Volunteers: Screening, Interviewing, and *Assigning*

The next statements summarize action steps for deciding on competent volunteers through screening, interviewing, and assigning.

- Gain expertise in chosen VCMS.
- Identify jobs that require use of the VCMS and the online competency-based approach.
- Write competencies for the job(s) (profiling).
- Identify duration of recruitment campaign: weeks, months, ongoing.
- Identify campaign portals including Web site.
- Provide technical and recruitment support.
- Provide access to VCMS to sign on.
- Identify where and how to complete the self-assessment.
- Run the screening report to decide who is invited or not invited for an interview.
- Provide education resources by competency (resources available through VCMS).
- Inform volunteers who will be interviewed and the process to follow.
- Inform respondents who will not move forward to an interview how to improve their assessment for next time.
- Decide on submission of resume and/or relevant documentation by interviewee.

- Assign interviewer or assign interview group.
- Interview volunteers using a competence validation approach to confirm the competence volunteers possess.
- Guide volunteers who will not move forward after the interview to understand what happens next.
- Brief accepted volunteers on their assignments.
- Assign volunteers to managers.

Implications for Using a VCMS

Like any technology developed to help people save time, effort, and money, the VCMS must be used to its maximum to ensure its viability and functionality. Listed next are eight implications useful to volunteer resource managers in their reflection and discussion before purchasing and installing a VCMS in light of the competence/validation/recruitment (screening, interviewing and assigning) process presented earlier.

Accountability and Responsibility Implications

Following a competency-competence validation recruitment process makes sense from regulatory, legal, and professional standard perspectives. However, not all current volunteer recruitment processes include these perspectives. Therefore, using this approach to recruit every volunteer may not be applicable.

Take the time to discuss the merits of the VCMS in light of the accountability and responsibility assignments by volunteer job. The clearer the competency presentation, the clearer the volunteer and managers become about the complementarity surrounding what is required and requested of them.

Learning and Development Implications

Learning and recruitment are often disconnected elements of the VCMS resulting in early engagement disconnects and increased early departure for new volunteers. When NPOs link the two elements, they will experience faster involvement of new volunteers, improved alignment to productive action in support of NPO strategy and tactics, decreased voluntary turnover, and better adherence to mandatory compliance requirements.

Rehnborg, Sinatra, and Bies (2010) highlight the importance of building and growing the capacity of NPOs to manage volunteers. To establish and sustain programming, NPOs must commit to a continuous learning approach linked with recruitment of competent volunteers (and subsequently retention). Therefore, the NPO must clarify its learning and development position for the strategic, tactical, and operational roles of volunteer resource managers and volunteers and provide a simple process to encourage incidental, informal, and formal learning (Billet, 2008; Marsick & Watkins, 1990).

Based on the results of the self-assessment of job competencies, volunteers identify what they need to learn. With the assistance of volunteer resource managers and other managers, volunteers are given the necessary education resources to fill the competence gap. The performance improvement implication of matching education with learning means both training/instructing (e.g., attend a workshop) and non-training/instructing (e.g., use a job aid) interventions are required. Therefore, volunteer resource managers and managers must become conversant and practiced in the application of competency-based performance management and its functionality within the VCMS.

The VCMS provides metrics on the effectiveness of the educating-learning process. The competence validation records become the data source to analyze and synthesize the recruitment of volunteers. The metrics indicate the return on investment (liability side of the balance sheet) and return on learning (asset side of the balance sheet) of volunteer recruitment and education. The addition of these measures is helpful in clarifying the value of volunteers from recruit(ment) to exit. In addition, this knowledge provides critical insights for funding proposals and justification of existing funding.

Legal Implications

Where legal issues may arise with volunteer involvement, it is helpful to know validated competencies are legally defensible. When a volunteer is validated competent to the competencies of the job, the NPO and its volunteer resource managers and other managers are assured of legally admissible documentation helpful should legal questions arise. The VCMS is a repository of this documentation and provides proof of a rigorous process to link competence and compliance.

If it can be shown that volunteers were competent and their self-assessments demonstrate agreement (i.e., the people are confident in their knowledge, skills, and attitude) with competence validation, then the reason for questioning noncompetence is twofold.

1. The volunteers chose not to work within the competencies and their competence. If this is the case, then the legal issues fall to the volunteers.
2. However, if the organization is shown not to have provided the guidance in sharing the competencies and a process to gain competence and subsequently placed volunteers in jeopardy, then it is the manager and executives of the organization that have legal issues.

   Because legal issues and their interpretation vary depending on court rulings, it is advisable to seek legal advice before purchasing the VCMS.

Volunteer Resource Manager Implications

A lot of pressure rests on the shoulders of volunteer resource managers to recruit and support volunteer involvement in the organization. Managers who are assigned to volunteers want to know they are receiving the best volunteers possible. More important, they want to know what volunteers know and can do and be given insight into what volunteers need to learn. The use of competencies, competence validation, and the VCMS helps volunteer resource managers assign the best people possible with clear portfolios of current knowledge, skills, and attitude.

The VCMS provides a green alternative to reading and processing stacks of resumes. It lessens the time it takes to answer volunteers' inquiries about their jobs. It distributes the most current insights about what the organization requires and requests of volunteers.

However, for some people, the use of this technology can feel somewhat cold and foreboding as volunteers question what happens to the data they enter. More important, they may ask, "Will someone talk to me and answer my questions?"

Manager Implications

The use of technology, and especially a VCMS, must align with the mission, vision, and values of the organization. Senior staff and governance volunteers—through the volunteer resource managers and other paid and volunteer staff—must back its use for its full recruit(ment) to exit intention.

When the volunteer manager knows the strengths and learning requirements of new volunteers, he or she can become focused on how to help the assigned volunteers. Therefore, competencies and confirmation of competence is a useful way to know the status of assigned volunteers.

Managers must know where they stand with organization competencies and volunteer competence. The key directive is simple: Keep guiding the volunteer through competence validation with the support of the VCMS. Where competencies are considered critical (versus important), managers should know not to let volunteers engage in those actions until validated.

With the help of the VCMS, assigned volunteers can be briefed on the connection between busyness and business. NPOs cannot escape this business quandary. While volunteers are asked to do more with less, they are still being asked to do so by improving performance to increase productivity (business). Because some volunteers involve themselves for the social aspect of volunteering, their attention may not be focused on reaching productivity indicators. Their work, while they appear involved and doing things, may not be efficient (busyness). Managers can use the competence validation process to guide volunteers to business and productivity while maintaining times of social connections and busyness.

Volunteer Activity, Reward, and Recognition Management Implications

Every volunteer enjoys recognition and rewards to some degree. Simple thanks and constructive learning conversations about performance improvement are appreciated when delivered with respect. During meetings, sharing stories of exemplary work highlights the person and provides examples of what is working well. Advancement in job roles motivates others.

Using the VCMS, volunteer resource managers have access to a formal record of competence useful to different types of internal and external rewards programs. Once certain milestones are reached, celebration occurs. Of growing interest is the link between competence validation as prior learning assessment and current learning achievement for obtaining higher education and professional credits and certificates.

Volunteer-Corporate Career Management Implications

For some, volunteerism is a pathway to move through different job assignments, including time in governance positions. Their progression along this pathway is self-managed recognition. Complementary recognition by the organization adds to the experience. In a sense, they have adopted a volunteer career management approach to their involvement.

Other volunteers are there for workplace career management reasons. Some corporate volunteerism programs encourage staff to involve themselves in volunteer-based organizations. Businesses view volunteer experience as a way to gain new insights, support corporate responsibility initiatives, and inspire and motivate staff in culturally stimulating ways. Therefore, volunteering is seen as positive for the career portfolio.

And yet others seeking career moves volunteer to gain experience and/or prepare them for access to the workplace or to more bold moves in offering their experience as evidence of their competence necessary for a new job. The VCMS provides evidence in a documented form viewed online and/or on paper.

Virtual Volunteers Implications

With the advancement of communication technology, people may volunteer for organizations and not reside in the same location, city, or even country. Various social media tools like Facebook (Pages) or Ning provide a home base for volunteers to connect.

Through the use of VCMSs, these virtual volunteers have a common link to performance requirements and their reward and recognition support. With this clarity and consistency, virtual volunteers can go about supporting the NPO in programming and fundraising.

Technological advancements in virtual learning environments and simulations provide another interesting avenue for volunteers. The growing use of three-dimensional graphics education programs, Second Life, and community-building simulations and gaming are useful tools and techniques for validating competence of volunteer knowledge, skill and attitude. These virtual situations are indicators of competence transferability. In fact, NPOs will take up the virtual world as a place to recruit volunteers, raise funds, and offer programming.

Conclusion

While not exhaustive, the statements in Exhibit 8.6 highlight the pros and cons of using a VCMS. Each statement concludes with a connection to clarity, consistency, and connectivity. "Clarity" suggests simplicity, clearness, and transparency; "consistency" suggests reliability, regularity, and constancy; and "connectivity" suggests linkage, association, and correlation. In other words, clarity is to strategy as consistency is to structure as connectivity is to relationship.

EXHIBIT 8.6 The Pros and Cons of Using a VCMS

	Clarity	Consistency	Connectivity
Pros			
Presents the knowledge and skills by job and by competencies and thus states the requirements and responsibilities critical and important to the job.			
Notifies people automatically if there are edits (add, delete, alter) to competencies so they might maintain their competence currency.			
Encourages people to self-manage their competency-competence portfolio.			
Identifies what must be learned after the self-assessment to apply or maintain a job.			
Promotes green standards when using the paperless recruitment process. (Only print a resume for the interview if applicable.)			
Assigns ownership of portfolio of competency data entry to volunteers.			
Promotes a continuous action learning focus for jobs from the beginning.			
Lessens the possibility for performance issues along the recruit(ment) through exit path.			
Demystifies the belief training and/or taking a test equals competence.			
Indicates the volunteer will be educated beyond recruitment.			
Provides different types of job profiles people can download to determine fitness.			
Provides clear and concise statements about the volunteer recruitment process (within the volunteer competence management system).			
Cons			
Operates primarily online. Navigating the Internet can be challenging for some volunteers. A clear pathway and VCMS job aids are required to guide people in its use.			
Uses primarily text-based data input. Because the ways of validating vary and the proof of validation may be an artifact (like a document, picture, or audio file), recording the artifacts requires considerable storage space that could be separate from the VCMS.			
Involves access to computers at home and/or in the nonprofit organization office. Therefore, the volunteer must have access to a computer to complete self-assessments, review portfolio of competence records, and apply for awards and rewards.			

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CHAPTER 9

Orientation

Welcoming New Volunteers into the Organization

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Orienting volunteers to volunteer organizations and their work is a critical first step in retention. By recruiting volunteers in a systematic way, the organization and the volunteers benefit from the establishment of a foundational relationship that supports both their motivation for involvement and the organization's mission. Understanding how orientation differs from training, gaining insights into the critical components of orientation sessions, and developing successful delivery strategies are the foci of this chapter.

Defining Orientation

When asked to do a job or task, anyone will be more successful when s/he understands exactly what is expected and how the task is to be completed. Marlene Wilson (1976), a pioneer in the field of volunteer resource management, pointed out that volunteers who do not receive adequate and relevant orientation can quickly become dissatisfied with the organization and frustrated with the volunteer experience. Biro-Pollard (2009) stated that volunteers who felt they received inadequate orientation were more likely to stop volunteering altogether.

In his work, Fader (2010) defined orientation as meetings or events where introductory information is given to individuals starting something new. This is the time to make volunteers feel welcomed into the organization while sharing details about the organization's culture and operational practices. It is, the author states, an important time for other staff and board members to be involved in creating a welcoming environment. Further, it is the time to clarify the relationship that will exist between the volunteer and the organization (Volunteer Canada, 2010). Merrill (2005) shared that orientation can also be a time to help define future training needs for volunteers.

According to Kyrwood and Meneghetti (2010), orientation is a component of the screening process and focuses very specifically on understanding the organization without including specific knowledge and skills needed to be successful in the volunteer assignment. Further, she added that appropriate orientation and training are important steps in risk management as well.

Lee and Catagnus (1999) discussed the importance of general orientation to the overall organization that is supplemented by orientation conducted within the department or unit where the individual will be volunteering. Components of the two distinct orientation sessions complement one another without duplicating information for the volunteer.

In summary, McCurley and Lynch (2006) used a more basic definition, which reflects the critical nature of orientation. They indicated that orientation is the "process of learning one's direction and bearings in the world; a person without orientation is, to put it simply, 'lost'." (p. 65). Thus, by orienting volunteers, managers help new staff members enjoy positive volunteer experiences.

When Does Orientation Begin?

When thinking about orientation it is important to consider at what point in the recruitment process orientation actually begins. In some organizations, volunteer screening and placement are not final until the volunteer has completed orientation. In these situations, the orientation process includes an opportunity for training staff to evaluate the potential volunteer based on their interactions during the meetings (Lipp, 2009). This is a time to evaluate whether the volunteer arrived on time, whether his/her communication skills were appropriate for various assignments, how adept s/he was at asking appropriate questions, whether s/he became actively involved in the orientation process, and whether body language cues matched verbal communication about commitment to the organization and its cause. These various clues can help in deciding whether the individual will be a fit in the organization or in a specific unit or department.

In other organizations, orientation is not scheduled until the volunteer has completed the application and screening process and is being placed into a specific unit or department for work. This might be the case for organizations for which there is very specific information for different departments or units, so having the volunteer enter the program understanding exactly where his/her assignment would be creates an advantage in tailoring the orientation experience to better suit the needs of each individual.

There may also be informal orientation that occurs during the recruitment phase of the screening process and a more formal, structured orientation that occurs once the volunteer has cleared at least some portions of the screening process. Informally, potential volunteers gain insight into the organization's culture for interacting with external audiences, see how staff (paid and unpaid) members support one another, and get a general sense of how satisfied staff members currently are with their involvement (Nagy, Berkowitz, & Wadud, 2010). Formal orientation experiences provide the potential volunteer with basic information about the history, purpose, mission and finances of the organization, in addition to covering basic operational culture and practices.

Why Bother with Orientation?

Nagy et al. (2010) share several important advantages to establishing a systematic orientation program. The authors indicate that a primary reason to require orientation is simply sharing knowledge about the organization and its mission and purpose. This also provides an opportunity to discuss organizational policies and procedures. Orientation programs help volunteers feel more comfortable and confident in their capacity to accomplish the assigned work, helping them understand how their tasks contribute to holistic organizational goals and objectives. The authors also indicate that orientation is an opportunity to build enthusiasm for the work to be accomplished, helping volunteers affirm that they have made the right decision to volunteer with this specific organization. Finally, they advocate that orientation can contribute to the avoidance of problems in the future by helping volunteers and staff understand rules, policies and available resources.

Orientation may also include some specialized training to help volunteers better understand the lives of the clients with whom they will be working (Lee & Catagnus, 1999). This helps contribute to stronger connection to the program while also preparing the volunteer for potential emotional realities of working with this new audience. In fact, Vineyard (1990) indicates that orientation must emphasize more than just stated facts and figures. She describes orientation as a time for volunteers to connect personally with the mission and vision of the organization, and to develop feelings of belonging and confidence related to their work.

Components to Cover in Orientation

A typical agenda for orientation would include opportunities for educating potential volunteers, time for new volunteers to interact with staff members and other volunteers, and a tour of the physical space to acquaint new volunteers with the facility.

Lee and Catagnus (1999) share their suggestions for creating the orientation agenda by encouraging administrators to imagine what information would make individuals comfortable coming to volunteer at their organization or at a particular site. Truesdell (1998) offered that orientation facilitators should think of orientation as if they were entertaining an invited guest in their home, taking the opportunity to make the newcomers feel welcome and comfortable in the new environment. Providing a guided tour and introducing new or potential volunteers to staff members helps everyone get a better sense of how each individual fits into the overall organizational structure, helping both volunteer and paid staff members see the larger view. Thinking ahead to anticipate what general information might be needed by anyone new to the agency or facility helps to update or design the orientation-training agenda. Another way to strengthen the orientation agenda would be to invite those who have recently completed the process to assist in reviewing the orientation-training agenda in comparison to their actual work experiences to help identify any gaps in the training. Exhibit 9.1 includes an overview of specific components suggested for inclusion on the orientation agenda.

While an orientation checklist for the facilitator will ensure that the information is shared consistently with all new volunteers, it would also be in keeping with adult learning strategies to provide an orientation checklist so that each volunteer could

EXHIBIT 9.1 Agenda Components for Orientation Sessions

Component	Description/Overview/Responsible Staff Member
Welcome	Session opening led by lead trainer with comments from director or agency head.
Introductions/icebreaker	Age-appropriate activity designed to encourage interaction among session attendees.
Purpose of organization	Discuss organization's purpose and how volunteers fit into the goals/objectives of the organization.
Mission/vision of organization	Share mission/vision of the overall organization as well as for the unit or department where the volunteer will be assigned; include written copies for future reference.
History of organization	Give volunteers information about organizational history from its inception to current situation; be brief but also thorough.
Clientele of organization	Help volunteers understand the general clientele with whom they will be interacting as they volunteer with the organization; if former clients or current clients are willing to share personal stories to help volunteers understand the importance of their roles in the organization, that is helpful.
Organizational chart	Prepare a printed organizational chart, with names of individuals if possible, including placement of volunteers (by role rather than name).
Timelines/calendar	Share current timelines and calendars to help volunteers gain a sense of timing for upcoming events and activities.
Overview of procedures, policies, guidelines, rules, benefits	Provide a printed copy of policies, procedures, guidelines, rules that apply to volunteers in the organization and/or share information about where these items are posted online for access.
Distribute volunteer handbook	Provide volunteers a printed copy or access to a digital copy of a handbook or manual that summarizes the critical materials, forms, procedures, policies, etc., by which they will be participating with the organization.
Tour of facility/introduction to full staff	Guide volunteers on a tour of the facility; include a map of the facility if it encompasses multiple buildings or multiple floors within one building.
Overview of further training offered or required	Provide plans in place to offer additional training that may be required for specific jobs or other training offered as a benefit to those who volunteer for the organization.
Time for questions and answers	Allow ample time throughout the session for questions from participants; provide phone, e-mail, and/or other contact information for volunteers who may have questions after departing the training.
Refreshments/social networking	Food is always a sign of welcome, and socials are great opportunities for new volunteers to interact with current volunteers and other organizational staff members.

track his/her own progress, allowing extra space on the forms for notes and for volunteers to record any specific questions or additional information they need. This supports the efforts of the facilitator while also giving the volunteer a sense of personal responsibility and ownership for the learning process.

McCurley and Lynch (2006) indicate that volunteers need three specific aspects of orientation: cause orientation, system orientation, and social orientation. Cause orientation helps volunteers understand the mission, vision and purpose of the organization. Information included in this phase of orientation includes the history of the organization, data about typical target clients or projects, and future plans for successfully continuing to serve. Cause orientation helps the volunteer to connect emotionally to the organization and its purpose. This is an opportunity to reinforce the long-term purpose and historical impacts of the organization to address identified challenges or to better support the target community with services.

System orientation is the management or procedural information the volunteer will need to be successful in working with the organization. This segment of orientation includes everything from where supplies are stored to how the phones are answered. This includes a review of role descriptions, an overview of record-keeping requirements, needed details about risk management and policy standards, and an understanding of how volunteers fit into the larger organizational structure.

Social orientation supports volunteers in their understanding of the organizational culture. Learning the names of supervisors, meeting other volunteer and paid staff members, and generally feeling welcomed into the organization are all components of this aspect of orientation. This also includes such specific items as dress codes, customs, and other matters related to etiquette and social interaction.

By encompassing all three aspects of orientation in a systematic approach, volunteers are more likely to receive the emotional and informational support needed to be successful in their work assignments.

Formats for Delivery

Now more than ever, volunteer resource managers are working to include volunteers from multiple generations in program delivery. What this translates into when thinking about orientation is creative and varied options for those entering new positions. This creativity may lead to the utilization of varied presentation formats, inclusion of online experiences, or any number of other nontraditional approaches to information delivery.

Involving experienced volunteers in the orientation process can be successful for the organization for several reasons: (1) recognition of volunteer expertise and experience; (2) building bridges between existing volunteers and new or potential volunteers; and (3) insuring that information provided is meeting the needs of volunteers coming into the program. In fact, some nonprofits conduct a single orientation for paid staff alongside volunteers to emphasize the importance of volunteers in the organization (Eisner, Grimm, Maynard, & Washburn, 2009). Many of these agencies also include volunteers in the development of curriculum as well as in delivery of content for both orientation and training.

With technology so readily available, many organizations are moving basic training modules, including some orientation materials, to an online or distance-based system. This blended format allows volunteers to access materials for study in advance of a face-to-face meeting. Some organizations are choosing these specifically developed online modules to replace other delivery systems for this basic orientation training. Caution should be used, however, in determining whether the training topic is best delivered in this media. Recognizing that adults learn best when they experience actually practicing new skills, it is important for organizations to assess whether there should be a requirement for at least some of the training to be face-to-face to insure that volunteers understand and have a full grasp of the new information (Harkins & McCluskey, 2002).

It would be careless not to mention that there are myriad opportunities for volunteers to participate as virtual volunteers, sometimes never entering the physical location of the organization (Safrit & Merrill, 2002). These volunteers, too, need orientation, and it is appropriate that these orientations be available, as holistically as possible, via distance technologies. Whether completing modules individually or participating in online chat or tutorial sessions, organizations must adapt to this need for distance information to succeed with those volunteers who seek technology-related and/or virtual volunteer opportunities.

Thinking about the variety of individuals who might be included in the potential volunteer pool also means realizing that members of several generational cohorts may be involved in the orientation or any other training. By preparing for a variety of learners in the training venue and getting information in advance if possible about the individuals who will be in the session, orientation facilitators can better plan for positive learning experiences for their participants.

For example, veterans are very interested in understanding all of the rules, policies, and history of the organization before they begin their work (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). Their experience in workplaces has always involved detailed rules and guidelines so they are typically most comfortable in the organization once they understand specifics. Boomers are generally more comfortable with face-to-face training and a supplemental manual or handbook to serve as a reference. Focusing orientation on the future will help hold their interest as they are still interested in making an impact on the world. They also enjoy focusing on challenges and solving problems, so creating orientation modules or sessions to help them see specifically how their individual talents can help the organization succeed will help motivate them to become and remain involved.

Millennials, those under the age of 30, are much more digital in their approach (McKee & McKee, 2008). They are accustomed to being able to fast forward through materials that they already understand to get to the new learning, and they want graphics and images to support the information. Their approach is not to look in a printed manual, but rather to look it up online if they need more information or have a specific question. It becomes important for volunteer resource managers to know enough about current and potential volunteers so that orientation delivery is a welcome mat rather than a barrier.

All on Day 1?

Realizing that orientation can be long, with a sometimes cumbersome quantity of material to cover, volunteer managers should carefully consider how much of the information is necessary on the first day with the organization. Again, with current technologies, it is possible that volunteers might be comfortable completing online or self-paced modules prior to face-to-face training. In some organizations, volunteers enter the system individually, so one-to-one training is scheduled while in other organizations there are monthly, bi-monthly, or quarterly scheduled overall orientation sessions. Whichever the case, it is important to keep orientation sessions reasonably succinct, covering the most relevant materials first. Basic orientation should be completed within the first month of the volunteer's placement in the organization. By design, however, orientation may take place over several weeks in brief sessions presenting materials as they become relevant for the volunteer to complete assigned tasks. This would also provide opportunities for volunteers to re-connect with other volunteers who participated in the same initial orientation, creating a cohort for support. It can be a good system as well for volunteer managers to stay in touch with volunteers who may be under the supervision of others in the organization, allowing for feedback and updates about volunteer success and comfort.

Regardless, Ellis (1999) pointed out that one important step that supports volunteers in their orientation process is to be sure someone is assigned to check with volunteers at the conclusion of their first day on assignment. This allows feedback, questions and comments to help determine whether the volunteer needs additional immediate training to complete the assignment and to confirm that volunteers have been placed appropriately. This one additional orientation step can create positive experiences, help alleviate incorrect or inappropriate work behaviors, and make volunteers feel supported and important in the organization.

Episodic Volunteers Need Orientation Too

With the reality that episodic volunteering has become a primary involvement strategy in lieu of longer-term volunteer engagement, successful volunteer organizations are adapting to create management systems that allow for integration of multiple types of volunteer involvement. In many instances, episodic volunteers were simply trained in an on-the-job, learning-as-needed process (Volunteer Canada, 2010). Other organizations may offer an abbreviated orientation that lends itself to the shorter term nature of the involvement.

Often, organizations that involve large numbers of episodic volunteers incorporate a single overview orientation that is required, with the episodic volunteers then getting a job-specific orientation at the time of their service. Other organizations require a more intensive one-time orientation if the assignment is very skill-specific, then episodic volunteers are allowed to return as volunteers several times or over a defined period of months without repeating participation in the orientation. Training updates then might be required at various points during the volunteer experience to ensure continued quality performance.

When Orientation Becomes Training

While orientation provides organizational background information, the process of actually preparing a volunteer to engage in specific assignments involves training related to that task. Sometimes, orientation and training are combined into a single component. In other cases, orientation may be handled in a generic setting for all volunteers while training is then handled within the department where the individual volunteer is assigned to work. Insuring that volunteers have proper skills to complete tasks is a critical retention tool for any organization.

Qualifying training may be considered a component of the orientation process. This is training designed to insure that volunteers have the basic skills and knowledge needed to perform their assigned jobs (Rothwell & Sredl, 1987). Often, this is very task specific, and is in addition to the basics that would typically be included in an overall orientation. For example, this might include training on the use of a specific software program used at that site, or the intricacies of the internal filing system if the volunteer will be assisting with pulling or replacing files.

In this transition from orientation to training, it is vital for facilitators to remember to review even the most basic information, being careful to avoid jargon, acronyms and inside jokes which can cause new volunteers to feel like outsiders who must work to be accepted (Lipp, 2009). It cannot be assumed that incoming volunteers know anything about how the organization has historically conducted its work, and it is important to create an environment that invites new staff members to feel comfortable asking questions.

Once volunteers have the basic skills to be successful in their assignments, the orientation and training—or induction—phase of their experience is complete. Initial orientation may be followed by additional check-in opportunities during the first few months of service to allow new volunteers to re-connect with their initial cohort of entry volunteers and also to allow for additional skills and knowledge training. This supports both the educational needs of the volunteers and the social interaction that helps retain volunteers in service.

Training then becomes focused on developing skills to move to the next level or to assist with new tasks.

Conclusion

Orientation is a critical step in volunteer preparation for service and should not be considered optional. Taking a systematic approach to recruiting volunteers contributes to their satisfaction with the overall volunteer experience while supporting the organization's success with volunteer engagement, making orientation one critical aspect of the organizational retention strategy to build and maintain positive relationships with volunteers. Developing an agenda that includes cause, system and social orientation components will help to insure a holistic foundation for volunteer involvement. Regardless of whether volunteers are serving in episodic or ongoing positions, orientation is important and necessary for program success.

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CHAPTER 10

Training Volunteers

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Volunteers are on board, committed, oriented, and now ready to go, right? Not so fast. Orientation and training, while similar in nature, are definitively two different entities with two different purposes. Orientation includes a broad overview and introduction to the organization, its culture and norms, and basic rules and regulations along with behavioral expectations. Training, on the other hand, provides methods for the volunteer to be successful in their specific position, tasks, or opportunities.

As the quest continues to keep volunteers on the right path for the organization, providing meaningful training is but one method to keep them engaged. According to *The Fifth Discipline Fieldbook* (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, & Ross, 1994), training is part of building a learning organization, not only because organizations want superior performance, but also to improve quality, build competitive advantage, energize the work force and manage change. Today's current world demands that training be a part of the organization success. It follows that volunteers be included in training for these same reasons.

According to Senge, the ability to do things that could not be done before is but one way to measure the genuine learning cycle. Skills and capabilities fall into three areas, as illustrated in Exhibit 10.1.

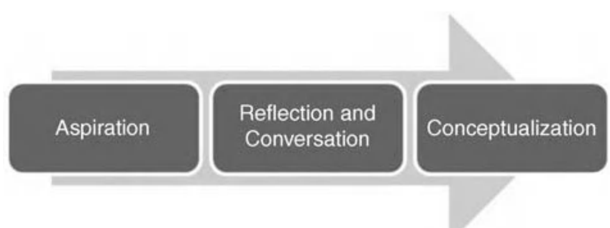

EXHIBIT 10.1 Three Areas of Skills and Capabilities

1. *Aspiration*. The desire or capacity to seek more information
2. *Reflection and conversation*. The ability to reflect on information and behavior
3. *Conceptualization*. The ability to see the larger systems and forces that work together to create the world in which we live

Learning Styles

Jones and Chen address experiential learning in their *New Supervisor Training (2002)* guide. According to Pfeiffer and Jones's (1981) theory of experiential learning cycle, there are five phases represented as shown in Exhibit 10.2.

1. *Experiencing*. The activity phase which involves engaging in common activity that directly relates to duties/tasks.
2. *Publishing*. Where people share with others what they have learned.
3. *Processing*. Group discussion that reinforces learning activity.
4. *Generalizing*. The transition state from theoretical discussion to how it can be applied in the real world.
5. *Applying*. The move from generalizing to actually doing.

While most training activities focus on the experiencing phase, the other four phases are just as crucial to solidifying the information exchange. It is not a bad idea to ask questions that hit the heart of each phase during the training process. Questioning in the publishing phase might deal with emotions: what the volunteers experienced as well as if they noticed what others seemed to be experiencing. For the processing phase, questions should focus on whether the volunteers noticed patterns of behavior emerging from the group. In the generalizing phase, questions about conclusions drawn from the training and how work might be affected should

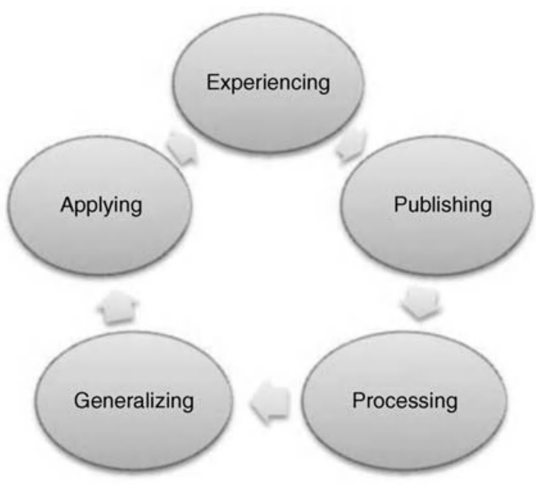

EXHIBIT 10.2 Learning Cycle

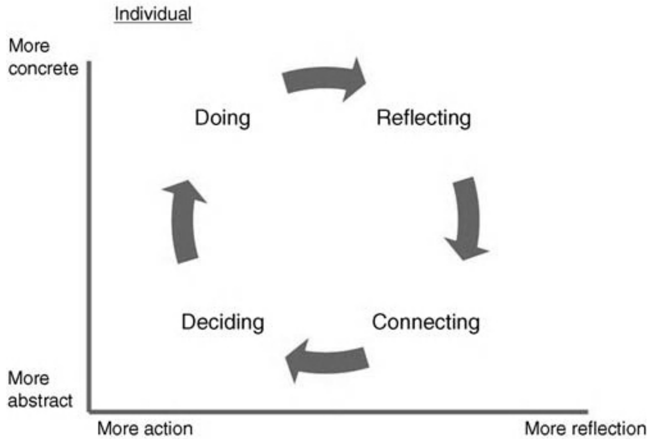

EXHIBIT 10.3 Wheel of Learning

be discussed. The applying phase, as the name suggests, focuses on how the training can be translated to the actual work, which in turn allows the volunteers to consider actual implementation.

In a similar fashion, Senge et al. (1994) refer to the wheel of learning (Exhibit 10.3) beginning with the *reflecting* phase. This phase concentrates on the thinking and feeling of what is about to happen. As the learning continues, *connecting* is the next stage. Connecting is all about creating ideas and possibilities—thinking outside the box—rearranging existing thought into new forms. Once all options have been explored, the *deciding* phase is the next step. Often the phase where action plans are decided, this phase also brings choice into the process. Last, the actual *doing* is where the task is actually being performed. Frequently done in an experimental frame of mind, "doing" helps determine if it is the correct course of action so that changes can be made if deemed necessary.

While this wheel of learning refers to an individual, when considered in a group setting, this translates to *public reflection*, *shared meaning*, *joint planning*, and *coordinated action*. David Kolb (1994) suggests that most people are naturally drawn to one or two of these phases. He goes on to suggest quadrant style learning represented in Exhibit 10.4.

The *divergent thinkers* then become the "brainstormers" in the group. They have the capability to see things/problems/solutions from all different perspectives. The divergent thinkers are essential to successful learning because they are the ones who will offer alternatives and options. The *connection makers*, thought to be the systems thinkers, take all the options presented and draw hypotheses, suggesting the reasoning behind why something may or may not work. The *solution finders*, considered the convergent thinkers, while capable of considering the abstract, are drawn to experimentation to verify solution analysis. The last group, *accommodators*, aptly named because they accommodate the process for the entire group. Transforming through all four quadrants, the accommodators can move from theory to reality.

The National Training Laboratories of Bethel Maine believes that there is a learning pyramid framework illustrated in Exhibit 10.5. Complete with average retention

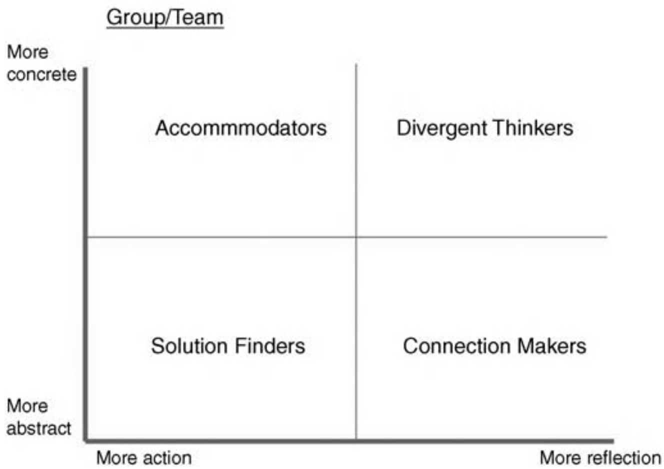

EXHIBIT 10.4 **Quadrant-Style Learning**

rates of material learned, this coincides with the concept of audio, visual and experiential learning.

Education and training generally agrees that there are three basic styles of learning: visual, auditory, and kinesthetic. Learning is dependent on the senses to process information. Most people tend to use one of their senses more than the others. Visual learners learn by seeing and looking, auditory learners learn by hearing and listening, and kinesthetic learners learn by touching and doing. Everyone has a mix of learning styles: some may use one style in one situation and a different style in a different situation. General characteristics of these three different learners can be summarized as:

Visual Learners

- Take numerous detailed notes.
- Tend to sit in the front.
- Are usually neat and clean.

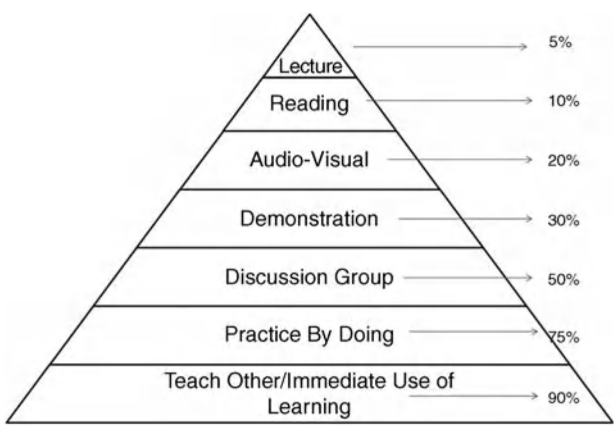

EXHIBIT 10.5 **Learning Pyramid**

- Often close their eyes to visualize or remember something.
- Find something to watch if they are bored.
- Like to see what they are learning.
- Benefit from illustrations and presentations that use color.
- Are attracted to written or spoken language rich in imagery.
- Prefer stimuli to be isolated from auditory and kinesthetic distraction.
- Find passive surroundings ideal.
- Have a sharp, clear picture of an experience.

Auditory Learners

- Sit where they can hear but need not pay attention to what is happening in front.
- May not coordinate colors or clothes but can explain why they are wearing what they are wearing.
- Hum or talk to themselves or others when bored.
- Acquire knowledge by reading aloud.
- Remember by verbalizing lessons to themselves (the concept can be translated or described in words)
- Identify sounds related to an experience.

Kinesthetic Learners

- Need to be active and take frequent breaks.
- Speak with their hands and with gestures.
- Remember what was done but have difficulty recalling what was said or seen.
- Find reasons to tinker or move when bored.
- Rely on what they can directly experience or perform.
- Activities such as cooking, construction, engineering, and art help them perceive and learn.
- Enjoy field trips and tasks that involve manipulating materials.
- Sit near the door or someplace else where they can easily get up and move around.
- Are uncomfortable in classrooms where they lack opportunities for hands-on experience.
- Communicate by touching and appreciate physically expressed encouragement, such as a pat on the back.
- Develop a strong feeling towards an experience.

While the three learning styles are generally accepted in the educational arena, these can also be dissected a bit more into the next types:

- *Visual (spatial).* Preference for using pictures, images, and spatial understanding
- *Aural (auditory-musical).* Preference for using sound and music
- *Verbal (linguistic).* Preference for words, both in speech and writing
- *Physical (kinesthetic).* Preference for using the body, hands, and sense of touch
- *Logical (mathematical).* Preference for using logic, reasoning, and systems
- *Social (interpersonal).* Preference for learning in groups or with other people
- *Solitary (intrapersonal).* Preference for working alone, using self-study

Adult learning styles need to be considered in volunteer training, but it is important not to overlook the importance of physiological and psychosocial variables. Taken from the VolunteerToday.com Web site physiological variables can be described as:

- *Health.* Temporary or continuing physical conditions can influence attendance, attention span and cognitive abilities.
- *Hearing.* If the training will employ auditory techniques, diminished hearing has significant ramifications for training.
- *Seeing.* Adults (and teens) of all ages experience visual problems that may hinder their ability to read printed material.
- *Energy.* As volunteers age, energy levels can be affected with fatigue setting in as energy wanes.

Psychosocial variables include:

- *Personality.* Typically a consistent way of behaving, personality encompasses social attitudes, motivation, values and beliefs, temperament, pathological disposition, stylistic traits, intellectual and cognitive abilities, and physique.
- *Cognitive.* Learning is a process that is influenced by the state of the learner, prior knowledge, and attitudes.
- *Role.* Defined as a social set of rights and obligations.
- *Experience.* Often considered the "demographics" to learning, this relates to age, sex, race, religion, heritage, education, region, work history, etc.

Understanding adult learning styles, physiological and psychosocial variables is but one way towards achieving success of volunteers engaged in your organization. Another factor to consider is the generational relevance. In other words, how do generational issues relate to individuals and how does that interface with successful training.

Generational Issues

According to Richard McBrien (1981):

> *It has been observed that if the last fifty thousand years of human existence were divided into lifetimes of approximately sixty-two years each, there have been about eight hundred lifetimes. Of these eight hundred, six hundred and fifty were spent in caves. Only during the last seventy lifetimes has it been possible to communicate through the written word, and only during the last six lifetimes has the human community had access to the printed word. Only during the last four lifetimes have we been able to measure time precisely, and only in the last two have we had the use of an electric motor. And within the same lifetime—our own—we have seen part of the world pass successively from agriculture as the primary form of human labor, to the manual labor of the factories, and then to the so-called white-collar labor of salespersons, administrators, educators, communicators, and so forth.*

It is an interesting concept to think of all the changes seen in a lifetime. In today's world, those changes happen faster than they did in previous lifetimes. Dealing with volunteers in any organization means dealing with people of all ages, from teens to 90-somethings. Dealing with young teens requires diversity and different styles than dealing with the senior volunteers. Add to that the idea of recognition and retention in volunteer programs and it is easy to see that understanding the generations helps in providing a volunteer environment for everyone. Mastering the art of training, recognition, retention or any other aspect of volunteer program management is based on an understanding of your audience. The audience of today's youth and teens is vastly different from the older volunteers that might be in volunteer programs.

According to Lancaster and Stillman (2002), the four generations break down into:

- Traditionalists: born from 1900 to 1945
- Baby Boomers: born from 1946 to 1964
- Generation Xers: born from 1965 to 1980
- Millennials: born from 1981 to 1999

Proponents of ageless thinking, Lancaster and Stillman (2002) believe that the events and conditions that are experienced in the formative years are those that determine who we are and how we see the world as adults. And though there are common life stages that everyone passes through, different generations do not approach these common life stages in the same way.

Exhibit 10.6 presents a snapshot of the 2000 Census Data, illustrating numbers that make up the generational areas.

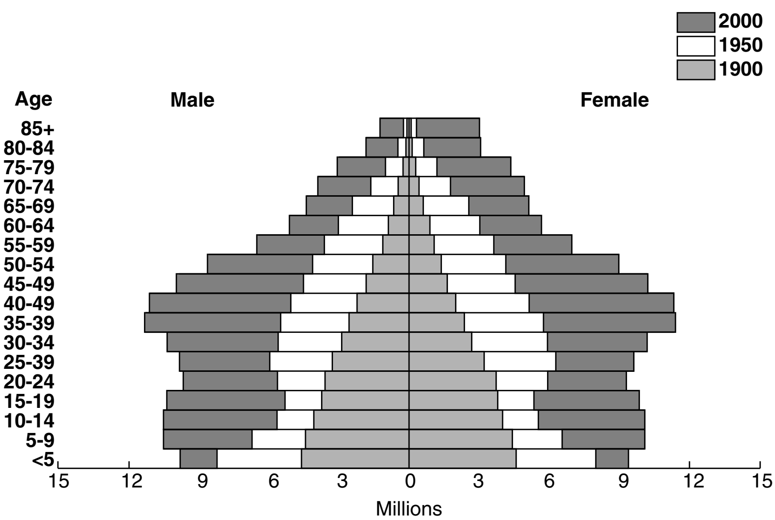

EXHIBIT 10.6 Total Population by Age and Sex: 1900, 1950, and 2000

Source: U.S. Census Bureau.

Some obvious interesting tidbits about the generations include:

- The Millennials are sometimes referred to as the Net Generation, or Generation Y, but all grew up with computers, Internet and interactive technology, something totally foreign to the Veteran generation in their formative years. However, the important thing to remember when considering technology is that this is the first time in history that children are an authority on something important.
- Boomers are the largest generation this country has seen, representing 45% of the adult population.
- The Gen Xers are the smallest generation in U.S. history largely due to the introduction of the birth control pill. With the pill, people could for the first time, determine when and how many children they wished to have and as illustrated in Exhibit 10.6, the smallest generation following the Boomers is the Gen Xers.

No matter how many generations are considered, the key to survival of business lies in communication. And different generations think, process information, and communicate differently. The reason for that is the concept of "defining moments" (Merrill, 2001). The key question to ask in determining the values of people is not how old they are now but rather what happened when they were young. Any Veteran of the Traditionalist generation will mention the Depression and World War II. Ask any Boomer where they were when they heard President John F. Kennedy had been shot and they can all tell you. Boomers also dealt with the Vietnam War. The Gen Xers will most likely list the Challenger explosion and the first Gulf War as something that had great impact for them. And of course, for the Millennials, it will be September 11. The full impact of that defining moment remains to be seen but the event certainly changed the face of daily operations for this country.

Some broad generational characteristics are summarized and illustrated in Exhibit 10.7.

Considering the defining moments, how does this translate to values for each generation? The Veterans are a stable and loyal generation. This generation went to work for one company and then retired some 35 to 45 years later. They dealt with things in a consistent, uniform manner and valued law and order. With distinct gender roles, this generation is hardworking and dislikes ambiguity and change. Shaped by the depression and the war, this generation rebuilt the nation into the American Dream. Respectful of others, they value their experience and wish to have their

EXHIBIT 10.7 Characteristics of Different Generations

	Boomers	Gen X	Millennials
Confident	X	X	X
Techno-Savvy		X	X
Team Oriented	X		X
Street Smart			X
Globally Conscious		X	X
Diversity		X	X
Optimism	X		X
Entrepreneurial	X	X	X

expertise and dedication valued in the workplace. The Veterans generally value hard work, duty, sacrifice, thriftiness, and quality work. As a generation who often worked at the same places their entire work life, this generation does not like change. They are comfortable in the way things have been done and see no reason to shake things up for the sake of change. Their philosophy is if it's not broken, don't fix it.

Representing 45% of the adult population in the United States with 70% of women working outside the home, the Boomer generation attained a first for women whose traditional role had been the stay-at-home mom. True to the times, this generation fights against authority with nostalgia for the 1960s. Optimistic in nature, this generation is team oriented, looking for personal growth and gratification. In the workplace, this generation wants to be valued, with the recognition that their contribution is unique and important. As a generation who began crusading their causes in the 1960s, this generation will again crusade their causes through their activity in the retirement years. That could be through part-time employment or volunteer activity. At any rate, this socially conscious generation will re-define things into the future in much the same way they have re-defined things in the past. With a "buy now and pay later" mentality, this generation seeks to work efficiently, but still values the hierarchical structure of who to turn to for guidance, advice and sometimes decisions.

The Gen Xers represent the smallest generation in the history of the United States. This was the first generation of latchkey kids who came home to an empty house while both parents worked. Considering that they often came home to an empty house, these children were truly wanted by their parents. Often independent and resourceful, this generation has a bit of a survivor mentality. This generation wants to be appreciated, but they want to be flexible and have a life beyond work. In creating a team environment, this gives this generation the family they never had as kids because of the dual working parents. With a personal focus, they live for today. In the workplace, they are seeking and willing to eliminate the unnecessary tasks when possible.

The Millennials have the most age-diverse group of parents. As such, this generation can be judged by the fact that they were definitively wanted by their parents and will be wanted in the job market. Parents gave this generation quality time and the result is a generation of coddled and confident young people. This generation has the potential to be the largest generation since the Baby Boomers and will shape trends, consumption and markets in the future. Technologically savvy, this group has the tenacity to stick it out and figure it out until it works right. With an ability to multitask, this generation needs supervision, structure, growth opportunities and diversity in projects. They have lofty financial and personal goals and fully expect to meet them. The Millennials are always asking, "What's next?" doing things on their terms by just showing up. With a mindset to earn to spend, this generation is more likely to do exactly what's asked, nothing more or less. Born during a time of economic growth, the country made a mid-course economic shift leading to generational change as well. With the economic change and subsequent world event of September 11, the long-term effect of these happenings will be known only in the future. However, it is important to remember that the Millennials have never known life without technology. While many of us can remember the introduction of color television, this generation has grown up with cell phones, pagers, faxes, voice mail and computers you can hold in your hands.

EXHIBIT 10.8 Generational Differences

Veterans	Baby Boomers	Gen Xers	Millennials
Hard work	Personal fulfillment	Uncertainty	"What's next?"
Duty	Optimism	Personal focus	On my terms
Sacrifice	Crusading causes	Live for today	Just show up
Thriftiness	Buy now/pay later	Save, save, save	Earn to spend
Work fast	Work efficiently	Eliminate the task	Do exactly what's asked

When it comes to values, some generational differences are shown in Exhibit 10.8.

And so it is with this understanding that four generations work together in the organization. To be successful, managers/supervisors and leaders must be able to communicate in four languages, one for each generation as described. With communication as a part of training, techniques for communicating with each generation requires an understanding of the best method of communication for each generation and presenting information in a way that can best be understood by the generation receiving the information.

Nuts and Bolts of Training

Never assume that people know, understand, and comprehend what seems like second nature to you. Everyone needs orientation to the environment and training on how to be successful for the tasks/duties they are expected to do. When you begin to think about designing a meaningful program, you should consider:

1. What knowledge, skills, or abilities does the volunteer need to perform this assignment?
2. What kind of skills is the training supposed to provide?
3. What kind of individual learning experiences can be incorporated that will give the volunteer ample opportunities to practice the skills required?

Incorporating meaningful training opportunities into the volunteer program is an investment. Usually thought of as an expense in most organizations, the long-term payoff for adequately trained resources will be obvious. As the design is identified, promote the department and organization as one with a culture of learning. This sends the message to volunteers that training is not solely limited to new volunteers. If volunteers and paid staff don't stay current with the fast-paced changes in today's world, the organization will only fall behind and become obsolete.

Management needs to be supportive of training and training needs. It's easy to believe that the easy answer to the organization's needs is getting volunteers . . . but if they are not adequately trained, how can the organization expect the volunteers to remain committed to your cause or the organization? This hits the entire concept of making volunteers truly feel as if they are part of the organization.

There are situations that call for general knowledge/information sharing that can be done in large group settings (broad information about the organization, expectations with regard to basic rules, etc). The more intricate and difficult detailed training expectations, the smaller the group should be. This allows for adequate opportunity for volunteers to open up for discussion, ask questions, review the learning and develop the skills.

If the thought of small training sessions appears as though it may overload your schedule, consider enlisting the assistance of more experienced volunteers to function as trainers for the training. Experienced volunteers can provide excellent examples of role playing while providing insight into how best to handle problems and objections.

Part of the responsibility of the volunteer program manager is to help potential volunteers achieve their best results through the training efforts provided. Some tips to assist in this endeavor include:

- Training should be done incrementally—one step at a time, building upon the base established.
- The learning should be in structured logical order so that the content can be learned sequentially.
- Provide concrete examples in the training wherever possible—it solidifies the idea for the volunteer.
- Don't be afraid to ask for feedback from the volunteer to ensure that they are grasping the content.
- Reinforce learning with the volunteer as they demonstrate understanding and competency.
- Where possible, demonstrate by actually doing the tasks or through role-playing. It makes it more realistic.

Create Learning Environments

Do not ignore the environment in which the training will be taking place. It is important to create a learning environment to maximize the understanding of the concepts/topics/issues to be covered. Jones and Chen (2002) refer to four conditions that create opportunities for maximum learning.

1. *Confidentiality.* It is human nature to not wish to be seen or perceived as ignorant. Training needs to focus on the concept of gained knowledge and skill building to do the tasks at hand, rather than any opportunity to make someone appear weak or inept. Reassure all participants that the training will remain confidential and then stay true to your word.
2. *Freedom from distractions.* The time spent should be focused on the training at hand rather than work and personal demands. In today's world with multipurpose cell phones everywhere, it's a smart idea to set the expectations before the training begins. Ask volunteers to turn cell phones off or put them on vibrate.
3. *Personal responsibility for learning.* The trainer/facilitator can only go so far. They can present the information with as much interaction as possible. But it is still up to the participant to be actively engaged and committed to learning.
4. *Group-wide participation.* Everyone brings a unique perspective to the training. Be sure to allow adequate time for group discussion and information sharing.

EXHIBIT 10.9 Checklist

Physical	Human	Organizational
Space	Welcoming	Policy
Temperature	Assessing needs	Information on class
Seating	Informality	Displays
Ventilation	Shared leadership	Agenda
Rest rooms	Evaluation of trainer	Paperwork
AV aids	Clear objectives	Structured activities
Lighting	Warm-up exercises	Start and finish on time
Breaks	Name tags	Scheduling
Parking	Mutual planning	

The checklist in Exhibit 10.9 may seem simple, but it serves as a reference and an easy way to make sure all things are considered.

Design

As you begin to brainstorm what needs to be covered in the training, you should consider these things: What information needs to be imparted for the volunteers to be successful in their tasks and what skills do they need to do their work? Once these basics have been identified, then some pieces to consider as you design the appropriate training should include:

- Break up the time allotted into segments and construct the broad concepts to be covered in each time segment.
- Create each segment with the thought of a beginning, middle, and end to tie the training together. The beginning should focus on the purpose of the session, with learning objectives clarified. The middle segment of training should focus on the actual content with the end of the training functioning as the summarizing point where volunteers have the opportunity to debrief on the learning.
- Anticipate which training segments or activities might take more time than expected.
- Transition as seamlessly as possible from one training segment or activity to the next. Consider "bridging" the gap by describing what has been learned and how that will tie into the next segment.
- Allow adequate time for debriefing. Adequate debriefing allows volunteers to solidify the knowledge gained in training.
- Describe a step-by-step process so volunteers have an understanding of what is to be learned.
- Make sure the volunteers see how pieces fit together.
- It may be necessary to create a follow-up session for volunteers to make sure that they have grasped all that has been covered in the training session.

As mentioned, when considering content, the first focus should be on identifying the learning goals that need to be achieved. This can be accomplished through a needs assessment. It is important to keep the focus on the learning goals, not the activities. Goals focus on the deliverable content and the activities are how the content delivery is executed.

Pay attention to the beginning and ending activities. Just as you do not have a second chance to make a first impression; so too, getting off to an erroneous start in training can be damaging beyond repair. Think through the opening carefully. The introductory words can set the tone for the entire volunteer experience. Some key topics are listed next.

Key Topics

- Organization's mission, vision and values
- Policies and procedures
- Safety issues
- Risk management issues
- Confidentiality issues

Allow plenty of time for debriefing. Volunteers need the chance and opportunity to talk and discuss the concepts that have been covered. A good rule of thumb is to plan as much time to debrief as for the educational activity.

Always have some contingency plan or activity ready. You never know when the best laid plans will fall apart. Maybe one learning activity finished faster than anticipated or some unexpected emergency has arisen. Having some additional activities or contingency plan allows for the training session to maintain continuity.

Do not hesitate to solicit feedback for the training session before delivering it. Department staff where volunteers will be working might be a good resource to review the training session to make sure all pertinent aspects of volunteer training are covered. Be willing to acknowledge that training sessions can be reviewed, revised, and revitalized to keep the content accurate, current, and worthy of the volunteer's time.

Creating appropriate training sessions requires creativity, use of all resources, and validates volunteers and the volunteer program. Solid training opportunities pay off in the long run not only for the organization but also for the volunteers.

A step-by-step preparation guide for training session might look like the one shown in Exhibit 10.10.

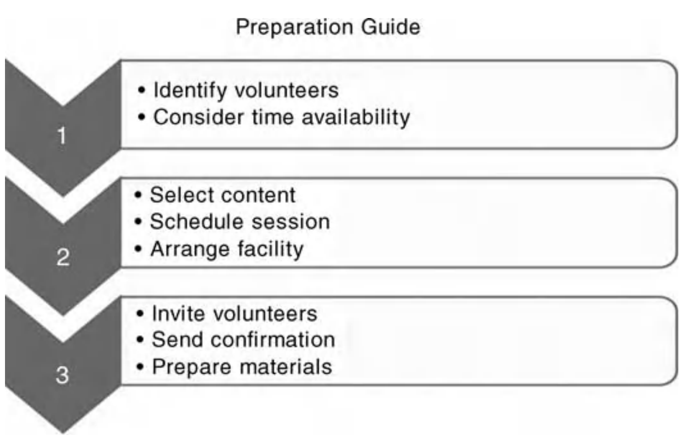

EXHIBIT 10.10 Preparation Guide

Preparation Guide

1. Identify participants or volunteers. Be sure to assess critical training needs and who needs to be included in the training.
2. Determine time availability for training session. How much time is required to impart the appropriate training needed to get the work done? Is it an hour, two hours, half-day training or multiple days?
3. Select highest value content to be delivered. This should be based on previous information delivered.
4. Schedule session. Keep in mind that training may need to be done in the evenings or on weekends to allow some of the volunteers who work a day job to participate.
5. Arrange facility. This component is often forgotten but is important in providing an environment conducive to good learning. Does it make sense to have the tables in classroom style? Or will round tables foster better discussion?
6. Invite participants/volunteers. Often forgotten, it is important to formally invite the volunteers to the training. Or if it is part of the intake process, be sure to let them know that it is an expectation. Be clear in dates, times and locations.
7. Send confirmation to participants/volunteers. It is not a bad idea to send a reminder or confirmation notice to volunteers. Do not hesitate to include agenda and any preparatory handouts that will be useful for the training session.
8. Prepare training materials. As the training date nears, the materials that will be used and shared with the volunteers need to be done well in advance of the training session.

Discussion up to this point has been related to creating meaningful training opportunities to ensure the volunteer success in the organization. Be careful not to overlook some of the obvious things that should be included in the initial training for volunteers.

- Where do they put a purse, coat, keys, etc?
- Where are the restrooms?
- What is the organization's protocol on having something to eat/drink?
- Who does the volunteer notify in event of absence?
- Where does the volunteer go for supplies? Who will supply them?

Although these things should be covered in the orientation portion, it is not a bad idea to reiterate these again. Just as new employees feel overwhelmed by too much information, new volunteers may experience information overload as they are bombarded with information through the entire intake process.

Evaluation

It is important to know if the training has been successful. Evaluation can take on different levels of measurement.

Level 1—Reaction. This level measures the reaction or satisfaction of the volunteers in the training. Sometimes referred to as "smile sheets," this measures the gut reaction on whether volunteers liked the training and doesn't address the knowledge changed or outcome.

Level 2—Learning. Employing this level provides an indication on whether the knowledge base has been increased, skills have improved and attitudes have changed.

Level 3—Behavior. This level begins to address outcomes by providing an indication of behavioral change as a result of the training.

Level 4—Results. This level is where outcomes are measured. What outcomes or results were changed because of the training?

What kinds of tools exist to provide meaningful evaluation? The easiest and quickest model to evaluate training methodology is to do a pre- and post-test. Asking a predetermined set of questions before the training and after the training has been completed can easily be done. Comparing the difference between the pre-test and post-test gives an indication if the training has been successful.

Based on the feedback received through whatever evaluation method is used, the training module(s) can be modified to meet the needs, demands and changes that normally occur in any organization.

Coaching

Different from training, coaching takes an ongoing approach, helping others expand and apply skills, knowledge, and ability. Adapting to each situation, it involves teaching, motivating, empowering and listening to maximize other's performance. It is important to note that sometimes coaches will be challenged by the concept that the volunteer may not want to admit ignorance or inadequacy when it comes to completing volunteer tasks.

Caution must be taken to ensure that the coaching does not inadvertently contribute to low self-esteem or cause the volunteer to feel inadequate or stupid.

Instead, recognize that the person being coached is not you. They may not have the same values, experiences, skills, and ideas as you do. Separate coaching activities from performance management activities. Be sure to set realistic goals with the volunteer, acknowledging that everyone has different rates of learning.

McCurley and Lynch (1996) outline a useful process to employ when coaching volunteers. Described as the EIAG Process, this learning model assists the volunteer leader with those difficult discussions that sometimes have to happen. The letters EIAG really do not spell anything specific; rather they refer to four major steps in the coaching process.

***E**xperience.* People learn from their experiences whether through training exercises or real world events. Sometimes, people experience the same thing over and over with no learning taking place. In those instances, the three additional steps help to solidify the learning process.

***I**dentify.* If the person is to learn from an experience, it is important that they can identify what it is. Once it has been identified, then the next step to full understanding is analyzing.

Analyze. The third step focuses on the volunteer's ability to describe and explore factors in the situation that produced the experience. Only when the volunteer can analyze and understand can they broaden the experience into the generalization phase.

Generalization. It is at this point that the person can translate the educational experience to other situations.

Vineyard and McCurley (2001) believe there are four factors that make for successful coaching when dealing with volunteers. Those factors include:

1. *Caring*. It is important for the volunteer to believe that you genuinely care about their success. Coaching behavior should include expression and demonstration by you reinforcing that concept.
2. *Competence*. As a coach, you must be knowledgeable about what you are coaching the volunteer on. Successful learning is a result of belief in the fact that the coach has confidence in what they are trying to teach.
3. *Encouragement*. As the volunteer tiptoes through their learning, it is important to provide specific positive encouragement. This allows them to build a solid foundation, one small success at a time.
4. *Patience*. This factor addresses the concept that everyone learns at different rates; some grasp ideas/concepts quickly. Some may want to see it; others may want to hear it and still others may need to experience it. This all refers to the broad concept of learning styles previously discussed.

Sometimes it may become necessary to move the coaching concept onto counseling. Coaching focuses on improving volunteer skills while counseling focuses on the correction of inappropriate behavior or problems. If counseling is necessary, the key is to keep it objective focusing rather on identifying the problem, identifying the cause of the problem, identifying alternatives, identifying a better course of action and then challenging the volunteer to learn from their experiences.

Leaders as Leaders

As the leader for volunteers in your organization, training is an essential component of successfully engaging volunteers. However, as the leader, you should be willing to lead by example. According to the Ragan Communications (1999), there are seven effective traits shared by true leaders. How many do you have?

- *Make others feel important*. Make sure your goals are not self-centered.
- *Promote a vision*. Do not hesitate to let the volunteers see the vision that you have for their involvement, the job, the organization.
- *Follow the Golden Rule*. Treat others as you wish to be treated. Abuse and disrespect will get you nowhere.
- *Admit mistakes*. Everyone is human and mistakes will happen. Do not be afraid to admit the mistake . . . you might be surprised to discover that you can actually gain support by admitting the mistake rather than covering it up.

- *Criticize/critique quietly*. If you need to correct or criticize someone or something, do so privately. There is nothing to be gained by publicly embarrassing someone.
- *Stay close to the action*. Be visible. As the leader of the volunteers in the organization, all the volunteers may not directly report to you, but you should be visible to them.
- *Make a game out of competition*. As the volunteers become immersed in the organization, don't hesitate to challenge competition amongst the volunteers—either in group activities or department activities.

Factor in the seven habits of highly effective people according to Mary Merrill (1998) and the list looks like this:

- *Be proactive*. Be responsible, take initiative, and do not blame others.
- *Begin with the end in mind*. Understand and be able to verbalize the organization's vision, mission, and purpose.
- *Put first things first*. Walk the talk and live your values, being true to yourself.
- *Think win-win*. Look for the mutual benefit and think like a winner.
- *Seek first to understand, then to be understood*. Listen to the language and communicate with one another.
- *Synergize*. Understanding that the answer lies between us and that the whole is greater than the parts.
- *Sharpen the saw*. Key to understanding is the willingness to always be learning, seeking knowledge and renewing one's self. If there is that expectation for volunteers, then there should be the same expectation for the leader of volunteers.

Conclusion

Training is just one aspect of building the relationship with the volunteers. Adequate training provides the foundation for volunteers to begin their relationship with the organization. Understanding all the aspects and components of providing appropriate orientation, training and coaching will increase the likelihood that volunteers will feel confident in their work for the organization. It also sends the message to volunteers that they are worth the time and effort involved, which speaks highly of the organization.

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CHAPTER 11

Volunteer and Staff Relations

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In *Volunteers: The Organizational Behavior of Unpaid Workers* (Pearce, 1993, p. 177), the author devotes a section of her book to the research data on the relationship between volunteers and staff. In an early version of the book she refers to that relationship as "the dirty little secret of volunteerism." The author of the chapter had the opportunity to read and comment on the draft of the book's manuscript. I applauded her bravery in dramatically underscoring the seriousness of the issue of volunteer and staff relations. Regrettably, the editors of her book sanitized it to read: "The tension that can exist between volunteers and employee co-workers remains one of the unpleasant secrets of nonprofit organizations" (Pearce, 1993, p. 142). It is unfortunate that her original statement did not survive the editor's pencil. It is likely that the relationship between volunteers and staff is more complex and critical than one might assume (Netting, O'Connor, Thomas, & Yancey, 2005).

The relationship between volunteers and staff has had the attention of both scholars and those who manage volunteer programs for many years. In 1988, Mausner reviewed practitioner literature reporting on the views of Marlene Wilson and Ivan Scheier, two noted practitioner writers, among others. Wilson and Scheier stated that ignoring the relationship of volunteers and staff would impact future volunteer engagement. Ignore the relationship and the organization runs the risk of dissatisfied volunteers abandoning traditional organizations forming new nonprofits or self-help groups and neighborhood associations (Wilson, 1981). Another study reported that more than 65% of staff reported conflicts with volunteers of a minor nature. They included such things as personality conflicts, volunteers not pulling their weight, a lack of communication, disagreement over how to handle situations, and negative attitudes toward volunteers by staff (Wandersman & Alderman, 1993, cited in Rogelberg et al., 2010).

Converse to such negative reports, a more recent study reported that 80% of employees described volunteers as knowing what they are doing, being hard-working, open-minded, well-trained, friendly, and independent (Rogelberg et al., 2010).

This was in organizations using standard volunteer management processes and with a designated manager of volunteers.

No matter the study, writer, or results, there was the admonition to guard against poor volunteer-staff relations, with attendant advice to help everyone work happily together. There was even some discussion describing the characteristics of an effective volunteer-staff partnership, the symptoms of poor relations, how to survey the relationship, or what to do to improve the situation (Mausner, 1988).

It is the relationship between volunteers and staff that can influence the success or failure of a program, fundraising event, changes in leadership, and the ability to make positive organizational changes. When people work together as teams, at all levels of an organization, agency, or program, efficient and effective services are delivered to clients, patrons, or members. Harmony is achieved not by accident but by attention to the needs of both sides of this vital equation. Nonprofit leaders cannot take for granted such harmony. The experience of both staff and volunteer impacts stress and morale, both of which impact the organization's ability to deliver services (Rogelsberg et al., 2010).

Defining the Volunteers and Staff Team

A set or group of people who work together for a common goal is a team. Another type of team is those players forming one side in certain games and sports. In this context the team is a thing—a group, an association, an entity. Change the grammatical usage, however, and team becomes people's willingness to act for the good of the group rather than their own self-interests.

In selecting members for a board of directors or advisory board, one issue considered by nominating committees is a candidate's ability to rise above the single issue to look at the big picture and thus the welfare of the entire organization. Sometimes volunteers are asked to set aside ways in which they have operated for years and move into a new mode. Those who do have subordinated what is good for them personally and put the organization's needs first. The good of the team takes precedence. This same philosophy applies to the direct service volunteer who works with clients, members, patrons, or leads an event or function. Working with the paid staff in an equal partnership is essential. Volunteers and staff share involvement on an equal footing (Mausner, 1988).

The team is also used to describe transport or conveyance. The joint working relationship between volunteers and paid staff in the Boy Scouts allows children to build their citizenship skills; in orchestras it brings music to the community; in hospice it provides skilled and sensitive support to the dying and their families; in libraries it fights censorship; and in humane societies it supports the work of caring for a community's unwanted and unloved animals. Volunteers and staff have the capacity to transport and carry over the cares and concerns of other people into creative solutions. "A team's performance includes both individual results and what we call collective work-products" (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993, p. 114). Those work products reflect the joint contributions of the members. The effective volunteer-staff team is greater than the participation of any one member.

Characteristics of the Effective Volunteer-Staff Team

The literature on volunteer and staff relations stresses the importance of two elements: the use of standard volunteer management resources and the presence of a designated individual to manage the volunteer operation. One study showed overwhelmingly that when "volunteer management strategies" were employed, the better the relationship between paid staff and volunteers (Rogelberg et al., 2010). The greater the intentionality of managing the volunteer and staff team, the less intention to leave the organization, less stress, and more stability in the organization.

Utilizing practitioner literature and academic studies over time results in a consistent list of what constitutes the ideal volunteer and staff team. (Fisher & Cole, 1993; Macduff, 1996; Mausner, 1988; McCurley & Lynch, 2004; Rogelberg et al. 2010; Scheier, 2003; Wilson, 1976)

- *Teams are a manageable size.*

  "Virtually all effective teams we have met, read or heard about, or been members of have ranged between 2 and 25 people. The majority of them have numbered less than 10" (Katzenbach & Smith, 1993, p. 112). In most voluntary organizations, this means that the large group of 100+ volunteers and 12 staff are in subgroups or teams. Those serving on the advisory board or board of directors are one team, the people who work every other Thursday in the organization's office are another team, the committee that plans the annual fun-run fundraiser is yet another.
- *People are appropriately selected to serve on a team.*

  Putting together the right combination of volunteers and staff in terms of personality, skills, influence, communication styles, and ability to perform is important. The more time and care spent in selecting the right combinations for the team, the greater the chances of success. It is wise to acknowledge that the "shared vision" for a project or endeavor can be different between volunteers and staff based on such things as values, age, educational level, or socio-economic group (Mausner, 1988).
- *Team leaders are trained.*

  Whether team leaders are unpaid volunteers or paid staff members, they deserve and should be required to receive training. Leaders who think they must do all the jobs or have little capacity to delegate make poor team leaders. Find a Tom Sawyer, someone who knows not only how to paint the fence but also knows how to get others to do it. This is someone who has the makings of a team leader, who must plan, delegate, and motivate.
- *Teams are trained to carry out their tasks.*

  The board of directors or advisory board is a team. They need training on how to carry out their responsibilities and tasks. For example, they must understand the fundamental differences between governance and administration. Governance is the policy-making role of the board. Administration of the policy is the responsibility of the staff. Volunteers serving as school aides need to understand appropriate and inappropriate behavior in relationship to the children. The teacher (staff) and volunteer aide need to have an understanding of the same set of expected behaviors.

- *Teams are the foundation of the organization.*
  Voluntary organizations, whether or not they are staffed by paid personnel, are founded on the notion of people working together for a common good. Such a foundation means everyone affiliated with the organization is in some way connected to everyone else. Working together effectively and efficiently is the foundation that builds and strengthens the organization or agency.
- *Volunteers and staff are supported by administration.*
  Managers and administrators of organizations need to understand the importance of their commitment to the working team—both volunteers and staff. Any program is enhanced through a formal policy statement that outlines the role of volunteers and explains the nature of the volunteer-staff relationship. It is evident that presence of standard volunteer management strategies improves the chance for harmonious volunteer and staff relations, which in turn leads to positive employee perceptions of experiences with volunteers (Rogelberg et al., 2010).
- *Teams have goals and objectives.*
  Effective volunteer-staff teams create a shared vision for their work. Usually, they develop a plan with purposes, goals, objectives, and work plans to guide their efforts. "Effective teams develop strong commitment to a common approach, that is, to how they will work together to accomplish their purpose" (Fisher & Cole, 1993, p. 26). Trust cannot be ordained. It develops when people work together successfully. Having a plan helps to build the mutuality of experience that builds trust over time. Two primary elements are essential to effective volunteer and staff relationships: trust and shared power (Mausner, 1988).
- *Volunteers and staff trust and support one another.*
  People come to trust each other when they have shared positive experiences. A lack of trust creates imbalance between volunteers and staff (Mausner, 1988). In a voluntary organization, this means that everyone knows the purpose of the organization and the tasks at hand. Goals are developed by members of the team working together. Some orchestra boards of directors, for example, decide how much money is to be raised by a guild or association during their budget building process and do not consult with the volunteers whose responsibility it is to raise the money. This undermines trust and support among governance volunteers, fundraising volunteers, and the staff who must work with both.
- *Communication between volunteers and staff is both vertical and horizontal.*
  The common notion about communication deals with the sending and receiving of messages. Communication is really about sending "meanings" (Wilson, 1976). It is less a language process and more a people process. It involves the active and continuous use of such things as active listening, providing feedback, telephone trees, regular e-mails or texts. The messages aim at clarifying perceptions; reading body language; and noticing symbols that communicate meaning. It travels in all directions in the organizational structure—up, down and horizontally. Leadership volunteers communicate with direct-service volunteers. Staff communicates with volunteers all the time. Hierarchical blocks to communication are bridged when volunteers and staff work together effectively. It is also true that working together is best facilitated by good communication.

- *The organizational structure promotes communication between volunteers and staff.*

  Volunteers and staff need policies, procedures, and structures that permit and encourage them to communicate. A group of volunteers who raised a great deal of money for an organization and led educational programs had a small office (read closet) in the administrative offices of a large nonprofit group. In a management shuffle, the new executive director saw no reason why these women (the group was largely female) could not work out of their homes. The small office was then available for storage. Volunteers who could once walk down the hall and talk with paid staff colleagues about their plans and activities were now forced to deal with the voice and e-mail structure. Appointments were needed to share information. This is an example of the organization creating roadblocks to effective communication.
- *The work of volunteers and staff has real responsibility.*

  Millions of volunteers stuff envelopes each year for organizations, agencies, and programs. Seems like an unimportant job except that it provides information, education, and news to constituents, clients, or members. Most volunteers know this and willingly fold and stuff for hours because it is a real job with real responsibility. All jobs need to be described clearly as to how it aids in accomplishing the mission of the organization.
- *Volunteers and staff have fun while accomplishing their tasks.*

  Harmonious relationships between volunteers and staff are readily apparent in the amount of fun exhibited during planning meetings, at activities, or during evaluation sessions. A group of volunteers and staff recruiting parents to serve as leaders of youth clubs heard many people say no before someone would agree to serve. A volunteer came to a meeting and said, "I think I have heard the worst excuse yet for not volunteering. A woman told me yesterday she couldn't be a leader of her son's club because she ironed." This brought laughter all around and generated other "best excuse" stories. Someone produced a notebook and the "funny excuses" were recorded. The recording of best excuses was institutionalized by the group and it went on for years. New members, volunteers, and staff were indoctrinated with readings from the book by returning members. The humor and affection exhibited by the group built a sense of fun and reinforced the concept of mutual responsibility. Never underestimate the impact of fun on volunteers and/or staff.
- *There is recognition for the contributions of volunteers and staff.*

  Volunteers publicly recognize the work of staff. Staff publicly acknowledges the efforts of volunteers. There are both formal and informal expressions of appreciation for the work accomplished by groups. Management or administration encourages this and organizes ways to make it easy for the recognition to occur. This effort at recognition is consistent, public, and visible.
- *Volunteers and staff celebrate their successes.*

  Celebrations with food, frivolity, and friendship are a hallmark of effective volunteer and staff relationships. These activities are often spontaneous and inexpensive. It can be as simple as a visit to a local coffee shop or pizza parlor. They are encouraged by the leadership of the organization and might often be led by them. Budgets in nonprofit organizations are planned to pay for celebratory events to herald the effectiveness of the volunteers and staff who work together to achieve the mission of the organization.

- *The entire organization sees itself as portioning and encouraging the health of volunteer and staff relationships.*

  Building effective volunteer and staff relationships works only when everyone in the organization sees him or herself as part of a volunteer-staff partnership and actively promotes such relationships.

Managing Different Types of Volunteer-Staff Teams

There are three different types of teams: volunteer-staff teams that make or do things, teams that run things, and teams that recommend things. The next descriptions give some idea of how they might be managed effectively.

Volunteer-Staff Teams that Make or Do Things

These groups provide the most direct service—stuff envelopes, visit shut-ins, deliver library books, walk dogs, take blood pressure, lead Girl Scout or 4-H clubs, teach nutrition, weigh rice into one-pound sacks, and make soup for the homeless. The work these teams do has no end date because their activities are ongoing. Managers need to observe and assess these types of teams on a continuing basis. By measuring productivity and performance on a regular basis, alterations are made in how work groups are organized; the training they receive; and client, member, or patron responses. Feedback must be quick, clear, concise, and continual.

Volunteer-Staff Teams that Run Things

The board of directors, an advisory committee, or a group overseeing some functional activity of the organization or agency is a team that is in effect governing. The key here is to help the team avoid being like the make- or do-things groups described above. If the volunteers and staff want to organize as a team, they must have goals and objectives separate from those encompassed in the mission of the organization.

Boards of directors, for example, often focus their planning on accomplishing the mission of the organization, to the exclusion of the development of their own skills as governance volunteers. The board needs separate and distinct goals and objectives, apart from the organizational goals and objectives. These might include such things as communication skill training, risk management presentations, or skills to manage conflict.

Governance groups, boards of directors, or advisory groups frequently have teams within the larger group. Standing or ad hoc committees make up smaller teams, but they are in no way the only small team within the larger group. As executive director of a nonprofit organization for almost 15 years, the author developed a team relationship with five succeeding presidents of the board, and in several cases the team was enlarged to include other officers. The volunteer and staff pairing allowed for creativity in problem solving, leadership development of others, program innovation, policy direction, and organizational change. These small teams did not operate to exclude others; rather they operated to develop the plans and strategies to enable other volunteers and staff to perform as effectively as possible.

Volunteer-Staff Teams that Recommend Things

Nonprofit and voluntary groups rely heavily on task forces, advisory panels, and project groups. These are groups with a short time period to accomplish their tasks or solve a problem. A special team dissolves after making recommendations for a program. Initially, this is a task force type of group—a group that must get off to a fast start and meet deadlines for recommendations or activities.

The key component of building teams that recommend is an early and clear role definition and the opportunity for volunteers and staff to create their own goals and objectives. The relationship between volunteers and staff can be enhanced if members are selected carefully. This is often the time to put together individuals, volunteers, and paid staff, and have a track record of working effectively in a group. It is also important to include people who will ensure that the recommendations are carried out.

Building effective volunteer-staff teams involves more than implementing training programs on communication. It includes knowing the types of teams that can be formed, what skills its members need, how to match tasks with skills and interpersonal style, and how to address the challenges faced by the teams.

A band that played an open-air concert at a county fair had several members who sang, played, and worked the front of the stage. Additional musicians behind them served in a more supportive role. The obvious harmony of this team came from their agreement about programming, their communication while on-stage, the fun they had with each other, and their willingness to listen to all members, those in front and those further back, in order to enhance the concert. This musical team was a delight to hear. "Usually when this occurs it is that the unique and separate talents of all those involved were somehow blended into a whole that was greater than all of its parts" (Wilson, 1976, p. 181). It is also the ideal to which all volunteer and staff teams should subscribe.

Recognizing the Symptoms of Poor Volunteer-Staff Relationships

In some organizations there is a lack of communication that influences the very survival of the institution. Volunteers and staff are locked in adversarial roles detrimental to the health of the entire organization (Rogelberg et al., 2010). This usually begins gradually and at first is noticed by few staff or volunteers. Symptoms include the increasing use of "us and them" language. Volunteer managers hear things like, "They always do things like this to us." "We would never do something like that to them." There is uncertainty among volunteers and staff about roles and responsibilities. Individuals are often uncooperative about working on joint projects. They do not communicate directly, but go around each other to get questions answered and problems solved. There is a risk volunteers will leave and paid staff resign (McElroy, Morrow, & Rude, 2001, p. 424, cited in Rogelberg et al., 2010).

Volunteers and staff often carve out territory and guard it tenaciously (McNair, 1981, p. 3, cited in Mausner, 1988). For example, programs become the sole property of staff, volunteers stake out a fundraising event and won't entertain suggestions from staff, or board members go into secret meetings to establish budgets and do not consult direct service volunteers or paid staff.

When volunteers and staff have poor relations there is little information sharing. In territorial environments information is power. "Withhold information and you are in control" is the philosophy. A large city orchestra had to cancel its concert season due to a severe money shortage. Leaders asked season ticketholders to donate the purchased tickets and not to request refunds. Several months after this dramatic action the president of the volunteer association knew little about any plans to improve the financial situation, despite the fact that the association would be expected to raise several hundred thousands of dollars to help balance the budget.

Withholding of information is a way for the board and senior staff to demonstrate their ownership of the budget. It is also a flashing road sign warning that the relationship between volunteers and staff is not healthy. How can management and voluntary leaders determine the current state of volunteer-staff relations and then develop strategies to improve the staff-volunteer work environment to increase productivity? The first step is to conduct an audit of current volunteer-staff relations, and the second is to implement appropriate steps or strategies to improve the relationship between the two groups.

Volunteer-Staff Climate Audit

The volunteer-staff climate audit (see Exhibit 11.1) assesses the current state of volunteer-staff relations and provides a way to monitor changes in the working environment. It is distributed to randomly selected members of staff, volunteers, clients/patrons/members, and perhaps people outside the organizational family who regularly interact with staff and/or volunteers (if an outsiders' perspective is needed).

The process begins with the organization of an audit committee, which is led by a volunteer-staff team. Members include volunteers from all areas of the organization and representatives of staff (including people who do paid-staff support work). The person who coordinates or manages volunteers is a likely candidate to provide staff support to this committee. The audit committee needs the support of management and administration with a budget and the resources to carry out its assignment. The commitment of leaders in the organization to an assessment of volunteer-staff relations will be judged not just by words but by the actions taken to support the efforts designed by the audit committee. The audit committee should follow all the recommendations for effective teams listed later in this chapter. Their work begins with a purpose statement and a list of goals and objectives that are measurable, achievable, demanding, flexible, and observable.

A random sample of volunteers, staff, and clients should be surveyed, with each group receiving one-third of the questionnaires. For example, if you want to survey 300 people, each group is sent one-third of the questionnaires. If you add outsiders to the group, they receive half the number distributed to the three main internal groups. In the sample of 300, only 50 outsiders would receive questionnaires. The number distributed depends on the size of the organization, how many volunteers it uses, how long it will take to compile the results, and the cooperation expected from those completing the form.

The audit can be distributed electronically with a program such as Survey-Monkey, Google Apps, or via regular mail. Whether electronic or snail mail the total survey includes: a cover letter explaining the purpose of the activity, who is conducting the survey, how confidentiality is maintained, when the results are available, and how a respondent can see the results. If the survey is mailed, it should include a stamped return envelope.

EXHIBIT 11.1 Volunteer-Staff Climate Audit

Directions: Read each situation and decide how frequently it occurs: **Usually,** or **Sometimes,** or **Rarely.** Circle the appropriate number. Try to respond to each situation.

Situation	Usually	Sometimes	Rarely
1. "They never" or "we always" are words heard when staff members refer to volunteers.	**1**	**2**	**3**
2. Volunteers ask for credits or measures of their worth. Examples: paid parking, discounts mileage allowance, etc.	**1**	**2**	**3**
3. Volunteers and staff both use such words as "together, we, our project" (meaning staff and volunteers), etc.	**3**	**2**	**1**
4. Reports on volunteer activities during management meetings come from other staff, not just the person responsible for volunteer coordination.	**3**	**2**	**1**
5. Volunteers are visible on board of directors or advisory board committees.	**3**	**2**	**1**
6. Decisions affecting volunteers are made by staff without consulting the volunteers.	**1**	**2**	**3**
7. Decisions affecting staff are made by volunteers without consulting the staff.	**1**	**2**	**3**
8. Volunteers say "thank you" to staff publicly.	**3**	**2**	**1**
9. Staff treats volunteers who serve on the board of directors or advisory board with more respect than other volunteers.	**1**	**2**	**3**
10. Projects are planned collaboratively between staff and volunteers.	**3**	**2**	**1**
11. Volunteers focus on the past rather than on future possibilities.	**1**	**2**	**3**
12. Volunteers jump appropriate organizational structure lines to get answers to their questions from staff.	**1**	**2**	**3**
13. Staff are too busy to explain the rules of the game to volunteers.	**1**	**2**	**3**
14. The leaders of the organization (staff and/or volunteers) are visible at volunteer events.	**3**	**2**	**1**
15. Volunteers are asked to give input and assistance in most organizational projects, not just fundraising.	**3**	**2**	**1**
16. Staff says "thank you" to volunteers publicly.	**3**	**2**	**1**
17. "They never" or "we always" are words heard when referring to staff.	**1**	**2**	**3**
TOTAL			

Scoring: Add the numbers vertically in each column. If there are situations for which you did not check any boxes, add 2 points for each situation. Then add the three subtotals for your grand total. 38 to 51 means you have excellent volunteer-staff relations (but don't let up); 28 to 37 means you are doing some things right but could use tuning up in some sections (the situations can help you identify those areas); 17 to 36 means that you have a serious problem and need to take action immediately.

Grand total______________________________

Please provide the following demographic data to help increase the validity of this research:

Male_________Female_________I am a volunteer_________Paid staff_________

I have volunteered for: ______Yrs ______Months ________Weeks ____Hrs.

My age range: 14–25_____

26–35_____ 36–45 _____ 46–55 _____ 56–65 _____ 66+ _____

The audit committee tabulates the responses and prepares a statistical report for later deliberation. The first step in the deliberation is to have the person who was responsible for tabulation explain or clarify statistics without offering opinions. Then, the group discusses conclusions they can infer or draw from the statistics provided. Last are recommendations based on the conclusions of the group. The presence of a neutral third party familiar with statistical analysis might help the deliberations.

The final report is a copy of the statistics, the conclusions, and the recommendations. The co-chairpersons are responsible for delivering written copies of the report to those in leadership positions. They can also present an oral report to interested groups within the organization, like at a meeting of volunteers or a regular paid staff meeting. The results of the audit are shared with the leadership of the organization, volunteer leaders, and the staff management team.

People participating in the audit may want to see the results. A decision on the wider distribution of the results of the audit is made jointly by the members of the organizational leadership team and the audit committee.

Why Assess Volunteer-Staff Relationships?

A manager of volunteers thought she had a serious problem with volunteer and staff relations. A study was conducted to evaluate the attitudes of volunteers and paid staff toward each other as employer and volunteer (Macduff, 1991). The result of the volunteer-staff attitude survey questionnaire was that "paid staff and volunteers generally have positive attitudes toward one another's performance" (Macduff, 1991, p. 355). The use of a quantifiable measure of attitudes of staff and volunteers provided information for a volunteer advisory committee and allowed the director of volunteers to enhance what was essentially a healthy situation.

There were some areas that needed improvement. She discovered, for example, that turnover was only a problem among volunteers assigned to work with an untrained (and sometimes unresponsive) supervisor. This supervisor was unsure about volunteer performance standards (Macduff, 1991) for jobs. There are remedies for this.

An experienced and capable volunteer manager can misread cues on the state of volunteer and staff relationships. It is easy to do. The use of the volunteer-staff climate audit is a method to reduce overreaction, identify specific areas of concern, and develop a plan to improve the relationships throughout the organization.

Causes of Poor Volunteer-Staff Relationships

Pearce (1993) suggests three causes for the negative tension that can exist between volunteers and staff: professional status, profiting from charity, and management systems. Paid staff have a higher status than volunteers. The status is greater in proportion to the degree of specialized training for the occupation. The tension caused by the difference in status was reduced in several of the studies she reviewed when volunteers were seen as officeholders and there was "a careful deference on the part of paid [staff] members" (Pearce, 1993, p. 144).

The notion of profiting from charity is twofold. First is the idea that once there are employees in an organization, you have the volunteers and staff working at cross purposes. The volunteers are raising money to fund worthwhile causes, while employees' goals are related to good wages and benefits. Secondarily, volunteers are perceived by some employees as being a direct threat to their livelihood. For example, in the mid-1970s New York City had a budget crisis and 40,000 city jobs were lost. The mayor's solution was to enlarge the volunteer contingent. Despite the mayor's pledge that no department would replace employees with volunteers, some departments did just that. "Incidents like these can do little to reassure public employees that volunteers pose no threat to their livelihood" (Brudney, 1990, p. 33). Pearce's review of the research backs up the notion that some hostility between volunteers and staff can be traced to job threat. She found that "those employees who were most hostile to volunteers were the ones most threatened by them" (Pearce, 1993, p. 145).

The third cause of tension between volunteers and staff falls in the lap of management systems. It appears that blurring the lines between volunteers and staff is a way to reduce the potential damage from hostility. This creates partnerships and reciprocity (McNair 1981, cited in Mausner, 1988). This is especially true when paid staff leave their positions only to return to the organization or agency as volunteers. It is as if neither volunteer nor employee see the work as "just a job" but rather as a calling (Pearce, 1993).

Susan Ellis, in *From the Top Down* (1986) discusses the refusal of an employee to accept an assigned volunteer as a symptom of poor relations. "As long as salaried staff are given the choice or act as though they have the choice of accepting volunteers as co-workers, top administration is sending messages about volunteers" (p. 63). This is a management problem. Sometimes the refusal to work with volunteers is based on inaccurate stereotypes. No one wants to work with a person who is incompetent, paid or unpaid. Ellis contends that a well-managed volunteer program recruiting the right people for the right jobs should be an expectation of management. Staff are more encouraged to see volunteers as co-workers when the person has been screened and trained properly.

Pearce concludes a comments section on volunteer and staff relations by saying that there is a better chance of improved relations "when volunteers become more employee-like" (Pearce, 1993, p. 178). This happens when the selection, orientation, training, and supervision of volunteers is done using standards similar to those used for staff. Pearce also suggests that volunteer and staff relationships are an area requiring more research. To truly understand the underlying causes of the tension between volunteers and staff, more volunteer managers and administrations must collect quantifiable data.

Despite the lack of abundant hard evidence on the causes of tension, it seems clear that standard volunteer management strategies can help reduce tension. Building teams of volunteers and staff as coworkers seems like a successful strategy to enhancing communication and thus effectiveness (Rogelberg et al., 2010).

Sequential Process to Build the Volunteer-Staff Team

Volunteers and staff who work together to achieve the mission of the organization are a team. The committee that plans a fundraising event, the executive committee of the board of directors, individuals who work with staff to deliver direct service to clients, members or patrons, and those who provide support services are all part of the volunteer staff team. All the teams working together make up the organizational team. To build an effective and efficient volunteer team requires a sequential process.

Attention to each of these steps can enhance the opportunity for volunteers and staff to work together more effectively.

1. Begin the process of building effective relationships by allowing members of work teams to develop their own goals and objectives. People who have a hand in defining the outcomes are generally more committed to seeing that they are achieved. A fundraising team can establish a time line and target financial goals or benchmarks for measuring success. The goals belong to the team and are arrived at by volunteers and staff working together.

   Once a work team of volunteers and staff has determined goals and objectives they are written and distributed to all members, thus becoming tools to evaluate progress. With a board this would be an annual strategic plan. Each member of the volunteer-staff team makes a personal commitment to the goals by agreeing to take some responsibility for their completion.
2. Internal role expectations are those written and unwritten rules that describe the appropriate behavior of both volunteers and staff. For example, many boards and committees have an established internal expectation that members may have three excused absences from regularly called meetings. After the third absence their membership in the group is called into question. Some groups enforce this rule, others do not. By clarifying the role expectations, ambiguity is reduced and each half of the equation—volunteer and staff—knows what is expected.

   It is also important to address the issue of multiple expectations and possible overload. For example, the paid secretary to an executive director was asked to represent support staff on a planning committee. Her job was to participate in committee deliberations, not to take notes and type up the minutes. That role had to be clarified for her. She did volunteer to do much of the note-taking for the group. The chair of the committee was careful to ask if it was too much or if she was feeling that the group expected her to do this. As time passed other members of the team picked up the message and both volunteers and staff agreed to share secretarial work. This is also an example of what could have become role conflict being resolved through effective communication.

Another type of role conflict happens when board members are also direct service volunteers. As board members they discuss governance issues, while as direct service volunteers they are concerned with issues that directly affect clients or members. "As association members, they are 'owners' of the organization; as 'direct service volunteers' they are workers obligated to perform in accordance with directives and subject to performance surveillance" (Pearce, 1993, p. 178). Role confusion can result if a volunteer or staff also receives the services of the organization or agency. Clarity and conscious attention to the roles for volunteers and staff keep lines of demarcation clear. This means position descriptions for everyone.

3. External role expectations are another area of concern for volunteer managers, volunteers, and staff. Each group needs to know with whom it is appropriate to share their concerns, praise, suggestions, or turmoil. Are they only allowed to talk to an immediate supervisor? That is an unrealistic expectation. It is better to help both volunteers and staff understand the importance of knowing the limits and scope of their own influence and how using it will affect the team with which they work. A persistent problem for nonprofit organizations is when one spouse is a direct-service volunteer and the other serves on the board. The board spouse frequently brings administrative concerns to meetings dealing with governance issues. Similarly, the direct-service spouse may share information on new policy directions with friends among the volunteers when no firm decisions have yet been made. Helping people deal with their loyalties and appropriate avenues of communication is important to positive relationship between volunteers and staff.
4. Communication between volunteers and staff is critical. Are two newsletters produced to keep people informed about the organization—one for staff and a different one for volunteers? Could they be folded into one? The volunteer manager can map the flow and frequency of communication among volunteers and staff. This helps identify areas of weakness. It is also critical that all volunteers and staff be participants in the information flow, which should cross status and authority lines.
5. Decisions made by effective work teams are determined uniformly. The group needs to decide on a process for decision making. Leaders should not assume that everyone wishes to use a consensus model. Discuss alternatives and let the group make a conscious decision. The discussion includes those involved in the process of making decisions. Many people might be consulted, but only a few might make the final decision. There are two other important issues to address before beginning work on a project: 1) the problem-solving techniques to be used by the group is discussed and agreed to, and 2) the way conflict is to be managed is determined. If volunteers and staff have been working together on a team for years, this information needs to be reviewed annually whether or not there are new members.
6. Leaders of volunteers and staff must be skilled. This means appropriate training must be provided to staff who supervise volunteers *and* to volunteers who

supervise other volunteers. It is not optional. Leaders need skills as facilitators, meeting managers, problem solvers, and conflict resolvers. Volunteers and staff work harmoniously when they are led by people with good "people" skills.

7. All groups have norms, whether or not they acknowledge them. These are the unwritten rules that guide organizational and personal behavior. The best norms are those that encourage positive relationships between volunteers and staff. For example, the way volunteers and staff greet newcomers is often an indication of the state of volunteer-staff relationships. There are rarely policies about greetings, but they can immediately tell volunteers and staff if a team spirit exists in a group. For instance, volunteers arrive at a meeting and find that the attendees are all paid staff. No one greets them or helps them find seats. A paid staff person attends a meeting of all volunteers. The staff person is not included in the discussion or consulted about decisions that must be carried out by other staff members. Inclusion or exclusion is the basis of many organizational norms. If the organization runs with staff in-groups or volunteer in-groups, others can be excluded, and that does not build effective volunteer-staff teams.

Tips to Enhance Volunteer-Staff Relations

Tips to enhance volunteer-staff relations are presented next.

- The position of the volunteer manager is challenging, time consuming, and vital. Coordinating volunteer programs is a complex professional job that requires a variety of skills and strategies. Most programs are in hot competition with other organizations for qualified volunteers. Recruiting and retaining volunteers is a key factor in overall organizational success. It is also a major challenge requiring the attention of a professionally trained manager of volunteers. Building a strong volunteer-staff team means delegating tasks and responsibilities. An effective volunteer manager learns to delegate to others because it results in efficiency, productivity, and highly motivated people.
- Training on team building enhances volunteer-staff relations. Knowledge of team-building strategies helps both volunteers and staff manage more effectively. Sending volunteers and staff together to a team-building workshop sends a clear message about the goals of the organization.
- Volunteers find alternative lines of communication in an organization when they do not get their questions answered. Staff and volunteers in leadership roles need to monitor constantly the types, forms, and frequency of communication to members of the work team. Make use of all social media applications: blogs, wiki, Twitter, instant messaging, or e-mail.
- Open, honest evaluation of tasks and positions within the organization, both volunteer and staff, is done on a regular schedule. Volunteers need to evaluate their own efforts and have opportunities to assess staff who work directly with them. This is a joint effort, not a session where staff outlines a list of transgressions. Volunteers can improve only if *they* identify and plan to correct weaker elements of their performance. Similarly, when a staff member works on an event or program, the evaluation process is done jointly.

- Volunteers and staff are evaluated on supervision and management competencies. The organization's performance appraisal form or process includes an area that assesses staff ability to work effectively with volunteers. If a staff member does not work with volunteers, that portion of the performance appraisal is marked "Not Applicable." If management does not take volunteer-staff team work seriously enough to evaluate staff on a regular basis, why should the staff? Similarly, volunteers in leadership roles are evaluated on how they might enhance their skills. The person conducting the assessment for the volunteer is the paid staff or volunteer to whom they report. For example, the president of the board of directors and the chief executive of an agency meet annually to discuss their respective performances as it relates to the management of volunteers and staff, and both fill out a standardized management competencies form, which asks for self-evaluation. During the performance review meeting they share their respective forms and make adjustments based on the other's observations of their work. This is not part of the chief executive's formal evaluation.
- Clear communication means:
  - Straight talk from both volunteers and staff
  - Active listening by volunteers and staff
  - Emphasis on building a team-work environment
  - Volunteer work areas in close proximity to staff
  - Pay volunteers by means of a constant flow of information
  - Staff working continuously with volunteer leadership to understand the larger needs and goals of the organization
  - "Thank yous" coming often to volunteers, publicly, even when volunteers contributed only part of the total job
- Monitor how often volunteers are included in planning for new projects. For example, a director of volunteers in a large urban setting uses as one measure of volunteer-staff relations how consistently the volunteers are invited to participate in discussions of service goals or projects. This means everything from determining how to stuff envelopes to meeting with the director of development at a problem-solving session on reaching a targeted group for contributions. This volunteer manager knows things are okay if requests increase for the special expertise that volunteers bring to the team.
- The volunteer coordinator is seen by both volunteers and staff as fulfilling a key role. One important responsibility for that person is to communicate the views of volunteers to the paid staff and explain the roles and responsibilities of paid staff to the volunteers.
- Mutually define roles and responsibilities.
- Paid staff and volunteer relations are often improved through training and orientation that is specifically about working in a nonprofit organization. The training session might focus on the concept of paid staff and volunteers working to reduce barriers that might exist between the two groups.
- Volunteers can sometimes see themselves as operating to the side, away from the organization. A team approach to volunteer-staff relations means that everyone works *together* to further the mission. Decisions that affect the volunteers and the service they deliver or the money they raise are arrived at jointly with

paid staff. Volunteers consult staff as they make decisions about how they will carry out an event or activity.

- Some staff members, representing the entire staff, may be on the volunteer boards; some direct service volunteers, representing all direct service volunteers, may be on the board of directors or the advisory committee. Paid and unpaid staff also make good contributing members of management committees.

Conclusion

Every volunteer program or nonprofit organization faces unique problems and challenges in building an effective team, but efforts to build such a team have a practical, powerful payoff. Teams can deliver results efficiently and effectively when their members truly work together. The power of the team is in creating the kind of environment that enables individuals and organizations to perform at their peak.

Farmer Jones and Farmer Chin owned two dray horses they used to haul produce wagons to market. They decided to sell their horses. Farmer Alvarado decided to buy the two horses, hook them up to a larger wagon and carry more produce to market. The horses were raised differently; the food they ate, how they were disciplined, the shelter they had from the weather, the love and affection from their owners, and the weight of their wagons were all different. The farmer and the horses had to develop the means to work together. By pulling together they were able to accomplish the mission of getting more produce to market for Farmer Alvarado (E. Macduff, personal communication, 1965). These horses represent the choices volunteers and staff face. They can pull the organizational wagon to market, reaping many rewards, or pull it into kindling.

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CHAPTER 12

Communicating with Volunteers and Staff

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One of the most important elements of the relationship that is formed between nonprofit organizations and their volunteers is communication. Research suggests that volunteers who feel more informed about the organization are more satisfied in their relationship with it. Organizations cannot underestimate the importance of keeping an open line of communication with their volunteers and staff. This chapter covers important processes of communication, the way that communication strengthens the relationship between a nonprofit and its volunteers and staff, and new trends and channels being used in the field.

Communication Process

Fundamentally, communication is the exchange of information between two or more entities. Nonprofit organizations communicate information to their volunteers and their staff about policies and procedures, current and future initiatives, and organizational goals. At the same time, staff and volunteers are required to send information back to the organization, often as a response to requests for information. Volunteers may keep a time sheet indicating how they have spent their time and submit this information to the organization. Staff may be required to report the status of current projects and initiatives to upper level management. All of these interactions are communications.

The process of communication has been studied for decades, and scholars have created models to represent how the process works (DeFleur, 1966; Schramm, 1954; Shannon, 1948; West & Turner, 2009). Early models of the communication included a sender (the entity that sends information), a message (the information being sent), a receiver (the entity receiving the information), and the effect or consequence of the communication (see Exhibit 12.1).

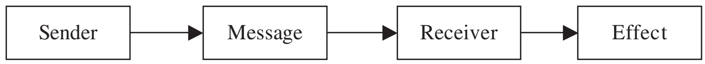

EXHIBIT 12.1 **Communication Model**

Over the years, the models have become more sophisticated, more accurately representing the complex nature of the communication, and the potential pitfalls that communicators face (Markowsky, 2011). For example, the model in Exhibit 12.2 takes into consideration how messages are transmitted, the impact of medium choice, the problem that noise or distraction creates, the decisions of audiences to respond in some way, and the credibility of the sender.

Communication Model Applied to Internal Audiences

Two important internal audiences for nonprofit organizations are staff and volunteers. Staff includes employees at all levels, including middle and upper management of the organization. Volunteers may work internally, holding staff positions, or they may work as contractors who are located outside of the organization structure but

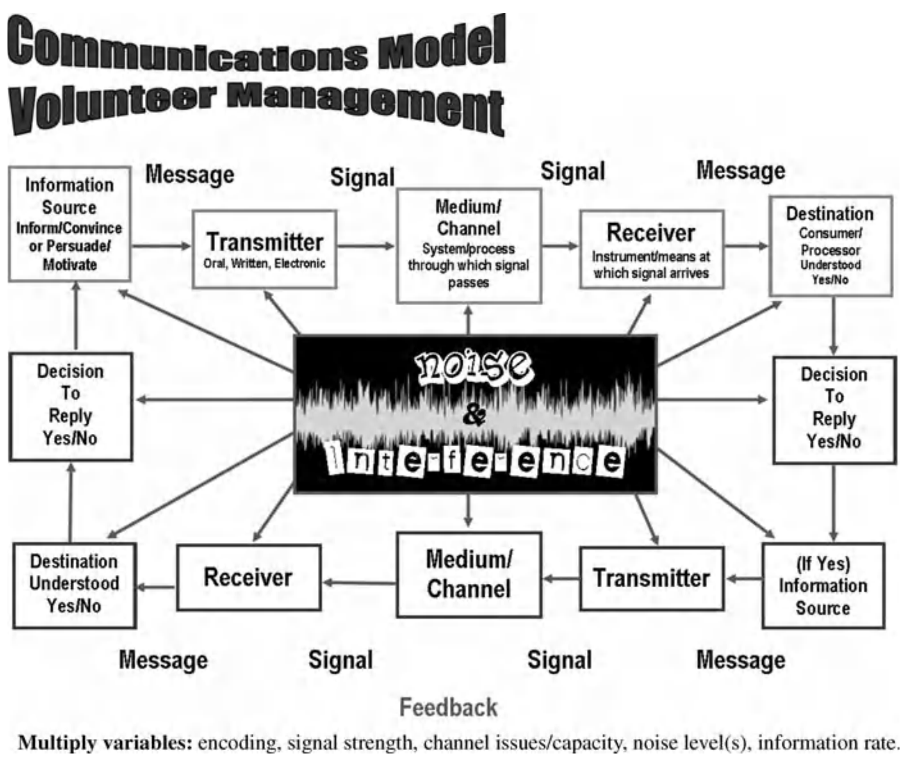

EXHIBIT 12.2 **Communications Model Volunteer Management**

Adapted from DeFleur (1966), Schramm (1954), and Shannon & Weaver (1949)

provide important assistance and support for the organization. A modern definition of volunteerism includes "any activity in which time is given freely to benefit another person, group or cause. Volunteering is part of a cluster of helping behaviors, entailing more commitment than spontaneous assistance but narrower in scope than the care provided to family and friends" (Wilson, 2000, p. 215). Frequently, volunteerism is associated with time donated to nonprofit organizations to further their mission. In the United States, nonprofits receive over 8 billion hours of volunteer time annually (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2009). This time is donated by 63 million citizens who give their time to 1.9 million nonprofit organizations (Internal Revenue Service, 2006). Building and maintaining a relationship with volunteers is critical to the success of nonprofit organizations.

As suggested in the communications model, the flow of conversation is two-way. Information flows from the sender to the receiver, and feedback is provided to the sender. In the same way, the communication within an organization must be two-way to be successful. Information from management in an organization to the staff and volunteers must take into consideration the feedback from the audiences and adjust to their needs. This will improve the credibility of management and lead to more effective communication within the organization.

Theories of Communication

RELATIONSHIP MANAGEMENT A useful theory to consider when communicating with volunteers and staff is relationship management theory (Waters & Bortree, 2010) which comes from the public relations literature. This theory suggests that communication should be considered within the context of the relationship that is developed between an organization and its key audiences (Ki & Hon, 2007a,b), in this case volunteers and employees. Audiences judge the quality of the relationship that they have developed with their supervisor and upper level management along four dimensions: trust, control, commitment, satisfaction. The most important of these dimensions is trust. Employees and volunteers should feel that they can trust their supervisor and upper level management to make decisions that take into consideration the needs of staff and volunteers. They need to feel confident that the communication they receive from management is truthful and transparent, and they need to feel respect for the mission and behaviors of the organization within society. When trust is eroded, it leads to a poor quality relationship and often affects two other elements—commitment and satisfaction. Employees and volunteers that do not trust their organization often do not feel committed to it and do not feel satisfied with their positions. The fourth dimension is control, also called control mutuality. This dimension is the degree to which employees and volunteers feel that they have enough control over their own work and over the direction of the organization. Those who feel that they have less control than they need, due to overbearing supervisors or strict work guidelines, tend to feel less satisfied with their positions.

So how does communication fit into this theory? Communication is the key to the relationship. First, organization can build trust through their communication. When organizations are quick to respond to employee needs, when they listen to employee concerns and respond, and when they ensure that what they say is truthful and transparent, this leads to greater trust among volunteers and staff (Bortree, 2010). In addition, when nonprofit organizations communicate with external audiences in an honest and truthful way, this leads to greater admiration of the organization within society, and it creates more trust among internal audiences.

Second, organizations that show appreciation for their volunteers and staff through their communication, by thanking them for their work, or sharing with the staff the success of individual members, employees and volunteers tend to feel more satisfied and are more committed to the organization (Bortree, 2010).

Third, when a nonprofit organization offers guidance to volunteers and staff, this improves the quality of the relationship (Bortree, 2010). When a staff member or volunteer feels that they clearly understand what is expected of them in their position, they are more satisfied and committed to the organization.

HIERARCHY OF EFFECTS Another important theory for communication is the Hierarchy of Effects (Lavidge & Steiner, 1961). The next section of this chapter will explore the process of creating communication campaigns to raise awareness, change attitudes, and motivate behaviors of internal audiences. One theory that helps guide the planning of objectives for campaigns is the Hierarchy of Effects. This theory suggests that audiences tend to be persuaded through a series of steps. The three steps are: cognitive, affective, and behavioral. First, volunteers and staff must understand and be aware of an issue before they can develop an opinion about it. And, most often, the opinion one forms influences any behaviors around that issue. For example, if the organization is implementing a new policy on the role of volunteers within the organization, both volunteers and staff will not change their behaviors until they are aware of the policy. Once they are aware, they will decide how they feel about it. The organization hopes that they will have a positive opinion of the policy and will subsequently begin to follow the policy (behavior). If the organization finds that many volunteers are not following the policy, they must investigate the reason. Some volunteers may not be aware; others may not agree with the policy.

According to the theory, the easiest step to achieve is the first step—creating awareness. This is particularly true for internal audiences, since organizations often have established channels of communication with these groups. This is not to suggest that creating understanding is easy; rather, creating awareness or understanding is less difficult for an organization than changing individuals' opinions or attitudes. Changing behavior is the most difficult of the three steps. In general, when communicators are setting objectives to create change within the organization, they can be the most aggressive in their planned outcomes of awareness or understanding. They should be more conservative in their projected opinion or attitude change among volunteers and staff, and they should be the most conservative when estimating the change in behavior that will result from communication campaigns.

Communications Campaigns

Some internal issues require sustained communication to inform and persuade staff and volunteers. For example, educating internal audiences about major management changes or persuading staff and volunteers to support a change in mission for the organization would require multiple communications through various channels over a period of time. Coordinated communications efforts with a specific, finite purpose and clearly defined objectives are considered to be communications campaigns (Kendall, 1997). Planning and executing communications campaigns is a multi-step process that can effectively motivate and persuade internal audiences toward an organization's goal (Bobbitt & Sullivan, 2008). Possible outcomes of campaigns with this audience would be improving morale, enhancing productivity, and creating team spirit.

A five-step process typically used to create and implement a communications campaign is ROPES (Hendrix & Hayes, 2010: Kelly, 2001). This stands for *r*esearch, *o*bjectives, *p*rogramming, *e*valuation, and *s*tewardship.

Research

The first step in the process is research, which helps an organization identify the problem and find ways to best communicate to the target audiences of the campaign (Stacks, 2010). The research process begins by analyzing background material that will inform any new data gathering. Through background research, such as informal meetings and discussions with employees and management, reading organizational materials, or reviewing articles and studies on the issue, the organizations can begin to understand the issues as well as the opinions and behaviors of volunteers and staff. Armed with this information, a research team should identify the questions that they still need to answer about three key areas (Hendrix & Hayes, 2010):

- *The organization*

  To develop a successful campaign, a communicator must be thoroughly familiar with the organization that is conducting the communication. This means that before communication is crafted for internal audiences, the author of the communication must understand the structure of the organization, its history, its mission/philosophy/goals, other communication that the organization has disseminated to internal audiences, and the channels of communication that the organization currently has in place to reach internal audiences (meetings, newsletters, e-mail lists, blogs, etc.). All of this should inform the way the communication is created and disseminated to internal audiences.
- *Internal audiences*

  Volunteers and staff have different but overlapping needs. Both need to understand the expectations for their positions, and they wish to be included in communication channels and the decision-making process at the organization. Staff may be more invested in their positions, and they often have additional concerns, including benefits, raises, and job security, that may not affect volunteers. Individuals who volunteer for an organization are more likely to feel that their services are not as highly valued as employees, and they may be left out of decision-making meetings and processes more often than employees. Understanding how volunteers and staff feel about the campaign issue as well as how it affects them is critical to the success of the communication effort.
- *Key issue*

  Understanding the issue of the campaign is also vitally important. Whether the issue is employee morale or major changes within the organization, communicators need to thoroughly understand what the issue is and its implication for the organization. Understanding how it affects other audiences, such as organization member, clients, government officials, community, etc., will also help communicators make informed decisions about the type of information that should be delivered to internal audiences.

The most effective way to gather information about these three areas is through a systematic process of data collection through primary research methods, including interviews, focus groups, surveys, and participant observation. By directly interacting with volunteers and staff to assess their understanding, opinions, and current behavior, communicators will be better educated about the best ways to reach the audience, how to craft messages, and how to deliver information to the audiences.

Objectives

Once communicators have a thorough understanding of the organization, audience, and key issues of the campaign, they should be able to set objectives for the campaign. Setting objectives is one of the most important steps in the process. This clarifies the goals of the campaign and provides a focus for all communication and tactics (Wilcox, 2005).

Objectives of a campaign should be measurable, including the amount of change that is expected from the campaign and the timeline within which the goals will be reached. The objectives of a campaign toward volunteers and staff would indicate the amount of agreement that the organization hopes to get from these groups or the amount of change in behavior, information, or opinion that is expected. For example, if the goal is to increase the amount of productivity within the 40-hour work week, then an objective would indicate how the increase will be measured—through more hours worked, more clients served, more output of services, etc. In another example, if the overall goal of a campaign is to extend the commitment of volunteers for an additional period of time, then the rate of commitment and the period of time would both need to be clearly identified in the objective. The more precise the objective, the more likely it will be met.

Programming

Clear objectives will lead the way to programming, which is the tactical step in the campaign process. The best way to create tactics that effectively deliver a message to an audience is by first developing strategies that will lead to the objectives (Hendrix & Hayes, 2010).

Strategies are ways to channel efforts and resources toward the objectives. For example, let's assume that an organization has undergone significant management changes, and organizational research has uncovered the fact that volunteers and staff fear the change will lead to positions being eliminated. To address this issue the organization may set an objective to reduce the fear among internal audiences that their positions will be eliminated. To reach this objective, communicators would need to consider strategies that allow effective contact with internal audiences to reassure volunteers and staff that the changes will not impact their positions. Potential strategies would include using channels of communication such as face-to-face communication through meetings, social events, and other interpersonal communication to directly deliver a message to volunteers and staff. Another strategy would be to craft messages that, first, acknowledge the concerns of internal audiences and, second, directly communicate that positions are secure.

Once strategy has been set for a campaign, communicators can begin thinking about tactics within the context of the campaign. Tactics are specific tasks that support strategies and allow communicators to deliver messages to their audiences. Tactics fall into a number of categories, including the following:

- *Traditional communication.* Organizations may use digital or non-digital forms of communication to build and maintain their relationship with internal audiences. Traditional communication channels sometimes take a digital form, such as online newsletters and e-mail. In traditional communication, nonprofit organizations control the flow of communication which permits them to deliver well-crafted messages that address the needs and interest of their audience.
  - *Internal publications.* The purpose of internal publications such as newsletters, magazines, bulletin boards, brochures, etc., is to educate volunteers and staff about the organization, its mission and goals, to improve the morale of employees and volunteers by featuring successes of individuals, and to provide useful information that helps the internal audience perform better in their positions. Effectively using this channel to reach audiences will improve the relationship between internal audiences and management, leading to better working environments.
  - *Meetings.* Meetings are another effective way to communicate to audiences. This channel of communication provides two important elements of effective communication. First, it allows for face-to-face communication, which is the most powerful form of communication. Interpersonal communication has the most long-term consequences for communication audiences. Second, meetings allow for two-way dialogue. In order for management to be effective in its communication to staff and volunteers, it must understand the concerns and needs of the audiences. Engaging in two-way dialogue allows management to hear and respond to the concerns raised by volunteers and staff.
  - *Events.* Like meetings, events offer management the opportunity to engage in two-way communication with volunteers and staff. In addition, events are a way to celebrate the successes of employees, volunteers, and the organization. Drawing attention to accomplishments of internal groups builds morale and creates a more positive atmosphere within the organization. Events are a good way of showing reciprocity and saying thank you to groups such as volunteers who are not economically rewarded for their work. Planning an event is time-consuming, resource-heavy activity. A few things to consider when planning an event are: 1) make sure you have enough staff to both plan and staff the event, 2) planning an event requires a high level of attention to detail, so be sure to consider all aspects of the event from invitations and speakers to food, seating, and guest safety, and 3) evaluate your events immediately. Make sure you count the number of attendees, talk to guests about

their experience, and make notes on any lessons learned during the event. You can use these lessons in future event planning.

- *Other channels.* There are many channels of communication that nonprofit organizations can use to communicate to their volunteers and staff, including phone trees, mail, and e-mail. One particularly effective communication channel is e-mail listservs which provide organizations with a means to reach many volunteers and staff with a single e-mail. However, listservs are only effective when they are accurate, so nonprofits should keep these lists up to date.

- *New media.* A more recent development in nonprofit communication is the use of new media channels to communicate with volunteers and staff. Organizations are beginning to use Web sites, discussion forums, and social media to deliver important information to these audiences (Waters & Bortree, 2010).
  - *Internet.* Organization Web sites are an important source of information for volunteers and staff. The most effective sites are well organized, allowing audiences to easily find information. Topics should be presented in a thorough manner, and Web sites should include applications that allow for two-way communication such as discussion forum, comment sections, search functions, and feedback sections.
  - *Blogs.* Organization Web sites have begun to incorporate blogs. Short for web log, blogs provide a format in which individuals can easily post information to a site. The posts may include video, photos, and links. Blogs can be an effective way for management to regularly communicate with internal audiences about successes of the company, new direction and changes, and important issues that impact the organization. Open and transparent communication by management through this medium could build a strong bond with volunteers and staff.
  - *Facebook.* The most popular form of social networking is through the Facebook Web site. This site connects over 500 million people around the world. Nonprofits are beginning to establish profiles on this site that allow their employees and volunteers to connect to them and receive regular communication about the organization. This is also a good platform for volunteers and employees to network with one another and build closer relationships outside of the context of the organization.
  - *Twitter.* Another popular site for social networking is Twitter, which is a form of microblogging (blogging in 140 characters). Microblogging, like blogging, allows the post author to share thoughts in brief form, but unlike other forms of blogging, pictures and videos cannot be uploaded to a Twitter post. However, most posts include a hyperlink that may lead to photos, Web sites, videos, or other media on the Internet. Twitter feeds work like RSS feeds, allowing users to read the posts of others. Organizations may set up profiles on Twitter and allow their volunteers and staff to connect to them. This too, is a good way to communicate with your audience. It also is a means for organizations to see what volunteers and staff are saying about them in this public forum.
  - *YouTube and video communication.* Video is one of the most powerful forms of communication. A popular Web site for video sharing is YouTube, which claims that more than 2 billion videos are viewed on its site every day. Nonprofit organizations may set up profile pages on this site and share videos

that they create. While some internal communication may not be appropriate for a public forum such as YouTube, it can be a medium for promoting the benefits of working for the organization and sharing the successes of the organization.

Evaluation

The fourth step in the campaign-planning process is evaluation. This step allows the organization to gauge its success. Evaluation happens at many points in the process, not just at the end (Bobbitt & Sullivan, 2008). For example, let us assume that an organization is conducting a campaign to build the volunteer base by encouraging current volunteers to invite friends and family to volunteer as well. In this scenario, a campaign manager would want to assess the success of the campaign throughout and not wait until the end. If the campaign were scheduled to run for a six-month period, then the manager would want to assess its success every month by counting the number of new volunteers to the organization. Keeping an eye on trends and watching the trajectory of the campaign is critical throughout the life of the campaign. If the response to the campaign is poor, then more research may be needed to identify the problem. Is the message of the campaign clear? Are the right channels being used to communicate? Is there enough of an incentive to motivate volunteers to participate?

At the end of a campaign, an organization needs to carefully assess its success by first determining whether it reached the objectives of the campaign. This is the most important type of measurement. It is difficult to argue the success of a campaign that did not meet its objectives. However, other types of assessment should be done to better understand how the audiences understood and responded to the campaign message. Types of assessments to consider are level of awareness about the campaign and the key issues of the campaign, changes in attitudes, beliefs, opinions about the campaign issue or the organization, and any short-term behavioral changes related to the campaign. These can be assessed in a number of ways, including through anecdotal feedback, direct audience feedback, financial indicators, and a comparison of pre- and post-campaign knowledge, attitude or behavior.

Stewardship

After the campaign has officially ended, the organization needs to consider ongoing communication with audiences, including volunteers and staff (Waters & Bortree, 2010). Campaigns may be conducted to attract more volunteers or they may be used to educate current volunteers and staff of new policies. Either way, after a campaign has ended, the organization should continue to consider the needs of these groups within the organization. Stewardship is a type of relationship building, and it consists of four dimensions: reciprocity, responsibility, reporting, and relationship nurturing (Kelly, 2001).

- *Reciprocity.* To maintain a relationship with volunteers and staff, a nonprofit organization needs to acknowledge the contributions made by these groups. This could be done in the form of volunteer dinners, thank-you cards, awards, or gifts, to name a few.

- *Responsibility.* Volunteers and staff are more responsive to organizations that act responsibly toward them and toward society. Organizations that keep their word and maintain high ethical standards are behaving responsibly.
- *Reporting.* Keeping volunteers and staff abreast of important information will build the relationship that organizations maintain with these audiences. Disclosing financial information and communicating transparently are ways for a nonprofit to report to their internal audiences.
- *Relationship nurturing.* Nurturing the relationship through communication is critical to the success of the volunteer-organization relationship and the staff-organization relationship. Keeping these audiences up to date on interesting information about the organization, connecting with them through social media and new media, and providing regular meaningful interactions creates a positive environment for relationship development.

Potential Pitfalls of Internal Communication

Communication is a powerful tool to cultivate long-term meaningful relationships with volunteers and staff that can create satisfaction and long-term commitment to the organization. However there are many pitfalls that organizations should avoid when creating communications and conducting campaigns.

Lack of Audience Identification

Lack of communication is detrimental to organizations and can allow misunderstandings and rumors to flourish. Another faulty strategy is lack of targeted approach to communication. Unfortunately, many organizations that do not have sophisticated communication strategies tend to blast out communication to everyone without considering the audience. Communication that is appropriate and will resonate with volunteers may not be useful, and in some cases could create misunderstandings and frustration for staff. The most effective communication is crafted in the context of a clear understanding of the audience—their needs, their identity, their associations, their beliefs, etc.—and it delivers that communication through established channels that the audiences trust and rely upon.

Overreaching Expectations

Another potential pitfall of communication is expecting that communication alone is adequate to motivate behavior. While communication is powerful and sometimes it does lead to behavior, simply telling an audience what you want them to do does not ensure that they will act. When creating a communications plan, consider whether there are motivators in place that will lead volunteers and staff to take action.

Exclusionary Behaviors and Communication Strategies

Recent research in internal communication suggests that diverse audiences, including women and minorities, tend to feel less included in the communication from organizations (Mor-Barak & Cherin, 1998). Studies of this phenomenon in nonprofit communications have confirmed the same among diverse groups of volunteers including women, minorities, and youth (Mor-Barak, 2000, 2005). Lack of inclusion within the organization creates dissatisfaction among groups and could lead to early termination of volunteer and staff involvement. Organizations can avoid this issue through purposeful communication in the following areas.

- *Information networks*. Diverse audiences have raised concerns that they are not included in information networks. This means that they do not receive important information about the organization and their positions. Organizations can address this issue by ensuring that they engage in the following behaviors for diverse audiences 1) openly share work-related information at the work group level, 2) have management directly engage with diverse audiences through face-to-face communication, 3) monitor social activities within the organization to be sure all groups are being invited and included.
- *Participation*. In addition, diverse audiences feel that they are less likely to be invited to participate in events and meetings related to the organization. They also feel concerned that they are less likely to be included in social gatherings. To address this, management should do the following: 1) be sure that diverse audiences are invited to meetings that relate to their departments and/or positions, 2) invite diverse audiences to actively participate in giving feedback to management during periods of evaluation, and 3) invite diverse audiences to meetings with higher-level management.
- *Decision making*. Finally, members of diverse groups have expressed that they feel left out of the decision-making process within their organizations. A few ways to ensure that this does not happen is 1) encourage the volunteer coordinator to give diverse groups more voice in deciding which tasks that will be assigned to them; 2) invite members of diverse groups to sit on committees that guide the direction of the organization; 3) encourage managers to solicit the opinions of members of diverse groups on important matters; and 4) be sure that the voices of diverse groups are heard in meeting.

Conclusion

Communication can be a powerful tool for management of volunteers and staff. One important consideration when planning strategies and campaigns is the context of communication. For volunteers and staff, communication happens within the context of relationships with management and with other members of the organization. When communication is frequent, clear, meaningful, and transparent, it can be an important ingredient in a positive relationship between volunteers, staff, and management.

This chapter explored the process for sustained communication campaigns for volunteer and staff audiences. It suggested that research, strategy, and planning are key elements of a successful campaign. In addition, the chapter introduced a number of tactics that could be used to reach these audiences.

Informing, persuading, and motivating volunteers and staff toward organizational goals can be challenging; however, change is more easily achieved when an organization maintains a positive relationship with these audiences through effective communication.

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CHAPTER 13

Volunteer Performance Management

The Impact Wheel

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The Volunteer Resource Manager (VRM) works with volunteers within an organization to create value for the organization *and* for the volunteer. Managing volunteers often means inspiring their continued contributions and focusing their efforts for effective performance. VRMs proficient in the practice of managing the performance of volunteers begin from the organization's vision (what the organization will *be*) as expressed by its leaders. The VRM then considers the mission (what the organization will *do*) within the local community and the wider world. This strategic perspective comes to life as the VRM manages the volunteers who are engaged in the front-line work of the organization. The Impact Wheel provides tools and techniques for the VRM to manage change in a dynamic organization. Using this framework, individual performance at every level of the organization is managed and recognized, and continuous improvement becomes an everyday occurrence.

VRMs seek to engage and manage volunteers to meet the operational goals and tactical objectives of the organization. While the volunteer resource management systems (VRMSs) they use vary, each system provides a structure to organize this work. Today's VRMs also need a performance management framework that can be aligned with this structure and provides tools and techniques to balance the people and task-based aspects of leading performance management. This balance is especially important in an environment where the volunteer's motivation to contribute is derived from the impact of the organization's work rather than from financial rewards.

The Impact Wheel presented in this chapter is a performance management model that has been developed in evidence-based research (Cross, 2010) and adapted for volunteer management. A business management expert, who once managed a multinational corporation and now leads an entrepreneurial venture, suggested the Impact Wheel is equally useful in management of individuals, teams, and organizations.

He shared:

> *There are so many layers to this; it's applicable to so many aspects of what you do. It's applicable to strategizing a product requirement or a service requirement. It's applicable to establishing skill sets on your team. It's applicable to an overall strategic view of your business, of where you need to go. You can take it down to tactical kinds of behaviors as well. It's pretty impressive.*

As this business expert suggests, the Impact Wheel is useful for application by VRMs in managing performance of volunteers within their organizations. The change/transition dynamic of the Impact Wheel offers a virtuous cycle of growth and development to the VRM and the staff and volunteers the VRM supports.

Moving into the chapter, the first section provides a brief overview of performance management, volunteer resources performance management, and competency-based volunteer resources performance management. Next is a short presentation on the origin of the Impact Wheel and how it is structured. The bulk of the chapter provides the VRM with the application of the Impact Wheel in managing performance. Suggested tools and techniques are listed to bridge the theory and practices of each area of the Impact Wheel. The chapter concludes with five summary checklists of the actions associated with managing performance using the Impact Wheel.

Linking Performance Management, Volunteer Resources, and Competency

Performance management is an integrative system of chosen products and practices used to ensure strategic thinking and tactical execution from a human capital perspective. The coordinated development, implementation and evaluation of the selected products and practices (tools and techniques), when applied correctly, establishes and sustains vision-goal-objective accomplishment in a relevant-effective-efficient manner involving each person for whom managing performance is important.

Performance management is designed for individuals (at the personal level) and is complementary to productivity management designed for groups, departments, and organizations (the people levels). VRMs applying performance management are managing performance of individual volunteers by setting performance expectations, monitoring progress, measuring outcomes, appraising consequences, correcting actions and rewarding accomplishments. Volunteer resources performance management is one of the essential elements of the total volunteer resources management system.

When setting performance expectations using a competency-based approach, the VRM lists the critical and important action-based theory and task competency statements for the job. By adding a competency self-assessment function and competence validation protocol, the volunteer resources performance management system evolves into a competency-based volunteer resources performance management system (see Chapter 8 in this *Handbook* for further elaboration). Additional information about competency is provided later in this chapter.

Managing Performance Tools and Techniques

Within every volunteer resources performance management system are tools and techniques to manage individual performance of volunteers, as well as their group-team involvement and ultimately their contribution within the organization. Understanding the distinction between tools and techniques will show the connection between these two parts of the application of the Impact Wheel.

Managing Performance Tools

Tools are instruments and job aids used by VRMs to manage performance. They vary in ease of use and the level of data collected or presented. Examples of instruments are person-ability/personality and multirater (360°) assessments. Examples of job aids are pocket-size laminated step-by-step cards and operation manuals. Think of tools as something given to a volunteer to use as a hands-on guide.

Managing Performance Techniques

Techniques are the specific practices used by the VRM to manage performance. Example practices include the recruitment approach or the exit interview approach. Think of techniques as the processes volunteers experience from their time of entry to exit (usually words ending in 'ing' [verbs] indicate practices with their ensuing processes).

Impact Wheel Overview

The Impact Wheel (Exhibit 13.1) is the product of PhD research. The study brought together three sources of expert input to create a competency model for management and leadership at the level of the Master of Business Administration degree, which is often the educational foundation for enterprise management. Competency models generally provide a picture of knowledge, skills, and abilities required for competent performance in a role, but the Impact Wheel was also structured within a complete change/transition management process to enhance its application. A content analysis of leading MBA curricula yielded competencies for leadership and management at the level of the MBA degree. These competencies for leading and managing an enterprise were then placed in a comprehensive change/transition management model. This model was developed balancing two very different, but effective, current approaches: a task-oriented, functional approach, and a people-oriented, relational approach.

The original model for the Impact Wheel was then subjected to expert evaluation and improvement. A formative committee of successful enterprise leaders and managers suggested improvements, added insights, and gave application examples

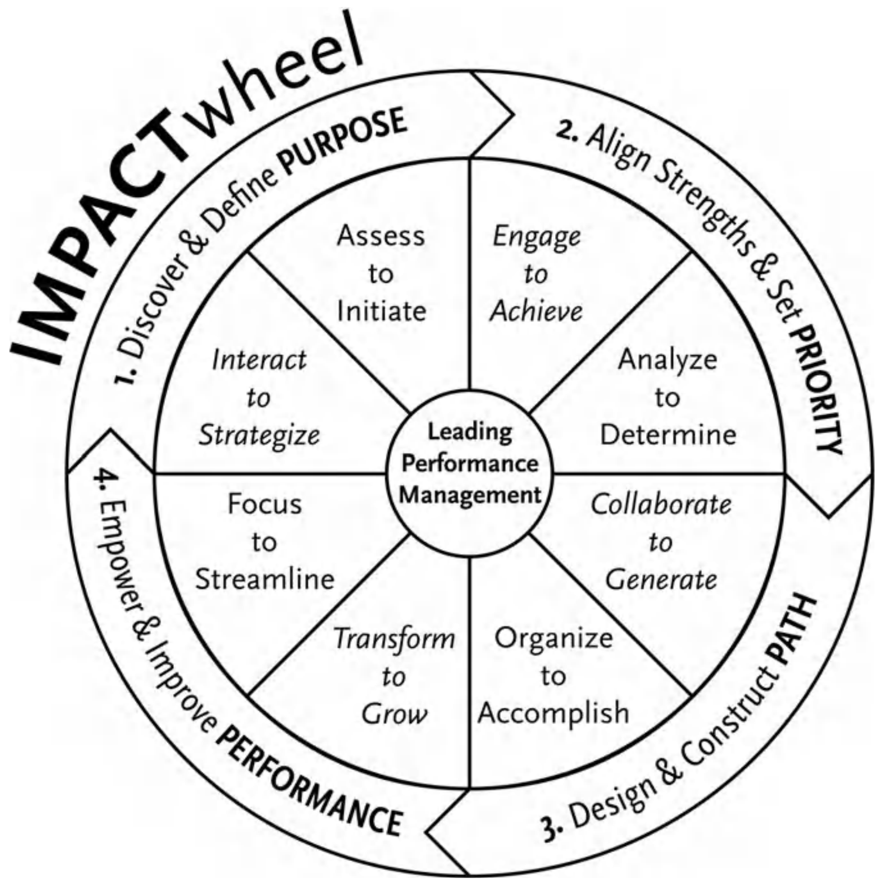

EXHIBIT 13.1 Impact Wheel
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to show the usefulness of the model from their work experience. A summative committee of top educational theory experts reviewed the model according to their individual expertise in MBA competencies, Human Performance Technology, and Appreciative Inquiry. Both the leadership and management experts and the educational theory experts confirmed significant potential for the usefulness of the Impact Wheel.

Introducing the Impact Wheel for Volunteer Resources Performance Management

VRMs are experts who value the individuals under their management responsibility, and who can use the Impact Wheel for managing volunteers in making effective transitions. In this way, VRMs can expand their success in leading performance management. VRMs exhibit leadership as they inspire their volunteers to engage in the efforts required for transitions that lead to improved performance. In a study of current best practices, Fulmer and Bleak (2008) found that for the frequent change addressed by organizations, lean competency models and values are the foundation of strategic leadership development. The Impact Wheel is a lean, competency model that draws on values in its change management process. VRMs who are flexible, collaborative, lifelong learners can extend the strategic reach of the organization as they develop their competence through using the Impact Wheel to manage the performance of their volunteers. Several experts have recommended the Impact Wheel as a natural performance management process:

It's a dynamic process. It makes perfect sense. I like the fact that you're not going by an old school model . . . linear, very rigid. Business today is not that way. You may have to go back and forth some and you may have to interact, you have a strategy, you start to assess, to initiate, but you learn things as you go, you should learn things as you go, so you may have to go back to interact to strategize again. That's the part I really like about this. It more reflects my true experience.

The Impact Wheel becomes a personal framework for structuring management practices in a change/transition process that is easy to remember and directly apply. It is also designed to grow in depth and complexity as the VRM grows in leading and managing performance, even including the complexity of all the competence gained by earning and applying the MBA, or even a Master of Volunteer Resources Management degree.

Achieving positive impact through competent volunteer management is a continuous, refining process. Use the Impact Wheel as a process for enhancing your performance management by working through the four steps of the Wheel. Each step includes a functional task side and a relational people side, which are connected like the two sides of a coin. Just as you might look at the *heads* side of a coin, and then turn the coin over to see the *tails* side, each step involves both relational and functional practices. You may already have tools or instruments developed for specific parts of this process, which you can organize using the Impact Wheel.

The Impact Wheel includes questions to ask yourself as you balance situations and interactions in your management process, and may also lead you to develop new tools. From the individual level to the group/team level, and the organizational level, specific tools and techniques address increasing complexity in performance management. Begin with the direction and objectives of your organization to inform your activities at your level of responsibility. Work with others who are accountable at each successive level to define responsibilities and outcomes. Refining your interactions and functions at each level will expand your competence in managing performance to support performance improvement of volunteers and desired organizational productivity results.

Structure of the Impact Wheel

The three layers within the Impact Wheel (see Exhibit 13.1) are outlined here. The first layer is the four steps of the change/transition management process. The second layer focuses on the people and the tasks involved in each step: the two sides of a coin to be addressed in taking each step. The third layer of the Impact Wheel is presented as application suggestions based on three levels of competencies used in each side of each step. These three layers are nested, with each layer within the previous layer, like the layers of a Russian doll; that is, a doll within a doll. Because of the intricacy of this layer of competencies, this chapter introduces useful tools and techniques based on the competencies placed within the first two layers of the Impact Wheel. Checklists for each layer are provided at the end of the chapter as summaries of the descriptions and explanations to follow.

The four steps are:

1. Discover and Define Purpose
2. Align Strengths and Set Priority
3. Design and Construct Path
4. Empower and Improve Performance

The two sides in these steps are:

1. Discover and Define Purpose
   - 1.1 Interact to Strategize
   - 1.2 Assess to Initiate
2. Align Strengths and Set Priority
   - 2.1 Engage to Achieve
   - 2.2 Analyze to Determine
3. Design and Construct Path
   - 3.1 Collaborate to Generate
   - 3.2 Organize to Accomplish
4. Empower and Improve Performance
   - 4.1 Transform to Grow
   - 4.2 Focus to Streamline

Using the Impact Wheel

Understanding the structure of the Impact Wheel will make it easy to use. In order to make each step easier to apply, a key question is posed to help you focus your actions. Sometimes, you may find answering the four questions for the four steps will give you a quick way to see where you are in managing performance. At other times, you may want to sit down and plan for two sides to each step: the people side and the task side. As these four questions are answered, you will discover effective techniques and develop useful tools to strengthen performance.

Where to start in using the Impact Wheel:

a. Start at the beginning with Step 1, and move clockwise: if you are beginning a new initiative, if you are new to the profession or if you simply appreciate a step-by-step process.

   Or

b. Consider where you are now in managing volunteers and move clockwise through the remaining steps of the wheel. Depending on your current competence, you may be able to improve your management by noting and covering all elements of the wheel.

A working example threaded through the presentation of the first layer of the Impact Wheel is used to illustrate the application of the terms and concepts. The presentation is cursory, meant only to highlight actions required.

The example involves a VRM working with seven established volunteers involved in a blended social media and face-to-face campaign to attract new volunteers to the organization.

Four Steps of the Impact Wheel with Four Key Questions

Clear and simple questions are used to focus your work using the Impact Wheel. As you begin each step, pose the key question and find your answer as you complete that step. The four key questions are aligned with the four steps in Exhibit 13.2. Following the table and the Impact Wheel with four questions (Exhibit 13.3), each step is explained more completely.

STEP 1: DISCOVER AND DEFINE PURPOSE → WHAT WILL WE DO? Step One in the Impact Wheel leads you to Discover and Define Purpose. Asking "*What will we do?*" begins the discovery to define a clear statement of the strategic purpose you want to achieve. Significant impact comes from being at the leading edge of designing and delivering services and products to meet your clients' changing needs and to meet the objectives of your organization. Take action to:

- *Discover* significant impact desired to meet client needs and organizational objectives.
- *Interact* with responsible stakeholders.
- *Strategize* with innovative ideas for future success.
- *Define* your purpose for impact and realizing the future vision.
- *Assess* current performance and learning needed for making this change.
- *Initiate* learning and innovation to achieve the desired impact and realize the future vision.

EXHIBIT 13.2 **Four Key Questions for the Four Steps of the Impact Wheel**

Four Key Questions for the Four Steps	Four Steps of the Impact Wheel
What will we do?	Discover and Define **Purpose**
Who will meet needs?	Align Strengths and Set **Priority**
How will we work?	Design and Construct **Path**
Why will we grow?	Empower and Improve **Performance**

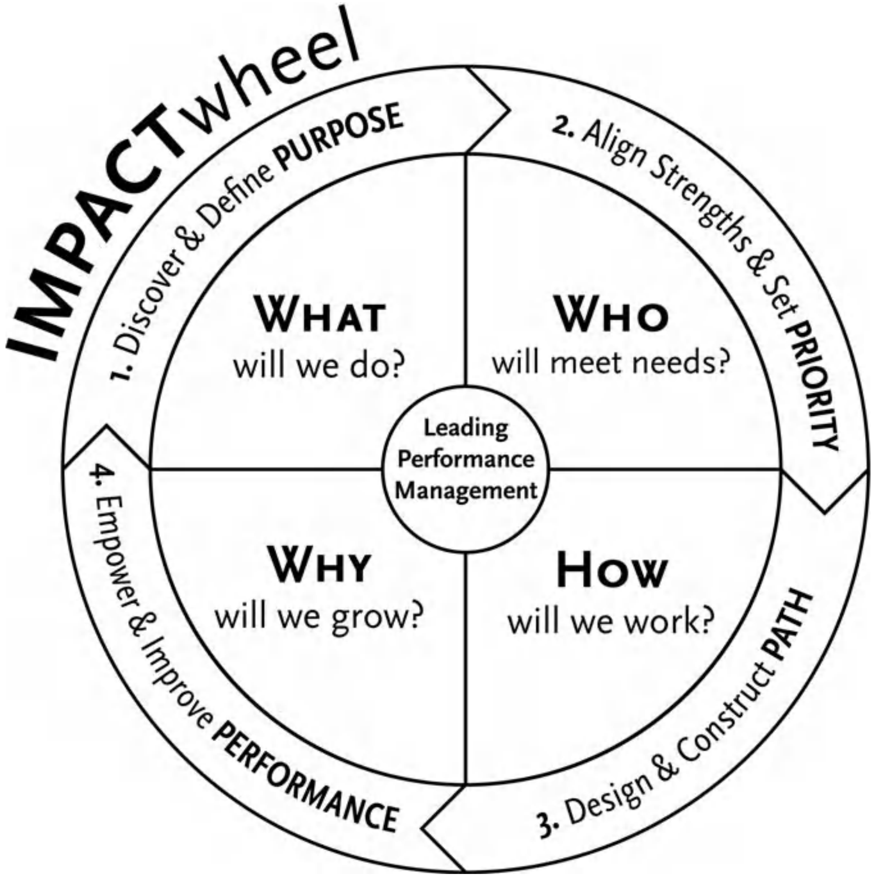

EXHIBIT 13.3 Impact Wheel 4 Questions
Source: © 2010 Julie Anne Cross, PhD. Used with permission.

Step 1	Discover and Define Purpose: What will we do?	Example
Discover	Significant impact desired to meet client needs and organizational objectives	Significant impact desired to meet organizational objectives for recruitment needs
Interact	With responsible stakeholders	With existing managers, senior executives, and possibly the board on volunteer recruitment needs for the next two years
Strategize	With innovative ideas for future success	With established volunteers ways to recruit and retain new volunteers using social media and face-to-face campaigns
Define	Your purpose for impact and realizing the future vision	What new volunteers are needed with current operational parameters and fulfilling the mission and vision of the organization

Assess	Current performance and learning needed for making this change	Current access to social media and face-to-face recruiting campaigns
Initiate	Learning and innovation to achieve the desired impact and realize the future vision.	Learning to find what social media and face-to-face campaigns will be most effective in recruiting new volunteers

STEP 2: ALIGN STRENGTHS AND SET PRIORITY → WHO WILL MEET NEEDS? Step 2 in the Impact Wheel leads you to Align Strengths and Set Priority. Asking "*Who will meet needs?*" takes the purpose you have defined to the people and the environment of your organization and group or team. Significant impact comes through aligning your strengths and resources to set top priority on achieving your purpose. You may already have the strengths and resources you need to realize your purpose. You may need to find new resources or develop the strengths of your volunteers. Your VRMS can be very useful in making this assessment of your volunteers. Take action to:

- *Align* strengths of your organization, your group/team, and yourself to set the priority on leading this initiative.
- *Engage* individual, group/team, and organizational strengths, diversity and values.
- *Achieve* relational influence through clear communication of the important strategy you have defined Step 1, and now are setting in motion with your volunteers.
- *Set* priority within the culture and environment of your organization, while recognizing and drawing on the value created by the work of each volunteer.
- *Analyze* data available to you from past performance in the area where you will initiate change, so that you look both above and below your level of responsibility to gain perspective and recognize performance gaps.
- *Determine* what value will be created by the work to be accomplished, and what new resources will be required. Be sure to communicate who will have access to those resources and watch for cues to signal their engagement with you in the change effort.

Step 2	Align Strengths and Set Priority: Who will meet needs?	Example
Align strengths	Of your organization, your group/team, and yourself to set the priority on leading this initiative	Talk with current volunteers about the benefits they have received, the value the organization offers to their community, and what the VRM and volunteers can do to attract new volunteers
Engage	Individual, group/team, and organizational strengths, diversity and values	Get everyone talking about adding to the volunteers

(*continued*)

Step 2	Align Strengths and Set Priority: Who will meet needs?	Example
Achieve	Relational influence through clear communication of the important strategy you have defined in the Purpose Step, and now are setting in motion with your volunteers	With volunteers and staff in finding the best ways to effectively present opportunity to potential new volunteers
Set priority	Your purpose for impact and realizing the future vision	Ask current volunteers to participate in recruiting
Analyze	Data available to you from past performance in the area where you will initiate change, so that you look both above and below your level of responsibility to gain perspective and recognize performance gaps	Who will most effectively participate in social media or face-to-face recruitment efforts
Determine	What value will be created by the work to be accomplished, what new resources will be required. Be sure to communicate who will have access to those resources and watch for cues to signal their engagement with you in the change effort	Learning to find what social media and face-to-face campaigns will be most effective in recruiting new volunteers

STEP 3: DESIGN AND CONSTRUCT PATH → HOW WILL WE WORK? Step 3 in the Impact Wheel takes your purpose, and engages your priority to bring together the team or group who will work to design and construct the path. Asking "*How will we work?*" takes the purpose you have defined, engages the strengths and resources of the people and the environment of your organization or group/team, and begins a collaborative effort to make the change become reality. Significant impact is gained from creative action plans, including chosen performance-based benchmarks. The level of the collaboration and the length of the development of benchmarks and plans will be greater according to the reach and complexity of the change you are making. Whether a smaller or greater change, resources will be used, and proper organization includes accountability for maximum benefits from those resources. Take action to:

- *Design* the path for change to achieve your purpose, using your prioritized strengths and resources.
- *Collaborate* with individuals, groups, and teams using formal authority or relational influence at every level available to you.
- *Generate* mutual trust and candor through open communication and appropriate incentives, so that together you will create realistic action plans, processes and structures.
- *Construct* the path effectively, integrating creative collaboration and initiating organized execution.
- *Organize* intellectual and financial resources, and integrate technology where it is useful for expanding benefits of the change.

- *Accomplish* the change you are targeting by walking the path of the action plans to reach your benchmarks.

Step 3	Design and Construct Path: How will we work?	Example
Design	The path for change to achieve your purpose, using your prioritized strengths and resources	The social media and face-to-face volunteer recruitment campaign plan
Collaborate	With individuals, groups, and teams using formal authority or relational influence at every level available to you	With volunteers and staff in designing the plan
Generate	Mutual trust and candor through open communication and appropriate incentives, so that together you will create realistic action plans, processes and structures	A recruitment campaign with specific action planning
Construct	The path effectively integrating creative collaboration and initiating organized execution	Benchmarks along the path to completing the initial campaign efforts
Organize	Intellectual and financial resources, and integrate technology where it is useful for expanding benefits of the change	Financial and technology resources needed for the campaign
Accomplish	The change you are targeting by walking the path of the action plans to reach your benchmarks	Volunteer recruitment through enacting plans and reaching benchmarks

STEP 4: EMPOWER AND IMPROVE PERFORMANCE → WHY WILL WE GROW? Step 4 in the Impact Wheel begins when you have made your initial change. You began with a clear purpose, brought together the individual strengths and resources required to make the change a real priority, and collaborated with your staff and volunteers to walk through the first experience of the change. Now is a critical moment, for the change must become part of the work that continues to be done. Real growth must take place, as everyone makes this change a part of the fabric of the organization. Because you have managed the change process, you have empowered people to improve their performance and make this change. You can empower and improve performance as you ask, "*Why will we grow?*" Significant impact in this step begins with celebrating the success of your first performance together! Expanding results will come from addressing issues, integrating solutions, and evaluating opportunities to streamline performance toward the essential purpose of best results gained from value created by your transformed performance. Take action to:

- *Empower* performance by celebrating and managing the effects of change in a way that will establish these best results in your organization.
- *Transform* performance through growth at every level, effectively managing people to identify and expand critical success factors.

- *Grow* in excellent performance by integrating change with support and respect for all contributors.
- *Improve* performance by evaluating data, benchmarks, and feedback to address critical issues.
- *Focus* evaluation on effectiveness, issues, and opportunities for improvement.
- *Streamline* performance from critical decisions that are strengthened by systems thinking and performance improvement processes.

Step 4	**Empower and Improve Performance: Why will we grow?**	**Example**
Empower	Performance by celebrating and managing the effects of change in a way that will establish these best results in your organization	New volunteers to get involved by celebrating with current volunteers in the successful campaign
Transform	Performance through growth at every level, effectively managing people to identify and expand critical success factors	Volunteers to integrate the new volunteers into the organization's work and to continue to attract more volunteers
Grow	In excellent performance by integrating change with support and respect for all contributors	With the expanding influence of new volunteers
Improve	Performance by evaluating data, benchmarks, and feedback to address critical issues	Performance in recruiting by evaluating action plans and benchmark measures with feedback from volunteers
Focus	Evaluation on effectiveness, issues, and opportunities for improvement	Evaluation on issues to address and opportunities to improve
Streamline	Performance from critical decisions that are strengthened by systems thinking and performance improvement processes	The volunteer recruitment process for the organization

Two Sides to the Coin at Each Step

Within the four steps of the Impact Wheel are two important parts to formulating each step: a relational or people-oriented side; and a functional or task-oriented side. Research has shown how management involves this essential paradox: dealing with the people and completing the tasks involved are very different sets of competencies, which require very different behaviors and skills (Cross, 2010). As a VRM, you will also engage people in accomplishing tasks without the extrinsic motivation of a paycheck. This makes your management of the people involved even more important, because they need a different kind of motivation to continue to volunteer their time and talents.

Working with people, on the relational side of this coin, is making a personal connection that is by nature more intuitive, emotional and ambiguous. As an example, the trust a manager motivates is very important, but very difficult to define or measure. Trust relies on instinct, emotion, understanding, and good communication;

none of these is easily quantified or measured. Yet any good relationship involves some level of trust. Volunteers in your organization need to have a personal connection with someone there. This person is usually another manager or volunteer. In each step of the Impact Wheel, a relational aspect, the people side of the coin, is addressed first.

On the other side of this coin are tasks, which are usually easier to define and measure than the relational side. Tasks are assigned and often are evaluated, including a timeframe for completion. Tasks may be as simple as counting an inventory of baseball bats, or as complex as drawing blood. Competence in the performance of different tasks requires different skills and knowledge specific to the task at hand. A volunteer resources competency performance management system facilitates selection of a volunteer who has the required competence for the assignment.

In this way, the people side and the task side of managing performance is brought together in the Impact Wheel. The people-oriented, relational side is the first side of each step, and is shown in *italic lettering*; the task-oriented, functional side is the second side of each step, and is shown in roman type (see Exhibit 13.1). Often the challenge of performance management is balancing these two sides of the coin: keeping people happy and engaged while meeting objectives within limited financial and time resources. One expert made this connection:

> *The disconnect that we assume in actuality doesn't exist between the emotional and pragmatic. The need for relationships to effectively stimulate processes and goals really go together. It seems to be a paradox that the more time I spend in relationships, the less effective I'll be in achieving goals, but that's not true. It's both.*

In another walk through the four steps of the Impact Wheel, you include the people side and the task side, and expand performance management to effectively include both. In order to assist you in understanding and making your own practical application, a list of suggested tools and techniques useful in that section are included. These tools and techniques coordinate the activities of the individual with the group/team, and within the organization. In general, you will find that the individual level techniques suggest activities for you apply personally, or to use in conjunction with the individual volunteer, or other manager. The group/team level techniques suggest activities you use in working with the group or team under your direct management. The organizational level techniques suggest activities, which may be completed by an organizational leader or other managers, rather than by you. However, these activities will guide you in working effectively within the organization as a whole. The suggested tools and techniques illustrate what's possible and are not exhaustive. In addition, descriptions and explanations of how to use them are left for personal follow-up.

STEP 1: DISCOVER AND DEFINE PURPOSE

People Side: Interacting to Strategize *What new opportunities can we find to benefit our clients?*

Begin on the people side of *Step 1: Discover and Define Purpose.* What opportunities will you discover with your group/team to enhance and expand the contributions you make? In this relational dimension, you want to brainstorm together, discovering innovative ideas and formulating a significant strategy to define your purpose in expanding benefits to those your organization serves.

As one manager explained, "You get the management leaders there and help them create a sense of purpose and direction." Good decisions are enhanced when ambiguity is reduced. Too often, decisions are made with a sense of urgency, instead of with a sense of clarity and excitement. A focused brainstorming session can bring many innovative ideas together and engage everyone involved in growth and improvement.

Suggested Tools for **Interacting to Strategize:**

- Organization's vision and mission statements
- Organization values statement
- Long-term and short-term goals assigned by the organization
- Needs assessment report
- Volunteer form: *What Do You Want from Your Involvement?*

Suggested Techniques for **Interacting to Strategize:**

Individual Level:

Ask targeted questions:
- Get a clear picture of the outcomes for the organization and group/team by asking group/team members and managers about anything unclear to you.
- Consider what must be done and who will be involved in working with you.
- Ask for support where needed.

Discuss important decisions:
- Talk about goals and benchmarks with involved volunteers.
- Listen to their input, so strengths and needs can be discovered.
- Recognize where things may change as the process continues.

Discover individual purpose:
- Establish your purpose within the organization and group of volunteers so you can coordinate your efforts.
- Take responsibility for your contributions.
- Write down what you intend to do, including your anticipated process for reaching your goals.

Group/Team Level:

Create synergy among members:
- Meet with volunteers to present the chosen strategy and the desired outcomes.
- Answer questions and listen to the views of all members.
- Ask for commitment from individuals for their contribution to the group/team process.

Discuss formal structure, informal networks and culture:
- Brainstorm about what it will take to reach the desired outcomes and what goals will be needed for the group/team members.

- Consider different ways of structuring the process, based on volunteers' suggestions and what has worked well in the past.
- Choose a group/team process for reaching the goals set by the group/team.

Discover group/team purpose:

- Write down the group/team purpose with goals set to reach the organization's purpose.
- Relate evaluation benchmarks to the process and goals.
- Ask for commitment from members for individual contributions to the purpose and to the change process.

Organizational Level:

Delineate the organization's strategy:

- Begin by reviewing your values, vision, and mission statements so you get the big picture.
- Relate current performance with these statements, to choose the most important opportunities for growth and improvement.
- Begin from the current state and choose your performance growth strategy.

Develop a vision for the future:

- Interact with key stakeholders to build commitment to the strategy.
- Draw from the interaction a clear picture of the desired performance outcomes.
- Build in measures for evaluation to keep everyone on track and help you to manage the process.

Set organizational purpose:

- Define your purpose in current performance management.
- Be sure to express the inspiration from your values, vision and mission, so volunteers can see where your strategy leads.
- Organize group/team leaders and managers to interact with volunteers and communicate the value of the desired outcomes.

Task Side: Assessing to Initiate *What can we learn from past performance and what new resources can we access?*

Here you are working the task side of *Step 1: Discover and Define Purpose.* When your brainstorming offers new opportunities, some homework is in order. In this functional dimension, you will assess what you, your managers, and your volunteers have done in this area in the past. You will consider how their skills and knowledge may need to be expanded or strengthened to achieve this purpose. Brainstorming can yield great ideas, sometimes like the proverbial castles in the air. Assessing what you know and what you must learn begins to put the foundation under them.

In order to begin to achieve a new purpose, many different assessments may be necessary. The availability of information required for the work must be discovered. Resources must be available and dedicated for the chosen purpose. Individuals must be willing and able to learn what is necessary to do the work. The movement from personal, to group/team, to organizational levels of risks and rewards must be assessed, as one manager explained, by "the real brain work of digging out the facts, analyzing them, running some numbers to see if they are quantifiable." Innovation comes to life in this context of learning and adaptation, as another manager recalled:

> *That's where I was lucky even in the traditional, boring world of banking. I happened to find organizations and particularly management people who gave me long leashes to think and try innovative ideas. Because if you don't innovate and adapt you're going to be like the dinosaur and die.*

Innovation can be messy, like creating a work of art, but valuable new ideas can be a worthwhile result. Assessing those ideas is important to see how actionable the outcomes would really be. When you have discovered and defined your purpose, you are ready to engage your strengths in achieving it!

Suggested Tools for **Assessing to Initiate:**

- Long-term and short-term goals assigned by the organization
- Needs assessment
- Financial statements
- Volunteer resource competency performance management system
- Group/team member job profiles
- Organization chart

Suggested Techniques for **Assessing to Initiate:**

Individual Level:

Identify risk and uncertainty:
- Interpret statistics related to your topic, using strategic analysis and models, including the strengths and limitations of techniques.

Assess current performance:
- Use accounting data and intangible evidence to make strategic decisions and create future plans.

Initiate good decisions to define individual purpose:
- Use planning processes to select decisions to be made, make correct inferences from data, and reach well-founded decisions.

Group/Team Level:

Manage group/team dynamics:
- Understand individual needs and recognize desired contributions, as well as relationships outside the organization between members.

Identify how the group/team will assess and solve problems:
- Discuss group/team roles, responsibilities, and relationships and the contributions of these in problem-solving.

Define group/team purpose:
- Respect key roles and relationships in organizational governance and decision-making in setting the group/team purpose.

Organization Level:

Strategize a development plan:

- Bring together timing, available resources, new technologies, and volunteers in a comprehensive strategy.

Allocate resources to maximize organizational value:

- Direct resources toward increasing value of the organization, both to the community it serves and to the organizational stakeholders and volunteers.

Define organizational purpose:

- Put forward a clear purpose that will move the organization forward and expand its contributions.

STEP 2: ALIGN STRENGTHS AND SET PRIORITY

People Side: Engaging to Achieve *Who has the strengths we need to engage in achieving our purpose?*

This is the people side of *Step 2: Align Strengths and Set Priority.* Whose strengths will contribute to the purpose you have set? In this relational side, you will reflect on your strengths, and then on the strengths of your managers and volunteers. You may need to bring together a new group/team to spearhead the effort. You will want to talk with volunteers who could make a significant contribution, to begin to engage them in the effort and to hear their perspectives on what you will be doing.

One manager explained the importance of playing to your own strengths:

> *I think it's important to become as self aware as you can. So I understand that someone in my office is better than I am in this specific area and I need to have him focus on that for the betterment of the team and realizing that every person is not going to be excellent in each one of these quadrants. So as a leader you need to really be able to assess what assets you have, personally and collectively, and then allocate those effectively. And then management's role is to accomplish their portion of that pie.*

You will also want to spend some time, proportionate to the size of the change you are making, in recognizing the values you relate to this strategy. Why is it important to you? What is the value you attach to it? Be sure to include some diversity of values from the conversations you have had with volunteers, so that others see how you listen and bring together everyone's input. Showing others the value you place on this strategic move can inspire them to contribute.

If you feel that expressing your values or talking about values with others is difficult, you are not alone. Some may try to bypass this discussion, but often the motivation of volunteers is rooted in the value they place on what the organization does to make life better for people in very tangible ways. Integrity is about making your management reflect the whole of your values, so bringing out what you value can inspire and connect with volunteers and strengthen your leadership. As one manager insisted:

> *This is so needed . . . recognizing the values. Some don't even recognize their own values. If you were to ask them to write down their values, they could not do*

it. They've never thought about it. I would say that's the majority . . . that carries over in work . . . I tell them "If you don't have clear in your own mind where you stand in relation to God and your fellow man, you're going to find yourself in some kind of a conflict and it's going to come at you so bad that you're going to have either difficulties, burn out, or you're going to make a mistake. Something's going to happen just because you've never thought this through before you get under pressure."

Taking time to connect your personal values with the values of the organization can empower your influence in leading and managing performance.

Another aspect of engaging the strengths of your core team can begin with understanding how your team works. Personality or behavior assessments and teambuilding exercises are useful in defining roles and recognizing the value of each person. The time spent can offer a useful return on the investment as the team quickly works through potential issues and connects so that together everyone achieves more!

Suggested Tools for **Engaging to Achieve:**

- Organization's values statement
- Personality and behavior assessments
- Teambuilding exercises
- Volunteer form: *Your Strengths, Knowledge, Skills, and Abilities*
- Volunteer form: *How do YOU like to be Rewarded and Recognized?*

Suggested Techniques for **Engaging to Achieve:**

Individual Level:

Balance values, assumptions, data, and observation:

- Identify assumptions, values, and beliefs to effectively express your strengths.
- Create a bridge to current, accurate data and direct observation so your strengths contribute to achieving the selected purpose.

Exhibit integrity for leadership:

- Persuade others to join you in the valuable work of your organization and in reaching this strategic purpose by connecting your values with those of the organization.

Engage as a personal priority:

- Contribute by using your strengths and by fitting in with the diverse strengths being drawn together to achieve the priority.

Group/Team Level:

Lead authentically to engage group/team strengths:

- Draw on personal strengths and recognize personal weaknesses as you share who you really are and build relationships that inspire high commitment and elicit effective contributions.

Lead assertively to engage group/team strengths:

- Use principled negotiation to build more effective internal and external working relationships.

Engage relationships in priority:

- Motivate individuals to contribute to achieving the strategic purpose through developing action plans and sharing feedback in a culturally sensitive way.

Organizational Level:

Lead communication and innovation processes in order to make the organizational strategy work:

- Discuss what is involved in the strategic purpose to find areas for innovation.

Integrate diversity and values:

- Find common ground that brings together the diversity within your organization's people and mission with the value statement of the organization, your values, and the values of the volunteers.

Engage strengths in the organizational priority:

- State the importance of achieving the purpose by aligning actions to make the concept come to life.

Task Side: Analyzing to Determine *Who sets a priority for change in behavior and/or environment?*

This is the task side of *Step 2: Align Strengths and Set Priority.* Your volunteers and staff have been drawn into this change process, and they may be able to help you in gathering pertinent information for making the change work. Analyzing the time, costs, and other resources required, as compared with the value created, sets a clear value on this investment success. In this functional dimension, you can determine the best way to maximize the value and minimize the related costs. Analysis will also include communicating these data-driven decisions to clearly set the priority on making the change.

Finalizing the priority in this section is a difficult, but essential step. Analysis may include tools such as decision models, risk assessment, and the management of operational dimensions. A manager explained:

> *Where my challenge lies is the analysis of data, being determined and disciplined enough to stay in that process of analysis to set priorities ultimately. The whole construct is that facts are your friends, to appreciate reality but to stay with it long enough to reduce it to a level of helpfulness in setting your next course of action.*

Creating an action plan for coordinating the efforts of managers and volunteers in the achievement process will facilitate the work to be done and recognize the contributions of everyone involved. Beginning to outline the benchmarks for evaluation in a Gantt chart will set the state for moving to effective action.

Suggested Tools for **Analyzing to Determine:**

- Decision models
- Legal and/or ethical recommendations

- Risk assessment from financial statements and accounting reports
- Action plan with evaluation benchmarks
- Promotion collateral
- Volunteer form: *My Action Plan*

Suggested Techniques for **Analyzing to Determine:**

Individual Level:

Communicate rational recommendations:
- Write in a fluid, expressive style using appropriate structure and business terminology.

Communicate data-driven decisions:
- Develop and articulate decisions using arguments that are consistent with data.

Analyze to determine personal priority:
- Speak the language of financial statements and accounting reports to analyze and interpret financial statements within the appropriate contexts.
- Work with the numbers to make the numbers work for you.

Group/Team Level:

Build decision models to analyze issues:
- Delineate capabilities required to meet objectives.
- Create a mind map as a visual decision model of the structure for the proposed change.
- Use the mind map to select group/team members who can best contribute.

Select individuals who will contribute:
- Consider individual strengths, knowledge, skills, and abilities, as well as level of volunteer or staff-level involvement.
- Bring together the individuals who are best able to achieve the purpose.

Structure group/teams determined to reach the priority:
- Design assignments to incentivize volunteers through skill development, valued results, and/or group/team involvement.

Organizational Level:

Analyze value of time, price, quality, and variety involved:
- Examine implementation requirements through these key operational dimensions.

Maximize the four value creators:
- Play with costs and outcomes of how much time will be invested; willingness and ability to invest in financial, operational, and relational prices; level of quality expected or required; and effects of offering variety in process or outcomes.

Determine action plans for the organizational priority:
- Draw up an action plan with evaluation benchmarks for maximizing value creators leading to action for this strong priority.

STEP 3: DESIGN AND CONSTRUCT PATH

People Side: Collaborating to Generate *How will we enact action plans and reach benchmarks designed to achieve our purpose?*

This is the people side of *Step 3: Design and Construct Path*. In this relational side, you move from planning to action. You will design a path for change to achieve your purpose, using your prioritized strengths and resources. This design is the outcome of collaboration with individuals, groups, and teams using formal authority and relational influence at every level available to you. The mutual trust and candor you generate through open communication will strengthen the creative action plans, processes and structures with appropriate incentives. You will collaborate with volunteers and managers to generate a design for a personalized, effective path to make the change.

Keep in mind that the culture of your organization may require a level of planning and reporting which needs to be included in this step. One manager expressed this directly, saying:

> *I think one of the worst things we can do is to set a path which is etched in stone. The critical thing here is to collaborate to generate. I'm a firm believer in setting up a system or a process, but a process that allows for evolution.*

Another manager emphasized the importance of considering scale when attempting to blaze a new trail. Generating the wrong kind of path in this step could weaken the small organization if thinking was too big, or plans were grandiose and not achievable with available resources. He saw the importance of a purpose that could be reached by those involved, with a priority that was realistic, so that generating the path would be workable. Awareness of the authoritative expectation you have as a VRM is important in the process of collaboration. A more authoritative VRM would work to keep others involved, but would expect to control the formation of the path. Managing expectations here is a key to keeping volunteers motivated.

Suggested Tools for **Collaborating to Generate:**

- Gantt chart for project management
- Mind map of feedback loops
- Marketing plan to promote new value created for clients
- Volunteer form: *Coaching for Competence*

Suggested Techniques for **Collaborating to Generate:**

Individual Level:

Effectively manage yourself:

- Maintain awareness of individual habits of mind and actions, needs, prior assumptions, and personal discipline in daily conduct.
- Learn rapidly and adapt quickly to contribute to collaborative efforts.
- Create a healthy work/life balance for personal and professional growth.

Effectively manage your relationships:
- Navigate difficult conversations and lead by example with flexibility in unpredictable work environments.

Move others to goal-oriented action:
- Clearly communicate complex decisions.
- Use social capital in working with others to achieve the goals for which one is accountable.

Group/Team Level:

Coach and train to reach expectations:
- With limited time and incomplete information, use active listening and feedback, observation and analysis, to coach and train in informal situations.

Align the incentives for high performance:
- Build a healthy team culture through fostering creativity and coordination, making efficient group decisions for continuous performance improvement.

Lead, coordinate, communicate, and manage with mutual trust and candor:
- Generate and channel energy and commitment toward goals by dealing well with personalities in group dynamics.

Organizational Level:

Exercise formal authority or relational influence:
- Integrate organizational, societal, and personal values to maximize well-being in society throughout the change process.

Apply theoretical frameworks to actively design organizational processes and structures:
- Effectively adapt volunteer resource management to promote social progress within the organization and within the community it serves.

Develop external communications:
- Engage advertising and promotions based on market information and demand to present opportunities created by the change process.

Functional Side: Organizing to Accomplish *How will we organize our resources to construct the path to achieve our purpose?*

This is the task side of *Step 3: Design and Construct Path*. The other side of the coin for Step 3 is organizing your practical resources. Creating information that flows from the volunteers to the top stakeholders can increase productivity. Management tools, from the VRCS to financial records and accounting information, to fitting and relating operational functions, all structure the complexity of a change management process. In this functional dimension, you will organize and practice to construct the path, enacting change through technology, organization architecture, and financial resources.

This is where the rubber meets the road. One manager described managing his managers: He gave his managers markers on the path, but let them think things through and organize the volunteers. He felt that this preserved their differing roles where the managers would think of things he would miss and he would not rob his managers of the joy, their fun in management. When the managers were having fun, the volunteers would be engaged.

Suggested Tools for **Organizing to Accomplish:**

- Gantt chart for project management
- Budget allowances in accounting records
- Volunteer form: *Action Plan with Benchmarks*
- Volunteer form: *Workplace Issue Identification and Suggested Actions*

Suggested Techniques for **Organizing to Accomplish:**

Individual Level:

Engage individual style in respecting the forces for and against change:
- Enhance resource management by recognizing areas for analysis and adaptation.

Apply analytical tools for effective, ethical action in complex organization settings:
- Diagram process flows, apply central concepts and frameworks, and utilize VRMS to clarify best case scenarios.

Organize to accomplish an individual path:
- Enact individual action plans and record measures at benchmarks.
- Contribute to significant organizational growth.

Group/Team Level:

Integrate technology in collaborative processes:
- Bring cutting edge technology advantages into the group/team collaboration, both for communication and for collaboration in the work process.

Build with organizational architecture:
- Develop effective workgroups in a more horizontal, flexible structure. Integrate accounting information for internal planning and control.
- Fit and relate operations functions with other functions.

Organize Gantt chart to accomplish a group/team path:
- Bring together all aspects of work process in Gantt chart. Enact group/team action plans and record measures at benchmarks.

Organizational Level:

Access intellectual capital:
- Systematize the VRMS with planning and control to keep the human behavior of the organization in line with organizational objectives and the strategic purpose at hand.

Invest financial capital to assure profitable growth:
- Map transactions in accounting numbers, using discretion in choosing best methods.
- Monitor the accumulation, analysis, and presentation of financial data for external decision makers.

Organize development to accomplish an organizational path:

- Create a Gantt chart for the change process and modify with actual performance throughout initial actions.
- Accomplish development through completed action plans and recorded evaluation measures.

STEP 4: EMPOWER AND IMPROVE PERFORMANCE

People Side: Transforming to Grow *Why will we grow to empower future success through this performance?*

This is the people side of *Step 4: Empower and Improve Performance*. In this relational side, you will begin by celebrating the successful change! The energy shared from your success together will empower you all to grow in this transformed performance. You can work together to expand the influence of success factors so that the change is successfully integrated in expectations, processes, and systems. As the VRM, you can transmit the energy expressed by one seasoned manager:

> *It's opening a door for them to believe that they can do more than they can. Any competency—anyone can add and subtract, but really what you're after is that next level, that makes you excellent, is going beyond just calculating it out and making it come alive and truly engaging with the process.*

Transforming means "making it come alive and truly engaging with the process," of working with others and moving into new areas of responsibility. Transformed performance can grow in an established process, such as a stewardship report that can be developed each year for each major client. A stewardship report addresses critical issues and success factors to look back and recognize how effectively the organization has fulfilled its role as a partner to the client, through meeting or failing to meet their client's needs. One manager pointed out the difference making this step to empower and improve performance in a large or a small organization:

> *The contrast that is the most striking is this is process-driven in large organizations . . . whereas it's more event-based in small companies, where you go full out in doing [steps] 1, 2, and 3, and then you take a deep breath and sit down around the table and assess what you've done and where you are.*

No matter the size of your organization or the number of your volunteers, this step is essential for enhancing repeated performance to cement the new process into place.

Suggested Tools for **Transforming to Grow:**

- Newsletter celebration by e-mail or post
- Presentation to stakeholders
- Summation report for designated timelines
- Volunteer form: *Success Factors and Suggestions to Make Us Even Better*

Suggested Techniques for **Transforming to Grow:**

Individual Level:

Act as a change agent:

- Continue to conceive, plan, implement and reward ever more flexible, lean, responsive, collaborative, and informed organizational change.

Create innovative growth from success factors:

- Extract valuable information offered by volunteers and staff from their observation, data, and evaluation.
- Understand what worked, what didn't work, and their understanding of why both were true.

Celebrate and establish personal performance:

- Celebrate success and critique challenges to establish the change through practice.
- Respect new suggestions for innovation.

Group/Team Level:

Celebrating success with support and respect for team feedback:

- Celebrate collaboration and success!
- Give and receive feedback in lateral and vertical leadership, team building and performance, and team leadership.
- Take a moment to recognize the value of the volunteers.

Identify and strengthen success factors:

- Evaluate the managerial effects of organizational decisions.
- Bring together diverse experience and ideas on the change initiative and results.
- Speak with one voice in effective team presentation of results.

Establish excellent group/team performance:

- Continue the virtuous cycle by creating implementation channels for innovation.
- Check to make sure volunteers are still engaged.

Organization Level:

Make and celebrate effective decisions regarding organization-level topics:

- Celebrate the strategy, the priority placed on this change, and the effectiveness of the path chosen.

Recognize the value of the initiative with all involved:

- Bring together perceptions of staff and volunteers with value of the initiative.

Establish excellent organizational performance:

- Celebrate success and the call for the practice to be integrated into the organizational culture.
- Energize action toward continued practice.

Task Side: Focusing to Streamline *Why does each factor integrated in performance contribute to success?*

This is the task side of *Step 4: Empower and Improve Performance*. When your performance has been successfully integrated, evaluation is the key to streamlining your performance. In this functional dimension, you will validate competent performance and then focus efforts and actions to further enable improvement in future performance by evaluating the effects of what has been changed. Change often has a ripple effect, so awareness must be gained about how the change has affected individuals, groups and teams, and the organization. Evaluation at the level of the change may lead to evaluation of effective marketing, technological, operational, and financial issues, or opportunities to improve performance.

Focused evaluation should illustrate the most significant features and benefits of the change. A VRM will want to maintain the significant benefits desired for the volunteers, clients, and the organization while making decisions about how costs of all types can be reduced. When the significance is understood, then inputs, processes, and outcomes can be streamlined so that benefits remain. If those doing the work suggest adaptations, another round of the Impact Wheel may begin.

Suggested Tools for **Focusing to Streamline:**

- Project/Program Evaluation
- Spreadsheet Modeling
- Decision Tree
- Performance Appraisals
- Balance Sheet, Profit and Loss Account and Cash Flow Statements

Suggested Techniques for **Focusing to Streamline:**

Individual Level:

Systemic evaluations of related and relevant data:
  - Include volunteers and managers who have completed assigned action plans and collected evaluation data and who are best equipped to assist in this analysis.

Focus evaluation to gain significant impact:
  - Relate the process of change through the Impact Wheel to improved performance and analysis of success factors.

Streamline individual performance:
  - Direct individuals to evaluate their own performance and make valuable suggestions for improvement.

Group/Team Level:

Apply performance improvement processes to address complex organizational issues or opportunities:
  - Revisit the experience of the change process with the group/team to give them the opportunity to celebrate and suggest improvements.

Establish institutional knowledge:
  - Cement the desired outcomes by recording changes in processes and outputs so that others can repeat performance.

Focus decision-making processes to streamline group/team performance:

- Strengthen the team by open discussion of data and practice in effective, shared decisions about results.

Organizational Level:

Evaluate relevant microeconomic data and financial position:

- Take the feedback from volunteers and managers into the organizational level of evaluation. Examine appropriate balance sheet, profit and loss, and cash flow statements.

Use data evaluation to streamline operations while maintaining value creation:

- Measure the value created by the change in performance.
- Focus operations to streamline organization performance.

Evaluate return on investment in the change initiative and opportunities to streamline future investment:

- Measure the investment in the change in performance. Focus assets to streamline organization performance.

Summary Tools

Five checklists are included next for your continued learning, your use of the Impact Wheel, and your knowledge and skill development in managing performance of volunteers. From a competency perspective mentioned above, each of the action-based statements in Checklists B, C, D and E are similar in structure to competencies. All of the statements are listed in Checklist A. This checklist is not intended to replace the formal process of writing competencies, self-assessing against them, and participating in competence validation. Checklist A is a self-assessment for the Impact Wheel, for you to grow in leading performance management through its application.

Following the instructions given on Checklist A, you can self-assess your level of confidence for each action statement. Your self-assessment indicates what you believe you know and can do, and suggests what you need to learn to become competent in leading performance management of volunteers.

Checklist A: ALL Action-based Statements

From the action-based statements of the Impact Wheel, what is your level of confidence for the following actions linked with managing performance of volunteers?
Your response will be *Yes*, *Sometimes*, or *No*.

Considering the Action Statement . . . can you:	Yes	Sometimes	No
Discover and Define Purpose → What will we do?			
Discover significant impact desired in meeting client needs and organizational objectives			
Interact with responsible stakeholders			
Strategize with innovative ideas for future success			

(*continued*)

	Yes	Sometimes	No
Define your purpose for impact and realizing the future vision			
Assess current performance and learning needed for making this change			
Initiate learning and innovation to achieve the desired impact and realize the future vision			
Ask targeted questions			
Discuss important decisions			
Discover individual purpose			
Identify risk and uncertainty			
Assess current performance			
Initiate good decisions to define individual purpose			
Create synergy among members			
Discuss formal structure, informal networks and culture			
Discover group/team purpose			
Manage group/team dynamics			
Identify how the group/team will assess and solve problems			
Define group/team purpose			
Delineate the organization's strategy			
Develop a vision for the future			
Set organizational purpose			
Strategize a development plan			
Allocate resources to maximize organizational value			
Define organizational purpose			
Align Strengths and Set Priority → Who will meet needs?			
Align strengths of your organization, your group/team, and yourself			
Engage individual, group/team, and organizational strengths, diversity and values			
Achieve relational influence through clear communication of strategy			
Set priority within the culture and environment of your organization			

Analyze data available to you from past performance			
Determine what value will be created by the work to be accomplished, what new resources will be required			
Balance values, assumptions, data, and observation			
Exhibit integrity for leadership			
Engage as a personal priority			
Communicate rational recommendations			
Communicate data-driven decisions			
Analyze and interpret financial statements and accounting reports within the appropriate contexts			
Lead authentically to engage group/team strengths			
Lead assertively to engage group/team strengths			
Engage relationships in priority			
Build decision models to analyze issues			
Select individuals who will contribute			
Structure group/teams determined to reach the priority			
Lead communication and innovation processes in order to make the organization strategy work			
Integrate diversity and values			
Engage strengths in the organizational priority			
Analyze value of time, price, quality, and variety involved			
Maximize the four value creators			
Determine action plans for the organizational priority			
Design and Construct Path → How will we work?			
Design the path for change to achieve your purpose			
Collaborate with individuals, groups, and teams using formal authority or relational influence			
Generate mutual trust and candor through open communication and appropriate incentives			

(*continued*)

	Yes	Sometimes	No
Construct the path for effective change			
Organize intellectual and financial resources, and integrate technology			
Accomplish change by action plans with benchmarks			
Effectively manage yourself			
Effectively manage your relationships			
Move others to goal-oriented action			
Engage individual style in respecting the forces for and against change			
Apply analytical tools for effective, ethical action in complex organization settings			
Enact individual action plans and record measures at benchmarks			
Coach and train to reach expectations			
Align the incentives for high performance			
Lead, coordinate, communicate, and manage with mutual trust and candor			
Integrate technology in collaborative processes			
Build with organizational architecture:			
Organize Gantt chart to accomplish a group/team path			
Exercise formal authority or relational influence			
Apply theoretical frameworks to actively design organizational processes and structures			
Develop external communications			
Access intellectual capital			
Invest financial capital to assure profitable growth			
Organize development to accomplish an organizational path			
Empower and Improve Performance → Why will we grow?			
Empower performance by celebrating and managing change to establish these best results			
Transform performance by effectively managing people to identify and expand critical success factors			

Grow in excellent performance by integrating change			
Improve performance by evaluating data, benchmarks, and feedback to address critical issues			
Focus evaluation on effectiveness, issues, and opportunities for improvement			
Streamline performance from critical decisions that are strengthened by systems thinking and performance improvement processes			
Act as a change agent			
Create innovative growth from success factors			
Celebrate and establish personal performance			
Systemic evaluations of related and relevant data			
Focus evaluation to gain significant impact			
Streamline individual performance			
Celebrate success with support and respect for team feedback			
Identify and strengthen success factors			
Establish excellent group/team performance with innovation channels			
Apply performance improvement processes to address complex organizational issues or opportunities			
Establish institutional knowledge			
Focus decision-making processes to streamline group/team performance			
Make and celebrate effective decisions regarding organization-level topics			
Recognize the value of the initiative with all involved			
Establish excellent organizational performance			
Evaluate relevant microeconomic data and financial position			
Use data evaluation to streamline operations while maintaining value creation			
Evaluate return on investment in the change initiative and opportunities to streamline future investment			

Checklist B: Action Statements for the Four Steps of the Impact Wheel

Use these Action Statements to guide you in answering the Key Question for each Step, as well as translating down from the organizational level and interpreting up from the administrative level.

What will we do? *Discover and Define Purpose*	■ *Discover* significant impact desired to meet client needs and organizational impact ■ *Interact* with responsible stakeholders ■ *Strategize* with innovative ideas for future success ■ *Assess* current performance and learning needed ■ *Define* your purpose for impact and realizing the future vision ■ *Initiate* learning and innovation to achieve the desired impact
Who will meet needs? *Align Strengths and Set Priority*	■ *Align* strengths of organization, group/team, and yourself ■ *Engage* strengths, diversity and values ■ *Achieve* influence with clear communication of strategy to gain commitment of others ■ *Set* priority within culture and environment of organization for the value created by the work of group/team and individuals ■ *Analyze* data from past organizational, group/team, and individual performance for your area of responsibility ■ *Determine* value to be created and new resources required. Engage stakeholders with access to needed resources
How will we work? *Design and Construct Path*	■ *Design* the path for change to achieve your purpose, using your prioritized strengths and resources ■ *Collaborate* with individuals, groups/teams using formal authority or relational influence at every level available to you ■ *Generate* realistic action plans, incentives, processes and structures from open communication, mutual trust and candor ■ *Construct* the path effectively, integrating creative collaboration and initiating organized execution ■ *Organize* intellectual and financial resources, and integrate useful technology to expand benefits of the initiative ■ *Accomplish* the change you are targeting by walking the path of the action plans to reach your benchmarks
Why will we grow? *Empower and Improve Performance*	■ *Empower* performance by celebrating and managing the effects of change in a way that will establish these best results ■ *Transform* performance at every level, effectively managing people to identify and expand critical success factors ■ *Grow* in excellent performance by integrating change with support and respect for all contributors ■ *Improve* performance by evaluating data, benchmarks, and feedback to address critical issues ■ *Focus* evaluation on effectiveness, issues, and opportunities ■ *Streamline* performance from critical decisions strengthened by systems thinking and performance improvement processes

Using Checklists C, D, and E on Three Levels

The Impact Wheel was developed for use by the individual; for managing the group or team; and for managing and leading at the organizational level. Three checklists have been included so the VRM can focus on the level that is appropriate for each topic under management consideration.

At each level, the relational side is on the left, which is focused on people involved in the transition. The functional side is on the right, which is focused on the tasks involved in the transition. These two sides work together, and the VRM will consider both sides of the coin as each step is accomplished.

Checklist C. Organizational Impact Level focuses on strategic leadership and management at the organizational level, which moves from vision and mission to objectives and goals. Use this checklist in high-level conversations for managing performance of the entire organization and for translation down from this level to the managers and volunteers.

Checklist D. Management Impact Level focuses on operational management at the group/team level, which begins with the vision connected with organizational goals and objectives, and then moves to action planning. Use this checklist in coordinating teamwork and individual volunteers to reach organizational performance goals.

Checklist E. Individual Impact Level focuses on tactical management at the personal level, which begins from the manager's goals and objectives, and then moves to action plans and evaluation benchmarks. VRMs, as middle managers, navigate the translation down from the Organizational Impact through Management Impact and into the Individual Impact for the volunteers. Conversely, the VRM is interpreting up from the volunteers at the Individual Impact Level through Management Impact to Organizational Impact for senior managers and board governance.

Checklist C: Organizational Impact Level

1. *What* will we do now?	**Discover and Define Purpose**
1.1 *Interact to Strategize*:	**1.2 Assess to Initiate:**
Delineate the organization's strategy	Strategize a development plan
Develop a vision for the future	Allocate resources to maximize value
Discover organizational purpose	Define organizational purpose
2. *Who* will meet needs?	**Align Strengths and Set Priority**
2.1 Engage to Achieve:	**2.2 Analyze to Determine:**
Lead communication and innovation processes	Analyze value of time, price, quality, and variety to make the organization strategy work involved
Integrate diversity and values	Maximize the four value creators
Engage strengths in organizational priority	Determine the action plans for the organizational priority

3. *How* will we work?	Design and Construct Path
3.1 Collaborate to Generate:	**3.2 Organize to Accomplish:**
Exercise formal authority or relational influence	Access intellectual capital
Apply theoretical frameworks to actively design organizational processes and structures	Invest financial capital to assure profitable growth
Develop external communications	Organize development to accomplish an organizational path

4. *Why* will we grow?	Empower and Improve Performance
4.1 Transform to Grow:	**4.2 Focus to Streamline:**
Make and celebrate effective decisions regarding organization-level topics	Evaluate relevant microeconomic data and financial position
Recognize value of the initiative with all involved	Use data evaluation to streamline operations while maintaining value creation
Establish excellent organizational performance and opportunities to streamline future investment	Evaluate return on investment in the change initiative

Checklist D: The Management Impact Level

1. *What* will we do?	Discover and Define Purpose
1.1 Interact to Strategize:	**1.2 Assess to Initiate:**
Create synergy among members	Manage group/team dynamics
Discuss formal structure, informal networks and culture	Identify how the group/team will assess and solve problems
Discover group/team purpose	Define group/team purpose

2. *Who* will meet needs?	Align Strengths and Set Priority
2.1 Engage to Achieve:	**2.2 Analyze to Determine:**
Lead authentically to engage group/team strengths	Build decision models to analyze issues
Lead assertively to engage group/team strengths	Select individuals who will contribute
Engage relationships in priority	Structure group/teams determined to reach the priority

3. *How* will we work?	Design and Construct Path
3.1 Collaborate to Generate:	**3.2 Organize to Accomplish:**
Coach and train to reach expectations	Integrate technology in collaborative processes
Align the incentives for high performance	Build organizational architecture

Lead, coordinate, communicate, and manage with mutual trust and candor	Organize Gantt chart to accomplish a group/team path
4. *Why* will we grow?	**Empower and Improve Performance**
4.1 Transform to Grow:	**4.2 Focus to Streamline:**
Celebrate success with support and respect for team feedback	Apply performance improvement processes to address complex organizational issues or opportunities
Identify and strengthen success factors	Establish institutional knowledge
Establish excellent group/team performance with innovation channels	Focus decision-making processes to streamline group/team performance

Checklist E: The Individual Impact Level

1. *What* will we do?	**Discover and Define Purpose**
1.1 Interact to Strategize:	**1.2 Assess to Initiate:**
Ask targeted questions	Identify risk and uncertainty
Discuss important decisions	Assess current performance
Discover individual purpose	Initiate good decisions to define individual purpose
2. *Who* will meet needs?	**Align Strengths and Set Priority**
2.1 Engage to Achieve:	**2.2 Analyze to Determine:**
Balance values, assumptions, data, and observation	Communicate rational recommendations
Exhibit integrity for leadership	Communicate data-driven decisions
Engage as a personal priority	Analyze and interpret financial statements and accounting reports within the appropriate contexts
3. *How* will we work?	**Design and Construct Path**
3.1 Collaborate to Generate:	**3.2 Organize to Accomplish:**
Effectively manage yourself	Engage individual style in respecting the forces for and against change
Effectively manage your relationships	Apply analytical tools for effective, ethical action in complex organization settings
Move others to goal-oriented action	Enact individual action plans and record measures at benchmarks
4. *Why* will we grow?	**Empower and Improve Performance**
4.1 Transform to Grow:	**4.2 Focus to Streamline:**
Act as a change agent	Systemic evaluations of related and relevant data
Create innovative growth from success factors	Focus evaluation to gain significant impact
Celebrate and establish personal performance	Streamline individual performance

Conclusion

The challenging and rewarding work of the VRM can be facilitated through practice and application of the Impact Wheel. In using the Impact Wheel, VRMs have access to a systemic decision-making process for guiding the management of their volunteers' performance. Taking four steps by answering four key questions becomes a simple process for the VRM to communicate and engage with the volunteers under their management. Starting where volunteers are, leveraging their strengths, and alerting them to places of learning and development will move them accordingly to their success, and complete the transition through the Impact Wheel. In this way, the Impact Wheel empowers the VRM with a proven and clear pathway to follow. This dynamic work creates successful transitions from average performance to star performance for volunteers.

Success will build on success as VRMs are empowered to become flexible, collaborative, lifelong learners who continue to grow in competent performance management. Often the VRM has an unconscious competence for certain aspects of working with volunteers. The Impact Wheel can help the VRM recognize areas of unconscious competence, and work with others to learn and grow in aspects of management where they are less familiar. The VRM can leverage success through the comprehensive change/transition process of the Impact Wheel.

Through improving and expanding personal strengths and competencies in leading performance management, a VRM can extend the strategic reach of the organization. Using the Impact Wheel to manage the performance of volunteers, the VRM gains experience and expertise in leading performance management. The VRM can use the Impact Wheel as an educational tool, showing volunteers and senior managers where they are in moving through the change/transition process. With a proven change management process and clear structure for ongoing performance management, the VRM can expand personal and professional influence with volunteers and the whole organization, and better serve the community and wider world.

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CHAPTER 14

Risk Management in Volunteer Involvement

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All volunteer involvement generates risks. From the introduction of the very first volunteer and onward, risks are created that did not previously exist. The degree of risk varies from setting to setting, depending on variables such as the nature of volunteers' work, the environment in which they perform their duties, the level of vulnerability of the people with whom volunteers work and/or to whom they have access, and the effectiveness of the management systems in place to guide and support volunteers' efforts.

Risk is defined as a potential loss or harm. The loss or harm may be direct or indirect; it may be personal or organizational; physical, financial, or reputational; it may be large or small, likely or remote. In a nonprofit, risks generally cluster into five categories:

- People (clients such as students, patients, victims, residents, consumers, participants, and patrons, volunteers, employees, the board, donors, the general public)
- Property (real, financial, intellectual, electronic)
- Income (revenue streams, sales, grants, donations, fundraising)
- Goodwill (public trust, reputation, stature in community, brand, ability to raise funds and volunteers)
- Liability (criminal, civil, vicarious)

Risks may cause harm to individuals or the organization itself, potentially threatening the organization's future sustainability and mission accomplishment. Any of these may arise from the actions or inactions of volunteers. This discussion focuses largely on the management of risks related to direct service volunteers. There are risks associated with leadership and governance volunteers as well, but they tend to be of a different nature and demand different management techniques. The overall process of risk management profiled in this chapter applies equally, however, to all types of volunteers, as well as to paid staff.

This chapter is a primer to risk management in connection with volunteer involvement, providing both general information on risk management and "how to" instructions. It merely scratches the surface of the topic, and readers are urged to investigate further and take advantage of the tools, tips, checklists, and worksheets that accompany a risk management model (For example, Graff, 2003).

Context for Risk Management

In this section, four important issues are explored as context for risk management and its application.

Risks arise from three broad directions:

1. *From the coordination of volunteer involvement.* How the director of volunteer resource management and agency administration organize involvement; how thoroughly volunteer management functions such as screening, training, and supervision, are carried out.
2. *From the work itself.* Some volunteers perform functions that are inherently risky, including for example, disaster relief, firefighting, back country rescue, political protesting, driving, and so on.
3. *From volunteer behavior.* When volunteers fail to meet performance standards, act inappropriately, exercise poor judgement, fail to make a correct decision, or in rare cases, cause intentional harm such as harassment, theft, violence, and abuse.

The general rule is that the more demanding the work, and/or the more direct the contact between the volunteer and the client, the greater the potential risk. Volunteers are often in positions of significant trust and significant risk. Note that volunteer status is primarily a reflection of pay status. It does not necessarily indicate competence, professionalism, or reliability. Highly skilled volunteers are frequently recruited to work in their areas of expertise, performing to highest standards. There is no indication that accidents or harm occur to, or because of, volunteers any more than their paid staff counterparts. Risk may be exacerbated however, because the usual personnel, health and safety, and performance oversight functions that normally support paid staff involvement operate at a lower standard or are absent around volunteer involvement.

Not all volunteer roles involve significant risks. Simple chores performed by qualified individuals in controlled settings are typically not very risky at all, and risk management in a formal sense may not be necessary. For example, volunteers who come into the organization to help with mailings, copying, collating, and so on are in a relatively low risk environment, engaged in a relatively low risk activity. In positions and service opportunities such as these, risk management might absorb very little in time or resources. Still, caution is advised, for significant risks may lurk in seemingly harmless situations.

Consider This: Simple Jobs and Sizable Risks

Several years back, I volunteered to do a shift at a fundraising carnival for a local agency, and was placed by the event coordinator in a booth selling lottery tickets. I received a one-minute orientation to the position—"Stand behind the counter in this little booth, here are the tickets, here is the cash box, see you later"—and was left on my own for the three-hour shift. It was a lovely summer evening, and the grounds swelled with hundreds of families and thousands of happy children, and I too was enjoying myself, watching the carnival-goers stream by my little booth. Ticket sales were brisk, and as my shift went on, I began to accumulate a sizable amount of money, all of it cash. There was nothing at my back but an unsecured tent flap standing between me and those thousands of revellers who might decide to make a quick hit and instantly get lost in the crowd. I had no phone. I could not leave my booth as it was impossible to secure the many boxes of unsold tickets piled under the counter. I had no way to reach the coordinator, and no option but to sit out the rest of my shift. That was an important lesson about seemingly simple positions generating sizable risks.

Volunteers are more frequently being asked to perform work that is more complex, more sophisticated, and more responsible. While a few organizations have always involved volunteers in risky activities such as volunteer firefighting, coaching children, and volunteer search and rescue operations, it is more recently that large numbers of nonprofits have begun to place large numbers of volunteers in direct-service work or other positions of ever-higher responsibility and trust. The likelihood of incidents, accidents, and claims has increased with this evolution (Herman, 2009), and the consequence of error is potentially large, if not catastrophic.

When organizations set out to consciously and deliberately look for risks related to volunteer involvement, they find them. Typically, lots of them. In fact, in new risk management initiatives and/or complex volunteer programs, many risks will be identified. It can be daunting, even paralyzing.

To maintain perspective, keep in mind that life is full of risks. If a guarantee of zero risk were necessary, most people would never get out of bed, drive a car, board a plane, invest money, or allow children to leave the house. The mere presence of risks related to volunteer involvement should be neither the focus of attention nor a cause for alarm. What is important is how those risks are managed.

Risks must be identified and controlled, and the earlier in the volunteer involvement cycle, the better. The volunteer involvement cycle outlines the main functions, tasks and systems required in the construction of a volunteer program and in the effective engagement and management of volunteers (Graff, 2005). Thorough identification of risks increases organizations' capacity to manage risks appropriately.

All volunteer-engaging organizations including nonprofit, government and other public services and even private, for-profit companies (e.g., private nursing homes, medical clinics, corporate volunteer programs) have both a legal and a moral responsibility to attend to the safety and well-being of those they serve, those who work for them, and others who come into contact with their operations. As a result, risk management must be integrated into all volunteer program planning, systems, processes, and decision making. This applies broadly to all aspects of organizational activities, and includes leadership (e.g., committees, advisors, pro bono consultants) and governance (board) volunteers as well.

Consider This: Risks? What Risks?

A few years ago I was presenting a workshop on risk management at an international conference on volunteering. At the morning coffee break a participant approached me with a question. She was the manager of quite a large national volunteer program in the United States that linked adult volunteers with child participants. The primary program activity involved adult volunteers taking children camping, overnight. The workshop participant asked me if I thought it would be wise for her to set up some kind of screening protocol for her volunteers. She had, until that point, been placing volunteers with nothing more than a bit of demographic information about them, and a sense of where in the country they wanted to volunteer.

Risk Management Assumptions

It is prudent to assume the following principles of risk management:

- There are no absolutes and no guarantees in risk management. The implementation of a risk management system cannot prevent all risks. Things still can, and do, go wrong.
- Ignoring the potential for trouble never makes it go away and often exacerbates the outcome.
- Risk management is not designed just for the extremely risky situation; it should be applied to all volunteer activity.
- Making every reasonable effort to control risks will often avert disaster and/or minimize the magnitude of harm that results should a risk actually materialize.
- If something does go wrong, any attempts that have been made to anticipate and prevent the loss or tragedy constitute proof of diligence, and consequently may reduce exposure to liability.
- To be effective, risk management must be a continuous process rather than a one-time project.

Rising Standards

A few recent high-profile cases of abuse by people in positions of trust in nonprofit organizations have served to dramatically raise legal standards and demands for public accountability in the nonprofit world. These changes have arisen relatively quickly and many organizations have been caught off-guard. Organizations that have not significantly increased their attention to risk management in connection with their volunteers in the last three to five years may well find both their volunteers and their clients exposed to an untenable degree of risk of harm, and the organizations themselves exposed to significant liability. Best practices that were considered adequate just a few years ago could be judged as woefully sub-standard if not wholly negligent in the present. As a consequence, risk management is now an indispensable function in the management of volunteer resources.

Risks and liabilities related to volunteer involvement are exacerbated by three associated trends. First, as resources become scarcer, organizations look to volunteers to take on increasingly responsible positions. In most volunteer-engaging organizations, volunteer involvement has expanded faster than organizational resources have been allocated for appropriate volunteer program oversight. The result is that many nonprofit organizations have failed to keep pace with both the complexity of their own volunteer programs and the constantly increasing legal and public accountability standards that now apply. Many organizations are in a volunteer program management deficit position, increasing both the likelihood of trouble and associated liability exposure.

Second, economic pressures on nonprofit organizations have led to cutbacks and layoffs, and that means fewer supervisory employees to oversee performance standards among volunteers. In economic desperation, some organizations have even cut volunteer program management positions while at the same time inviting more volunteers into service. Less supervision heightens risk.

Many societies have become significantly more litigious. In a clear pattern no longer confined to the United States, people are suing others more often, and nonprofit organizations are not immune to legal accountability. While not rampant, suits sometimes arise from the work of volunteers.

Is This Worst-Case Thinking?

Some critics view attention to risk management as synonymous with being ruled by worst-case thinking, and it is true that some practitioners may feel overwhelmed, or even immobilized, by the potential for disaster. Indeed, it is possible to become paranoid about risks, and/or to take risk management too far. There have been isolated incidents in which the board of directors has pulled volunteers out of service or prohibited volunteer involvement in certain rather innocuous activities. These kinds of knee-jerk reactions are always possible, but they are extremely rare.

Risk management, reasonably applied, is not worst-case thinking. It is neither excessive nor incompatible with the work of charities and nonprofit organizations. Rather, it is responsible and contemporary best practice that places due and appropriate priority on personal safety, program effectiveness, and organizational well-being. Laird Hunter (1998) puts it this way:

> *But surely—some of you are bound to say—that's the wrong end round. Organizations need to concentrate on service delivery, on their mission-driven goals to meet the needs of those whom they serve. Being preoccupied about gloom and doom detracts from what should be done . . . But with discussion about the nature, role and responsibilities inherent in identifying and managing risk, we can put in place techniques for protecting our organizations and ourselves from unanticipated losses. In doing so we will better achieve our goals and more ably respond to those whom we serve.* (p. 1)

Will Risk Management Scare Off Much-Needed Volunteers?

"Won't all of this risk management rigamarole scare off good volunteers? They're in such short supply, we can't afford to turn any away!" This is a comment I hear over and over in my risk management workshops. Fortunately, I never have to answer the question. Other managers of volunteers always jump in to say, "That's what we thought too, but we implemented the new protocols and we did not lose a single volunteer . . . volunteers understand that this protects them as well as the agency." It does not matter where in Canada or the United States this question arises, the experience in the field is the same, over and over: We anticipate volunteer attrition that rarely materializes.

The existence of risks and liabilities in volunteering is no secret. Prospective volunteers have read the headlines, listened to the news, and know that risks exist in all kinds of volunteer service. Nothing will scare prospective volunteers away faster than an agency being publicly sued in its community. Volunteers recognize efforts at good management and appreciate being associated with organizations that run their services well.

No one likes to lose volunteers, and no one wants to see volunteers go away disgruntled or affronted. However, you might consider the possibility that those volunteers who cannot see that the organization's risk management efforts are designed in the best interests of clients, volunteers, staff, and the organization as a whole might not be volunteers you necessarily want to keep on in your program. The repeating theme throughout risk management is "reasonable measures, reasonably applied."

Risk Management and Liability

Being held liable in the courts constitutes a risk for nonprofit organizations although the fear of liability seems well out of proportion to the actual incidence of lawsuits against nonprofits.

Liability is often of greatest concern among boards of directors who are ultimately responsible for the work of the organization. To understand how volunteers and volunteer programs might generate exposures to liability, it is first necessary to understand more generally how liability connects to nonprofits. While a full review of liability and related legal concepts is beyond the scope of this paper, several key concepts are sketched.

High-Profile Cases

A handful of high-profile cases in Canada, and more recently in the United States and beyond, have received national attention and raised the level of public awareness about accountability in the nonprofit sector. These cases have also captured the attention of nonprofit boards about risks, liability, and how organizations ought to behave both in the presence of risk as well as in the wake of their discovery.

As Shelly Miller (2001) notes, liability is now of growing concern:

> *In simpler times only a few decades ago, suits against directors and officers of charities, non-profit organizations, and volunteer groups were rare. Those who did volunteer were considered immune from the slings and arrows of those who operated in the corporate business world. Now lawsuits in this area are increasing, whether because more persons with an injury or complaint think to consult a lawyer; because more lawyers are prepared to instigate a suit, or people believe that insurance may be in place or because some assets of individuals may be*

> *available to satisfy judgements. Some lawsuits may have no merit, but you have little control over who sues, whether the suit can be pursued in the absence of real merit, and whether the amount claimed is large or small.* (p. 1)

Organizations have a legal and moral responsibility to do everything reasonable to ensure safety in their volunteer program operations. The fear of an allegation of negligence tops the list in most nonprofits.

Negligence

Allegations of negligence are the most frequent form of civil suit among nonprofit organizations (DeWitt, 2010), and connect most directly with risk management.

Negligence is a matter of at-fault liability, meaning the organization is alleged to have done something wrong, or failed to do something that it ought to have done, and an injury or loss has resulted.

For a claim of negligence to be successful, four conditions must be satisfied:

1. *Duty of care.* A legal duty to exercise care must exist on the part of the organization toward the injured party.
2. *Breach of duty.* The organization must be found to have failed to meet its duty of care.
3. *Injury or loss.* Harm must have occurred to a person or property.
4. *Cause.* It must be proven that the organization's actions or inactions caused the injury in question.

In addition to these four conditions, the courts will also consider the extent to which the harm was foreseeable and the extent to which the organization was in a position to control the circumstances to prevent the incident.

Elusive Standard of Care

Organizations are required to exercise care in their operations, and negligence claims often turn on the determination of the applicable standard of care. That is, how careful was careful enough? How thorough was thorough enough? What does "due diligence" mean in reality?

The standard of care is a fluid concept. It varies from place to place, and from situation to situation. It varies with the nature of the person holding the duty: the more you ought to be able to maintain care, the greater your responsibility for doing so. The standard is also affected by the circumstances of the event: emergencies versus ongoing assistance, for example.

It is difficult to know just how good might be good enough, at least in the eyes of the courts. It would be helpful to have a guidebook that defined terms such as "reasonable," "reasonable person," "prudent person," and "due diligence." Unfortunately we are not yet there in the nonprofit management field, and perhaps we never will be.

The concept of standard of care has relevance beyond the level of responsibility that might be assigned by a court of law. Standard of care is also a general concept of management. For example, every organization must decide how thoroughly it wants its volunteer program to be managed, and every Director of Volunteer Resource Management must decide how much time and energy to invest in each of the multitudinous tasks that fill her or his days. Since resources are limited and finite, and volunteer program staff usually have more to do than can reasonably be accomplished, the question of how much to invest in any given volunteer management function is a continually recurring dilemma:

- How carefully should volunteers be screened?
- What questions should be asked in the interview?
- How many reference checks should be conducted?
- How frequently should volunteers be supervised?
- How thoroughly should each management function be documented?

These are difficult questions when investing more precious resources in any one area means cutting back somewhere else.

A key principle about the standard of care is best kept in mind: the riskier the activity, the higher the standard of care required of the organization. As Ingrid M. Johansen (1997, p. 13) states, "The duty to investigate and supervise a volunteer corresponds to the risk inherent in the position he or she fills." Where the activities undertaken by volunteers are, by definition, more dangerous, and/or where clients are more vulnerable, greater precautions ought to be implemented.

How does one know what standard might apply? In the absence of absolutes, two sources can point to relevant and ever-changing standards of care.

INDUSTRY STANDARD The first place to look for a "standard" in volunteer program management is in other like organizations. There are no absolute standards, but whether an organization meets prevailing standards in its field is something the courts may consider. Here are some suggestions:

- Ask similar organizations how thoroughly they screen volunteers whose work is similar to the work of your volunteers.
- Ask colleagues around the lunch table at the next community service conference how thoroughly they train their participants, whether they take attendance at training sessions, and whether volunteers are asked to sign off on the training they have received. Ask questions like these about a range of volunteer program management functions.
- Send a small e-mail-based survey to colleagues about supervision of volunteers in off-site programs.
- If you are part of a provincial/state or national association, encourage the parent body to conduct a survey of volunteer program standards and practices among its members and distribute the results to all. Be sure to include a reasonably broad sample in whatever inquiry is launched.

Volunteer program management is now a profession with a quickly growing body of knowledge and skills, academic and applied research, professional communication forums, and professional associations. Evolving industry standards are therefore reflected in the professional literature about—and communicated through courses on—volunteer program management. The lesson is to keep up with changes in the field, integrate new best practices, and stay current with changing thinking and emerging techniques of effective volunteer engagement. Ignorance is not a defense. A plea of "But we've always done it this way" is unlikely to fall on sympathetic ears in the justice system.

LEGAL PRECEDENTS Negligence is a matter of civil law. Each case is determined on its own circumstances, guided in large part by precedents set in previous cases—case law. It is critical to stay current with precedent-setting cases of relevance. The services of an attorney (particularly one who specializes in civil litigation), paralegal, law professor, or law librarian can be contracted on a fee or pro bono basis to provide notice of relevant precedents. Internet sites specializing in nonprofit law provide early warning about changing operational and legal standards.

Because professional and legal standards are continuously changing (generally in an upward direction), and because the standards are changing quite quickly in connection with volunteer program management, it is critical to stay vigilant, current, and open to the integration of new thinking and emerging best practice.

Risk Tolerance Zone

Organizations must define the extent of risk they are able and willing to tolerate. This is called the risk tolerance zone. There are two key points to keep in mind about risk tolerance zones. First, there are no absolutes about how much risk is too much to bear. Program leaders must ask themselves, "What risks can we live with?" The smaller risks that are tolerable are judged to be inside the risk tolerance zone. Risks that create sufficient discomfort to warrant some form of risk control are assessed to exist outside the zone. Risk mitigation techniques are applied to reduce the risks to a tolerable level, bringing them back inside the zone.

The degree of risk that one volunteer program is prepared to live with might be assessed by another to be well outside of its own risk tolerance zone.

Consider This: Risk Tolerance Zones

A program that assigns volunteers to help persons who have come into conflict with the law believes deeply in the principle that offenders can be rehabilitated, that they can become trusted and productive citizens, and that they merit second (and third) chances to prove themselves to be so. The mission and philosophy of service in this program promotes the recruitment and acceptance of ex-offenders, even into positions of responsibility and trust. Does this mean that this agency cares less about safety? Not at all, despite the fact that others might judge the practice to be far too risky.

Should organizations permit volunteers to handle clients' financial affairs? Some organizations hold that volunteers will, under no circumstance, become involved with clients' financial affairs. Others deem it acceptable for volunteers to assist clients with some of their financial chores such as bill paying, but prohibit volunteers from knowing a client's automated teller machine's (ATM) personal identification number

(PIN). A third group of organizations establishes risk tolerance boundaries even further out by allowing volunteers to make ATM transactions for clients (which requires them to know the client's PIN), provided that all such transactions are agreed to in writing (signed off by client) in advance, and written receipts are issued (signed off) by the client when the transaction is complete or the cash is returned to the client.

Clearly, different programs will draw the boundaries of their risk tolerance zones in different places. There are no absolutes. And this is as it should be.

The second key point about risk tolerance zones is that they must be consciously and deliberately crafted, and the process must be fully informed by realistic, comprehensive, and current facts. Ideally, many of the risk tolerance zone boundary decisions will be taken at the board level since it is the board that is ultimately accountable for organizational risks and liabilities. In practice, many boards of directors create risk tolerance zones by default. That is, they pay little or no attention to the risks the organization faces daily through volunteer involvement, which is tantamount to risk management by luck and happenstance.

Board members can be unpleasantly surprised by the consequences of such a laissez-faire approach when a risk actually materializes. Better to confront risk head-on from the beginning and make well-founded decisions about what is and is not tolerable, and where controls need to be exercised.

Effective Management Affords Protection

Staying current with best practices is no guarantee against liability. Can something still go wrong? Of course. Might there still be a lawsuit? Yes. There is always potential for legal action, frivolous or otherwise. The point is, if the organization does everything reasonable to prevent harm in its volunteer program, then less the likelihood of injury or loss and less the likelihood of legal action. There are never any guarantees in risk management, only probabilities. Do everything reasonable to stack the odds in your favor.

Statutory Obligations

In addition to civil claims, nonprofit organizations are also subject to a range of laws and regulations, including, for example:

- All organizations must act in compliance with their own bylaws.
- Organizations engaging volunteers to serve food to the homeless must ensure that volunteers comply with health and food handling regulations.
- Volunteers in medical clinics will be governed by health-related statutes and safety regulations.
- Volunteers in youth serving organizations must scrupulously comply with mandatory reporting laws regarding suspected child abuse and neglect.
- All organizations that employ paid staff must comply with employment standards legislation in their jurisdiction(s); some of this may apply to volunteers.
- An organization that decides to construct a building is subject to all normal building code and permit requirements; if volunteers are recruited to help with construction, they too must comply with codes.

- Large organizations that operate in more than one geographic area, or that deliver more than one type of service, may find themselves subjected to different rules in different places.

Legal and Ethical Obligation to Manage Risks

Where volunteers are confined to simple and routine chores, away from direct contact with clients or the public, risk may be of less concern. Where demanding, responsible, and direct-service work is assigned to volunteers, the consequence of error grows, and an obligation arises to responsibly manage volunteers as the real workers they have been asked to become. As the employer, organizations have corresponding ethical and legal obligations to ensure that volunteers work in the safest manner possible, in the least hazardous environment that can reasonably be created.

Consider This: Should We Do Something About This Guy?

At one of my workshops on risk management in the mid-1990s, a manager of volunteers approached me at break with a question. She supervised a volunteer transportation service for the elderly. Volunteers provided rides for clients to the grocery store, medical appointments, and so on. She said one of her most reliable volunteers had called in to her office the previous week to say that he couldn't do the shift he was booked to do that day. This was unusual, so the manager asked him if he was ill. He replied, no, but his wife was. When she commented on how kind he was to stay with his wife for the day, he said no, that wasn't it. He just couldn't drive without her. He was legally blind and he needed her in the car to help keep him on the road. The manager of volunteers wondered if she should do anything about the volunteer driver's continued tenure with the driving program. This may seem like an extreme case, but I continue to hear stories about volunteers facing or generating significant risks that their organizations simply do not recognize or take seriously.

Risk Management

Risk management is a collection of techniques and procedures implemented to reduce and control risks.

Aims of Risk Management

There are two central and distinct aims of every risk management process.

1. *Prevention of harm and loss* must be the first priority of every risk manager. It is clearly preferable to keep things from going wrong in the first place than it is to deal with the consequences of tragedies and disasters after the fact. By far the least costly accident in terms of personal well-being, financial resources, and managerial and governance anguish is the one that does not take place.
2. *Liability reduction* is a second aim of every risk manager. Given that things can and do go wrong, even with the best prevention mechanisms in place, it is

entirely appropriate to undertake measures that reduce personal and organizational liability exposure.

Risk Management Is Not Difficult or Mysterious

Risk management may sound complicated and highly technical, but in most circumstances, it is neither. All managers engage in risk management at some point or another. For example, screening and training are both exercises in risk management as much as they are part of an organization's human resources management system. Every time a repair is made to a facility, a fire drill is conducted, an elevator is re-certified, a health and safety policy is written, equipment is inspected, or a performance review is conducted, risk management is at play. While these kinds of managerial functions take place regularly, they are rarely perceived as risk management, and few organizations are as systematic about risk management as is called for in most volunteer programs. Much risk management is straightforward common sense (Herman, 2009).

Tremper and Kostin (1993) make good sense when they say:

> *At its heart, risk management is not a new trick, and it's not something mysterious. It's an orientation to everything you do that is highly consistent with every charitable mission. Risk management is not just looking for trouble, it's looking for solutions that make your organization more effective.* (p. 4)

Risk Management Is More than Buying Insurance

One of the most prevalent and most serious risk-related errors made by nonprofit executives (boards and senior staff) is thinking that risk management is synonymous with buying insurance and that buying insurance somehow manages risks. Not only are these assumptions inaccurate, they actually serve to increase risks rather than decrease them.

Risk management involves identifying risks and then setting about to control them. There are hundreds of ways that organizations can control risks—implementing strategies, policies, boundaries, workplace changes, etc., that prevent things from going wrong or lessen their severity if they do. Insurance is merely the financial Band-Aid that is applied after a risk has actually materialized and the organization is facing a financial obligation as a result. A focus on insurance typically diverts decision makers from exercising due diligence. To assume that insurance is either the best or only response to risk is foolhardy at best, and negligent at worst.

This is not to say that organizations should not purchase insurance. On the contrary. It is recommended that organizations sit down with an insurance professional at least once each year to review operations, activities, exposures, and any changes since the last insurance coverage discussion along with recommended types of insurance and degrees of coverage.

Establish a Risk Management Team

Some large organizations employ professional risk managers while others contract outside assistance. Because risks come in so many forms, and because risk management can absorb a significant amount of time, the establishment of a risk management team is recommended. The team approach brings more heads and more areas of expertise to the task, so no one carries the entire burden of what can be a fairly weighty initiative. The team approach allows the engagement of those who are directly involved in the activities, programs, and services that actually generate the risks and liabilities under scrutiny.

Ideally, organizations will have agency-wide risk management teams with representatives from all program areas including governance and administration along with, of course, a representative or two from the volunteer program and/or community service area. If the agency in general is not convinced of the need for overall risk management, then, at minimum, the volunteer resources department should establish its own risk management team. In small volunteer and community service programs, the manager of volunteers may lead the risk management initiative, but he or she should still recruit others to help with the process.

COMPOSITION OF THE RISK MANAGEMENT TEAM Diversity of skill sets and a wide knowledge base are important ingredients in the composition of a risk management team. They encourage creative problem solving and "out of the box thinking." The size and composition of the team can vary, depending primarily on workload, the range of activities to be addressed, and the unique risks that volunteers face in the course of their work for the organization.

Core areas of expertise may be represented by membership on the team, and other areas may only require short-term consultancy to the team. Here is an excellent opportunity for the involvement of highly skilled volunteers in clearly defined, time-limited roles. Representation from the following areas may be helpful:

- Volunteer program staff with firsthand experience of the work under review
- Service volunteers
- Agency staff
- Agency administration and/or financial administration
- Board member(s)
- Client and/or client family member
- Insurance professional
- Human resources professional
- Legal advisor
- Agency staff from areas where volunteers work
- Emergency response, fire department, police
- Health and safety advisor
- Investment advisor
- Other experts as required to cover off areas such as hazardous materials, facilities safety, equipment use, events management, security, and so on

The nature of the organization's business and, in particular, the roles that volunteers fill will guide team composition. Membership may change over time as new issues are tackled. Specialized advice from outside of the organization can be contracted on a paid or pro bono basis from time to time, as new issues arise.

It may not be necessary to have an attorney as a permanent member on the team, but matters related to liability will almost certainly arise, and having an attorney either on retainer or volunteering his or her assistance is a good idea.

Request that outside opinions be provided in writing so that documentation is available in the future if needed. At minimum, the team should record any advice it receives from experts and outside counsel, and the minutes/proceedings of all risk management team deliberations and decisions should be carefully preserved in a secure location well into the future.

SPECIAL EVENTS RISK MANAGEMENT TEAM For organizations that operate large special events or high-risk activities requiring specialized risk management treatment, it may be a good idea to establish an event-specific risk management sub-committee to focus on the issues and heightened perils particular to the event. For more on this specific topic, see Oliver (2010) and Risser and Herman (2009).

ROLE OF THE RISK MANAGEMENT TEAM The role of the risk management team involves nine main components, listed next. Use this list as the basis for the terms of reference of the risk management team.

- Identify risks and liability exposures.
- Sort and prioritize risks.
- Develop a risk management action plan that defines who should do what by when.
- Identify costs and develop a financing plan.
- Implement the plan, including an integral communications and training plan.
- Develop, or recommend the development of, policy related to risk management.
- Monitor risk management as it is operationalized, and ensure compliance is enforced.
- Periodically review the overall risk management action plan and revise as necessary.
- Prepare regular reports to agency administration on plans, exposures, costs, effectiveness.

Use a Risk Management Model

When an organization looks for risks related to volunteer involvement it usually finds them of various types and degrees. The sheer number and magnitude of risks related to most volunteer programs can be staggering, particularly where volunteer program management systems and infrastructure have not been recently updated. The temptation is to rush madly off in all directions, tackling risks in a chaotic manner, a knee-jerk response which can actually generate even more risks and exposures.

A deliberate and systematic approach works best, and the application of a risk management system (model, process) prompts one through a series of steps in the proper sequence, resulting in more thorough and effective risk identification and management. Use of a model cannot be recommended too strongly.

There are several risk management models available to guide and support organizational risk management activities. A favored model is a relatively simple four-step process that offers practical guidance to risk control. Since it can be described only briefly here, readers are urged to learn more about systematic risk management, and to select and follow a model, including the application of its associated tools.

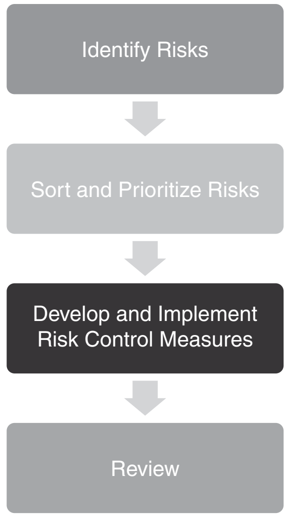

EXHIBIT 14.1 **Risk Management Model**

Risk Management Model

The risk management model presented in Exhibit 14.1 is a four-step planning process that leads the team systematically through a series of steps, allowing and encouraging consideration of a range of action and decision alternatives. This model works equally well with paid and unpaid workers, and at every level in the organization, including governance, administration, support services, maintenance, and delivery of services to clients.

There are four steps in this risk management model:

1. Identify risks
2. Sort and prioritize risks
3. Develop and implement risk control measures
4. Review

Steps of Risk Management

This section profiles the four main steps of the risk management model, including a rudimentary overview of how the model operates.

Step 1: Identify Risks

Start the risk management process by choosing a subsection of the volunteer program to work on: Select any specific service, job description, task, or location. Apply the model to one segment at a time. The smaller and more defined the function being explored, the more specific and helpful—and therefore the more effective—the risk management exercise will be.

All risk management processes start with the question: What could go wrong here? Ask this of each segment of the volunteer program in turn. All reasonable possibilities should be noted. The aim is to create the master list of risks without editing at this point.

APPROACHES TO RISK IDENTIFICATION Identifying risks requires equal measures of brainstorming, foresight, and fantasy.

- *Brainstorming* is a free-flowing, unedited, uncensored exercise of idea generation.
- *Foresight* is about anticipation, about thoughtful and prudent regard for the future, and about being open to what might be.
- *Fantasy* requires imagination, creative visioning, and a willingness to consider the improbable.

A combination of all three approaches decreases the likelihood of missing risks that, without appropriate management, may have a much greater chance of materializing into actual loss or harm.

HOW TO IDENTIFY RISKS Look for risks of all five types:

1. People (volunteers, clients and their family members, paid staff, the board of directors, the general public if they intersect with volunteers' work)
2. Property (real, e.g., furniture, buildings, equipment, vehicles, computers, etc.; electronic, e.g., anything computerized; financial e.g., all financial assets; intellectual, e.g., trademarks, copyrights, training programs, manuals, models of service, etc.)
3. Income (all revenue streams from funders, donors, events, etc.)
4. Goodwill (agency reputation, stature, public trust)
5. Liability (criminal, civil, vicarious)

See Exhibit 14.2 for a host of sample risks and probing questions to prompt the identification of risks.

Invite participation from others who are familiar with the volunteer department and the various roles and responsibilities assigned to volunteers. Ask for input from those who are completely unfamiliar with the operation of the organization. They will notice different things.

Review both current and past operations and occurrences, as well as existing policies, procedures, personnel, and operating manuals. These should comply with all relevant legislation, regulations, codes, licensing agreements, and so on, and need to be considered from the perspective of risk and hazards.

Examine each aspect of service delivery and all job descriptions, disassembling them into component parts and considering what might go wrong in the various pieces, steps and functions.

Send risk identifiers to volunteer work sites. Have them walk the premises and try to pinpoint risks and dangers, considering the safety of the working environment and the state of working conditions. Equipment should be

EXHIBIT 14.2 Risk Identification Worksheet

Risk Areas	Margin Notes ☐ In Place ☐ Needs Work ☐ Comments
1. Previous Harm or Loss What losses have actually been experienced in connection with volunteer activities? ■ Accidents, injuries to persons (clients and/or their family members/ friends, volunteers, staff, event participants, general public) ■ Financial losses: theft, fraud, misappropriation, inadequate record keeping ■ Material losses: equipment, vehicles, buildings, property ■ Public Trust: erosion of goodwill, reputation, public profile ■ Liability: lawsuits—won, lost, or settled, or threats of legal action related to the work of volunteers ■ Other:	
2. Potential Losses Where might accidents, abuses, losses or substandard behavior occur? Have there been any near misses (incidents that could have turned out worse) that could possibly have a less-than-okay outcome at some point in the future? ■ Other:	
3. Fundraising Events What volunteer-involving fundraising events and activities have been undertaken to raise money for the organization? ■ Is the planning adequate? ■ Has someone considered the risks involved before the event is launched? ■ Has the safety and well-being of all persons (organizers, participants, volunteer and paid staff workers, the general public, sponsors) been considered? ■ Are contingency and disaster plans in place, including recruitment of on-call or on-site emergency medical personnel; triage protocols; arrangements for speedy access to closest emergency medical facilities; arrangements for airlifts where necessary? ■ Have facilities, equipment, routes, etc. been checked out well in advance? Is a trained volunteer on call to do the last-minute route check if weather conditions are in flux? ■ Are contracts in place that specify who is responsible for what, including contracts with the providers of security, medical, and other voluntary emergency services? ■ Are contracts with vendors and suppliers all in place, including agreements with third party volunteer groups? Are the agreements and contracts explicit, current, reviewed recently? ■ Have authorities been notified and have all necessary licenses and permits been obtained?	

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 14.2 (*Continued*)

Risk Areas	Margin Notes ☐ In Place ☐ Needs Work ☐ Comments
■ Is there an effective financial management system in place, including collections, bank deposits, receipts, tracking of outstanding funds, etc.? Have the volunteers who will have access to cash been appropriately screened? Security guards (armed?) to monitor cash counting, deposit preparation, transport? Double signatures on all tallies? ■ Are backup systems in place for volunteer no-shows? ■ Are communication systems, reporting systems, authority hierarchy, and decision trees in place and communicated to all? ■ Are criteria in place for event cancellation should the potential arise? ■ Are clear policies and procedures about serving alcohol and/or preparing/handling food in place and communicated to volunteers? ■ Is all necessary event-related insurance coverage in place? Does it include rented and borrowed property? Does it name volunteers as insured? ■ Other	
4. Volunteer-Delivered Client Services Think about direct volunteer-delivered client services. Where might things go wrong? ■ Is there a client-agency service agreement in place that specifies what volunteers will and will not provide? Are the boundaries clear? Does the client's family understand and agree to the boundaries and conditions of the agreement? ■ Are there any limits or controls placed on what volunteers do, or do not do, when they are having direct contact with clients? ■ Where do volunteers go, with whom do they work, and what services do they provide? ■ What hazards might they encounter where they go (e.g., in the home environment, contact with body fluids or other biohazards, other health and safety issues such as back care and environmental hazards, pets, illegal drug use, client friends/family members)? ■ What equipment might they be working with/around; prescription drugs or used syringes by the bedside? ■ What information are they authorized to provide? ■ Where might they be stepping beyond their role, skills, authority? ■ What confidential information might they gather (and store), or come in contact with? ■ Do they have an opportunity to gain access to, or control over, clients' property or financial assets? Do they do banking for clients? Do they know clients' credit card numbers or bank account PINs? ■ Is it acceptable for volunteers to receive gifts from clients? Of any sort or value? ■ Are volunteers in a position to influence the disposition of a client's estate? Is it acceptable for volunteers to be named in the wills of clients? Is it acceptable for a volunteer to become the executor of a client's estate?	

■ Is it acceptable for volunteers to develop personal, intimate, and/or sexual relationships with clients? If this happens, is there protocol in place to guide the agency's response? ■ What kinds of issues are appropriate for discussion at support group meetings, and what issues are referred elsewhere? Do support group leaders have backup and referral information? ■ Have support group leaders dealt with their own issues sufficiently before they start leading others? ■ Other:	
5. Other Volunteer-Based Programming What other programs do volunteers run or assist with? What can go wrong there? ■ Transportation: Who drives whom, where? Is the driver actually licensed, insured, driving a reliable vehicle, a good driver? Has the driver had any serious driving offenses recently? Are there any rules about suspending driving services in inclement weather? ■ Equipment loans: What equipment? Is it checked frequently, and properly maintained by a qualified professional? Is it replaced when necessary? Is it appropriately sanitized when it comes back from loan? Is it appropriately prescribed? Is it sized, fitted to each client? Do the clients know how to use the equipment? Are our volunteers sufficiently knowledgeable to be training clients? ■ Telephone reassurance, information provision, advice giving, crisis response, peer helping, family support, client-client linkages: Are qualified volunteers answering the line? Are they trained? Do they know their boundaries? Do they have backups? Are they supported? Are they allowing their own baggage to get in the way of their work for the organization? Are they reliable, trustworthy? ■ Physician and other health professional referral programs: Does information ever become advice? Is advice giving within the boundaries of the position? Is the information unbiased, current? ■ Support groups: Who is leading what kinds of groups, on what kinds of issues, with what kinds of qualifications? Do they have guidelines about boundaries, topics, process? Do they have backups? Does anyone ever check on their performance? ■ Child care/supervision: Are volunteers ever granted access to young children as part of their work for the organization? Have volunteers who have access to young children been screened to an acceptable standard for this kind of work? Are young children in the home or at the camp during respite care provision? Is there opportunity for the volunteer to spend time alone with the children? Have boundaries and codes of conduct been developed and communicated to volunteers about working with children? Is intimate care involved? If yes, is there a rule about always having a second adult present during its provision? ■ Other:	
6. Volunteer Program Management Issues Think about the full range of functions required to keep a volunteer program operating. This set of tasks, called the volunteer involvement	

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 14.2 (*Continued*)

Risk Areas	Margin Notes ☐ In Place ☐ Needs Work ☐ Comments
cycle, usually involves some measure of each of these: position planning, job design, recruitment, screening, orientation and training, placement, supervision, recognition, performance management, discipline and dismissal, program evaluation. In chapter-based and local all-volunteer branches, the activities related to finding and keeping volunteers are typically not so formal. Nonetheless, a prudent organization can supply guidelines to its chapters about some of the basic systems that will help local groups to mobilize and organize volunteer participation in a safe, productive, and satisfying manner. How are local or regional chapters doing in this regard? Where are the risks? ■ Does someone consider the risks and liabilities associated with a service or a volunteer job before volunteers are recruited? ■ Do written position descriptions exist for every position? Are they updated regularly? Do codes of conduct, boundaries, and backups exist, and are they clearly communicated to volunteers to ensure that volunteers do not get in over their heads? ■ Are volunteers adequately screened for every position? Volunteers who do not meet minimum requirements or who are otherwise not appropriate: Are they turned away? ■ Do all volunteers receive the necessary orientation to the organization and the necessary training to complete their assignments safely? ■ Are volunteers supervised appropriately? Does someone check in with them with sufficient frequency? Are they required to report back on their activities? ■ Is there a system in place to elicit feedback about volunteer performance? Does anyone check in with the client or the client's family to make sure the volunteer is delivering appropriate and acceptable services? ■ Does the organization reserve the right to ask a volunteer to stop volunteering? Is that communicated to the volunteer in advance? Does anyone in the organization know how to do this respectfully and legally? ■ Are there information and tracking systems in place in the volunteer program? Is sufficient documentation being created so that the organization can prove its diligence and defend itself in the event of some kind of legal action? ■ Are there policies in place to guide both the deployment of the volunteer workforce (e.g., "hiring," remuneration, budget, discipline and dismissal, etc.) as well as all of the activities that volunteers do? Are all policies in writing, and have they been communicated to volunteers? Are they enforced? Are they consistent with agency mission and values? Are they in line with all relevant legislation? Are they reviewed regularly and updated as necessary?	

■ Are there sufficient, knowledgeable volunteer program management staff in place to plan, operate, supervise, and monitor volunteer activities and the costs of involving volunteers (e.g., sufficient training resources, appropriate materials, and equipment, staff training in how to work effectively with volunteers)? ■ Is there adequate insurance coverage in place to protect volunteers themselves as well as people they work with and the organization? ■ Other:	
7. Material Resources Review all volunteer-related documentation that has the effect of creating control systems around any of the things volunteers do for the organization. Think about operations, events, and other fundraising activities, and client services. Here are some examples: ■ Communication or reporting forms, systems, flowcharts, hierarchies ■ Contingency plans ■ Incident report forms ■ Waivers, informed consents, hold harmless agreements ■ Volunteer or participant registration forms ■ Volunteer screening interview or reference checking forms ■ Sample contracts with third party suppliers, facility providers, vendors, or other kinds of partners ■ Client assessment forms, equipment loans forms ■ Service agreements (for when volunteers work with clients) ■ Volunteer job descriptions or training materials or agency volunteer contracts that identify boundaries around volunteer positions ■ Codes of conduct or other documents that might help to define appropriate/inappropriate volunteer behavior ■ Sample policy manuals, volunteer handbooks, branch operating guides ■ Event planning guides ■ Financial management guidelines for chapter operations and money tracking forms for fundraising events	
8. Other	

examined, buildings inspected, staff-client and collegial relationships observed. Questions to ask include:

- Do people know where the emergency exits are?
- Do people know where the fire extinguishers are?
- Do people know where the first aid supplies are?
- Do people know who to call in an emergency?
- Do people know what priorities should prevail (for example, always the safety of persons first) in the event of a threat or disaster?
- Do volunteers know that they have the right to protect themselves and others when in danger, and equally, what the limits of their authority are?

Try to imagine the setting in emergency situations and ask: "What would need to be done and who should do it?"

Safety records, workers' compensation claims, and serious incident occurrence reports are good sources of past dangers that may need additional attention.

These techniques will assist in the creation of the master list of risks. At this stage all risks are recorded. Even risks that are currently assessed to be "under control" should be included on the list.

Step 2: Sort and Prioritize Risks

Risk identification processes typically turn up more risks than an organization can respond to at any given time. Indeed, the list can be daunting if not paralyzing. It is important for the risk management team to proceed without delay to the second step in the risk management process, which involves sorting and prioritizing the risks on the master list. The objective is to identify the most urgent risks that demand immediate attention, and further prioritize the remaining list by degrees of urgency. Focusing on the smaller number of most urgent risks can lessen the sense of panic, and prioritization allows the risk management team to work systematically, attending to the most urgent risks at any given time.

Step 2 is accomplished by the application of two critical questions to each risk on the list. They are:

1. *Likelihood of occurrence.* What is the likelihood that this risk will materialize into actual loss or harm?
2. *Magnitude of harm.* If the risk does materialize how significant might the consequences be?

Each of these questions is explored more fully in the next sections.

LIKELIHOOD OF OCCURRENCE Consider the probability of each risk materializing into actual loss or harm. The planning horizon for this question should be limited, perhaps to five to seven years. That is, how likely is it that this risk will become reality in the next five to seven years? Statistical precision is not the aim. A three-point scale is recommended, as follows:

1. *Low.* A rare event; has not occurred, or very unusual; very unlikely that this risk will materialize into harm, loss or liability, but not impossible
2. *Medium.* Risk has occurred, but infrequently; somewhat likely that this risk will materialize into harm, loss, or liability
3. *High.* A recurrent risk or one very likely to materialize into harm, loss, or liability; future incident(s) should be expected

Take into consideration what is known about each risk and the circumstances around it. Research frequency of previous occurrences in your setting and elsewhere.

EXHIBIT 14.3 **Risk Assessment Worksheet**

Risk ID #	Risk	Likelihood of Occurrence*	Magnitude of Harm*	Comments

*Rate on a scale of low, medium, or high.

ASSESS LIKELIHOOD OF OCCURRENCE IN RELATION TO EXISTING RISK MITIGATION STRATEGIES Assess risk in the context of risk management techniques already in place—strategies and circumstances that diminish likelihood of occurrence. For example, using a power saw is a dangerous activity, but a well maintained device in the hands of a skilled builder significantly reduces the risk of injury. Random spot checks and thorough supervision boost compliance with policies and procedures. Good training reduces the likelihood that a volunteer will not meet performance standards.

Assign a rating of low, medium, or high likelihood to each risk. Results can be entered in Exhibit 14.3.

The "Comments" column on the Risk Assessment Worksheet allows the team to record additional information or rationale for its assessment of likelihood of occurrence. Likelihood of occurrence can be assessed by the risk management team as a whole, or individually by team members who then come together as a group to discuss their ratings. As at any point in the risk management process, the committee may decide to invite the input of others more directly involved in the activity or position under review.

There are no absolute acceptable occurrence rates. What one program might judge to be frequent, and therefore intolerable without some form of mitigating action, could be judged by another program to be a normal part of doing business and well within tolerable levels. In general, however, risks that have a high or medium likelihood of materializing will need some form of risk control treatment. Risks that exist, but that are unlikely to materialize may, at first, seem to require no further attention. The team might be tempted to dismiss them as "nothing to worry about." However, even risks that are rated at the lowest end of the "likelihood" scale must be examined from the second risk evaluation perspective before being dismissed.

MAGNITUDE OF HARM For each risk on the master list, rate the magnitude of harm of the consequences should the risk materialize. Ask questions such as these:

- How significant might the injuries, losses, or harm be?
- How many people could be involved?
- Should secondary consequences such as lawsuits or reputation damage be expected?
- Are the potential consequences something the organization should pay attention to, or are they something that can be lived with?

A three-point scale is recommended, as follows:

1. *Low.* Consequences are inconsequential and easily recovered from, e.g., minor injury, small financial loss.
2. *Medium.* Consequences are substantial but not ruinous, e.g., significant personal injury, appreciable financial loss, substantive property damage, some media coverage possible.
3. *High.* Consequences are severe, potentially jeopardizing organization's ability to recover (e.g., loss of life, immense financial loss, catastrophic property damage, loss of public trust unlikely repairable).

ASSESS MAGNITUDE OF HARM IN RELATION TO EXISTING RISK MITIGATION STRATEGIES In assessing magnitude of harm, consider harm reduction strategies already in place. For example:

- Volunteers handling chain saws may experience injuries, but they wear special protective gear that significantly reduces the seriousness of injury.
- Abuse detection and reporting strategies are in place to ensure that inappropriate behaviour is recognized and dealt with immediately.
- Volunteers doing home visits call in to log the impending visit including anticipated return time; a designated watcher immediately reports failure to return to the appropriate authorities.
- Emergency medical facilities are identified and notified along the route of the fundraising bikeathon, speeding medical response.
- Evacuation and crisis communication and response protocols are in place, ready for immediate initiation as needed; leaders are identified, know their roles, and perform drills as needed.

Assign a rating of low, medium, or high likelihood to each risk. Results can be entered in Exhibit 14.3.

ASSIGNING RELATIVE PRIORITIES When the likelihood of occurrence and magnitude of harm have been rated, the team begins to assign relative priority rankings. The respective degree of urgency is calculated for each risk. A higher degree of urgency suggests the need for more immediate action. Risks of lesser urgency must wait. Prioritizing can be very helpful to an organization faced with decisions about how to allocate scarce risk management resources. It sets the risk management "to do" list for the foreseeable future.

The risk priority map in Exhibit 14.4 is a simple and useful tool for calculating and displaying the relative urgency of risks. It provides a quick way to consolidate the likelihood of occurrence and magnitude of harm assessments, and portray their respective ratings in a single visual representation.

The Risk Priority Map is a two-way matrix in which the vertical axis represents likelihood of occurrence on the three-point scale. The horizontal axis represents the three-point scale of magnitude of harm. To complete the matrix, place the ID number of each risk in the cell which represents its relative likelihood of occurrence and magnitude of harm ratings. Risks that are very likely to occur will be plotted higher

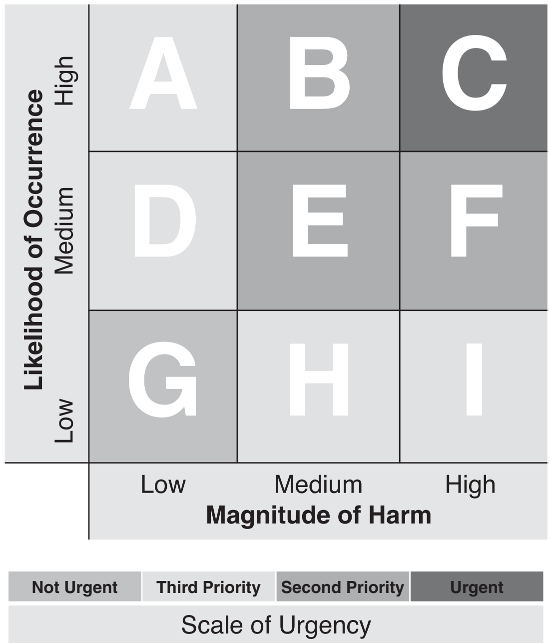

EXHIBIT 14.4 **Risk Priority Map**

on the map; those that are less likely to occur will be plotted lower. Risks that are likely to generate significant harm will be plotted further to the right of the map; those likely to cause minimal harm will be plotted closer to the left of the map.

Each of the nine cells in the risk priority map represents a unique combination of likelihood of occurrence and magnitude of harm. While circumstances vary, the following is a suggested order in which risks should be tackled, based on their placement on the map:

1st Priority. Urgent action: Cell C
2nd Priority. As soon as possible: Cells F, B, and E
3rd Priority. Work through when time permits: Cells A, I, D, and H
4th Priority. Not urgent: Cell G (these may already have been dropped from the list.)

Step 3: Develop and Implement Risk Control Measures

A wide range of risk control mechanisms exists. Few risks are satisfactorily mitigated by just one strategy. It is a combination of risk control strategies that typically brings best results. The recommended selection process involves brainstorming a wide array of strategies, making decisions about implementation only after all apparent options have been listed and considered. See the section "Risk Management through the Volunteer Involvement Cycle" later in this chapter for a wide range of risk control strategies around volunteer program management. Following are four broad approaches to risk control.

STOP ACTIVITY Certain risks are best controlled by simply stopping, or ceasing involvement in, the risk-producing activity. This may sound like a radical solution, but it need not mean cancelling the service, withdrawing volunteers, or closing the organization's doors. Stopping the activity might mean terminating single action or function in a larger service area or administrative function. For example:

- Children are not allowed to spend considerable time in the company of just one person in an isolated setting; overnights are cancelled and alternate methods are developed to instill the aims of the cancelled activity.
- The volunteer application form is revised to comply with human rights legislation.
- Client eligibility criteria are refined, allowing refusal of service to any client who poses a danger to staff and volunteers.

Stopping the activity might mean postponement to a safer time or place. For example:

- Postpone the picnic when it begins to storm; cancel the ski trip in the presence of freezing rain.
- Wait until a second camp counselor is present before conducting tent checks after lights out.
- After the tree in the backyard is damaged in a windstorm, all personnel and clients remain inside until the debris can be cleared away and the stability of what remains is assessed.
- Adult literacy tutors meet their students in the public library.

Stopping the activity might mean cutting out a function that is most dangerous, leaving the remainder to operate within risk tolerance boundaries. For example:

- Palliative care volunteers do not involve themselves in clients' financial affairs.
- Friendly visitors are prohibited from driving their clients
- Crisis response volunteers provide support and referral but do not counsel or give advice.

From time to time, a volunteer position, or a specific service or activity may be identified as too risky to be sustainable. When the magnitude of the risk warrants it, radical action should not be avoided.

DECREASE LIKELIHOOD This approach to risk mitigation involves a wide range of possible strategies that could reduce the likelihood of a risk materializing into actual loss or harm. This step, in essence, is about prevention. For example:

- Change procedures, update equipment, implement new rules, set additional boundaries to keep volunteers safe.
- Pay closer attention to personnel requirements, increase minimum position qualifications, upgrade to new screening protocols.

- Hire security guards or off-duty police officers to guard fundraising events where there is a lot of cash on hand (e.g., bingos, carnivals, walkathons, bikeathons, charity casinos).
- Have staff, rather than volunteers, feed those patients who are at greatest risk of choking.
- Insist that volunteer activity take place on site or only in the presence of others.
- Increase training and supervision for volunteers.
- Remove the skateboards from the equipment boxes at the after-school program.
- Install handrails on all stairs and grab bars in all showers.
- Move the petty cash box from the shelf in the main office and lock it in a cabinet to which only two people have a key.
- Partition databases and institute a password system to limit access to sensitive or vital agency records.

Following is a quick checklist to prompt risk mitigation thinking.

Four *P*s of Risk Elimination

1. *Position.* Are there changes to the volunteer position that could be made to prevent or reduce harm?
2. *Person.* Are there changes related to the person in the position or to the personnel complement of the program that could prevent or reduce harm?
3. *Physical environment.* Are there alterations to the environment in which the position takes place that might prevent or reduce harm?
4. *Performance management.* Is it possible to supervise, support, or work more closely with the volunteer in such a way as to enhance prevention?

In reality, it is virtually impossible to eliminate all risk, but this step in the risk management model encourages consideration of all reasonable mechanisms that will reduce the likelihood of loss, injury, or liability.

MINIMIZE HARM Even where all reasonable risk elimination mechanisms have been implemented, it is likely that some measure of risk will still be present. The next risk control approach directs attention to reducing the degree of harm that might result if the risk materializes. For example:

- Train fundraising staff and volunteers thoroughly. If the event is subject to robbery, the protocol is "hit the dirt and let 'em have the cash!"
- Insist on protective clothing, special equipment, safety boots, protective eyewear, etc. where appropriate.
- Install extra-sensitive smoke detectors throughout the facility
- Keep no more than $50 in the petty cash box at any given time; if it does sprout legs and take a walk, the loss is minimized.
- Keep detailed files on all risk management deliberations, and maintain up-to-date agency policies and procedures—if legal action is launched, the organization has tangible proof of all it has tried to do to control risks and prevent harm.

- Allocate responsibilities in such a way that only staff and volunteers who are calm, stable, and reliable are assigned to positions of first response in the event of a calamity.
- Regularly and frequently back up all sensitive and vital data so that little is lost in the event of a power failure, fire, flood, or other peril.
- Implement a performance review system that promotes early detection of errors or other substandard performance.
- Prepare a disaster response plan including, for example, emergency chain of command, an evacuation plan, crisis communications strategy, and critical incident stress debriefings.

TRANSFER LIABILITY Increasing numbers of charitable organizations across the United States, and more recently, in Canada and beyond, are facing legal action because of accidents, injuries, and abuse, and the allegations of negligence that typically follow. When all other risk mitigation strategies have been considered and every reasonable effort has been made to reduce risks and minimize harm, when the organization believes that it has met its ethical obligations and satisfied its duty of care, then it is appropriate for the organization to consider its own liability in connection with its operations. Note, however, that it is neither legally nor ethically defensible to identify a risk and then move directly to liability reduction, thereby bypassing all attempts at prevention and control. Everything reasonable should be done to prevent and reduce harm before attention and resources are devoted to liability reduction.

This is not to say that responsible organizations are not obliged to tend to their own liability exposure. On the contrary, this fourth approach to risk mitigation—transfer liability—directs the organization to move remaining liability to another party. Suggestions for transferring liability include:

- Implement memoranda of agreement with partners and collaborators that identify who is responsible for what.
- Implement hold harmless agreements, waivers.
- Contract the most risky activities to another organization or company that is better qualified, better prepared, or a specialist in that field—transport the really ill client by ambulance, not by volunteer driver; hire a moving company when the agency moves.
- Fully investigate insurance needs; research insurance types, and consult an insurance advisor concerning insurance requirements; purchase recommended instruments; review operations and changing insurance needs annually.
- Implement a call-in process whereby volunteers facing uncertainty while on duty call for advice and direction, effectively transferring much of the responsibility and liability back to the organization.
- Ensure that risks and exposures are reported to supervisory staff and agency leaders, with notification of the greatest risks being reported to the board on a routine basis; this transfers responsibility and liability up the organizational hierarchy with the largest exposures resting at highest echelons of organizational leadership. Memoranda and briefing papers outlining risks and recommended

actions create a trail of proof of due diligence in the handling of risks throughout the organization.

When an organization transfers a liability, it must do so responsibly. It should be certain the other entity or individual is appropriately screened, licensed, insured, bonded, or whatever other qualifications are fitting.

Risk Management through the Volunteer Involvement Cycle

Following is a list of risk management tips structured to follow the volunteer involvement cycle (Graff, 2003). Most of these risk management tips are simply good volunteer management practices.

VOLUNTEER MANAGEMENT
Planning

- Think through what volunteers will be asked to do in your chapter, department, program, agency; how will their work interface with the work of paid staff?
- Ensure that sufficient resources are allocated to the volunteer program to ensure safe and effective operation.
- Hire professionally qualified volunteer program management staff who have experience in coordinating volunteers in your organization's line of business.
- Research federal, state, and local laws that might apply to volunteers in your organization, e.g., laws pertaining to privacy and confidentiality; volunteer immunity; labor laws; human rights; workers' occupational health and safety; legal obligation to report, in particular, offenses related to abuse of children, elder abuse, etc.; be sure that all aspects of your volunteer program are in compliance with all relevant legislation.

Position Design

- Consciously consider the potential for risk, harm, and loss in the development of all volunteer positions.
- Develop minimum qualifications for each volunteer position and be certain that they are directly related to the requirements of the position.
- Develop clear boundaries around all volunteer positions, e.g., how much physical and/or intimate care is acceptable for a volunteer to provide to clients? Are there some kinds of limits that volunteers should maintain in their relationships with clients? Are personal, social, and/or intimate relationships acceptable? What kinds of in-home household help is acceptable/unacceptable for volunteers to provide to clients? Is it acceptable for volunteer support group leaders to give out their home phone numbers and addresses? Is it acceptable for adult volunteers who have met child clients through in-house or online programs to arrange additional in-person meetings with those children?
- Clarify all position boundaries in position descriptions, and explain them fully in volunteer training sessions.
- Support all volunteer position boundaries in agency policy and monitor regularly through volunteer supervision.

- Review volunteer job descriptions regularly; identify any changes in working environment, position demands, volunteer capabilities, client needs, or supervision and/or supports around the position that might be generating new or bigger risks since the previous review.
- In the design or review of volunteer positions, consider all of the things that might be done to reduce inherent risks such as: have volunteers work on-site, in groups, or as teams; move the service from behind closed doors into a more public environment or at least have a window cut into the door; reducing risks inherent in volunteer positions is usually easier and more cost-effective than screening more intensively or training more thoroughly.

Recruitment

- Make sure that recruitment efforts are targeted at the kinds of volunteers who meet minimum position requirements.

Screening

- Acceptance should never be automatic—screen all volunteers as carefully as the requirements\of the position demand.
- Where positions are more demanding or involve a higher degree of trust, screen volunteers more thoroughly.
- Establish automatic disqualifiers for positions of trust (e.g., a history of child molestation would be an automatic disqualifier for any position involving direct (and maybe even indirect?) contact with children; a relatively recent drunk driving offense would be an automatic disqualifier for the position of camp bus driver, etc.).
- Establish uniform mechanisms for rating the suitability of candidates, and be sure that all\rejections are clearly based on a fair assessment of the candidate's inability to perform the job as outlined.
- Ensure that all volunteers meet minimum position requirements.
- Do not lower your screening standards because volunteers are hard to find, or you are desperate to place someone right away, or you have clients on a waiting list; do not skip any steps in the screening protocol because the interview went really well, you know the candidate, everybody knows the candidate, or the candidate is the parent of one of the children in the program.
- Ensure that all screening processes are in compliance with relevant human rights legislation.
- If volunteers are to be asked to perform work that requires significant physical exertion, the organization might, at minimum, ask about physical strength/ability/stamina in the personal interview and ensure that the physical requirements of the position are well spelled out on the position description; in extreme cases, the organization might consider requiring volunteers to submit a medical certificate of fitness to perform the work in question.
- When volunteers cannot be screened to the same standard as other volunteers (youth, recent immigrants, etc.), supplement the screening process with other sources of information, reduce risks in the position, place in a less risky position, or increase supervision.

- Ensure that all persons conducting screening understand relevant legislation and agency policy, particularly where the screeners are volunteers screening other volunteers.
- Keep thorough records of screening procedures and the basis for screening decisions; store them in a secure location for a reasonable duration, keeping in mind that screening decisions may be challenged by a rejected candidate alleging discrimination, defamation, or breach of privacy, or by a claimant seeking damages for negligent hiring; in any event, the challenge to a screening decision might not arise for some time in the future.

Orientation

- All volunteers should be oriented to the mission of the organization, the requirements of their position, and the culture of the worksite.

Training

- Adequately train all volunteers in the performance of their duties.
- Consider making all of the critical components of the volunteer training program mandatory, and refuse to place volunteers until they have satisfied the mandatory training requirements.
- Take attendance at training sessions to ensure compliance with mandatory requirements.
- Consider requiring volunteers to sign off on the training content they have received.
- In high-risk positions, consider testing volunteers to ensure they have grasped the fundamentals of the training program and understand the boundaries of their positions.
- Be certain that training is refreshed for non-regular or special events volunteers who may not have served, for example, since last year's event.
- Periodically review the volunteer training program, position by position, to ensure adequacy, currency, relevance.
- If working conditions, client needs, project goals, or any other pertinent work-related elements have changed, or even if it's just a matter of significant time having passed since the last volunteer training session, consider offering/requiring an updated volunteer training session.

Placement

- Prospective volunteers should understand that placement is at the organization's discretion.
- There should be a good fit between the volunteer's abilities, and the requirements of the position.
- Volunteers should be required to sign a volunteer-agency contract (memorandum of understanding, mutual agreement, etc.) through which they certify that they have read, understood, and agree to comply with agency policies and procedures (See Graff, 2003, Appendix G for a sample contract).

Supervision and Performance Management

- Remember that no matter how thoroughly you screen, inappropriate or deliberately harmful volunteers can still slip through; thorough screening is no substitute for thorough supervision.
- Produce a small and user-friendly handbook for volunteers; include in it important rules, behavioral expectations/boundaries, prohibitions, who to contact in the case of an emergency.
- Designate a specific supervisor for every volunteer.
- Ensure that supervisors check in regularly with volunteers.
- Implement a system of random, unannounced spot checks in all positions where volunteers work with vulnerable people in unsupervised settings.
- Include in all program and event evaluation programs an assessment of volunteer performance; the results should inform which volunteers are retained or invited back to work at the next event.
- Ensure that a volunteer discipline and dismissal policy is clearly articulated and enforced; include in the policy clear grounds for disciplinary action, and be sure that supervisors understand and comply with documentation requirements.
- Periodically review the staff-volunteer ratio to ensure that volunteers receive adequate supervision and support.
- Recognize and manage the increased risks that are associated with volunteers working off-site; add regular check-ins and supports to volunteers working off-site; use random, unannounced spot checks to monitor the appropriateness of interactions and compliance with boundaries; in high-risk situations, be sure to check in with service recipients as well.
- Make certain that the program evaluation and volunteer performance management systems include input from the clients with whom volunteers work.

Evaluation

- Ensure that the volunteer program is evaluated on a regular basis and that the results of the evaluation program are integrated into ongoing volunteer program planning.

Volunteer Program Infrastructure

- Develop and implement operational policies to guide all aspects of volunteer involvement; review them regularly and keep them current.
- Develop additional policies that guide volunteer behaviour of all sorts, including, for example, dress code, dependability, compliance with boundaries, and prohibitions for actions such as discrimination, harassment, sexual harassment, use of drugs/alcohol on or before the volunteer shift, etc.
- Implement a volunteer-agency agreement that spells out the mutual obligations of both parties.
- Implement an agency-wide risk management policy that has received input from, and approval by, the board of directors.

- Create a clear chain of command to ensure that each level of decision making is managed by those who are appropriately screened, skilled, experienced, and authorized.
- Review insurance needs, and purchase whatever insurance coverage is necessary.
- Consult the risk management specialists or legal department at head office for advice on risk management and insurance questions.
- Think about premises security, e.g., develop a system for tracking all keys (to buildings, desks, file cabinets, storage units and supply cupboards, and hazardous materials storage areas); monitor who has keys to what, and replace as necessary as volunteers leave the organization.
- Develop a volunteer dress code that ensures that volunteers dress appropriately for the work they are going to do, including, for example, for special events and camp positions, the requirement that volunteers wear sturdy shoes, and appropriate protective clothing for the weather conditions, as well as for insects, sun exposure, poisonous plants, and other environmental perils.
- Implement a sexual harassment policy; train your staff and volunteers about what constitutes inappropriate behavior; make sure the policy applies to clients as well, and communicate boundaries clearly to everyone.
- Develop and implement a universal precautions policy (infectious disease) that covers all staff and volunteers.

CLIENT SERVICES

Working with Clients

- Articulate clear limits on the kind and extent of physical/intimate contact volunteers may have with clients.
- Establish clear service contracts which specify what will and will not be provided; ensure that both the client and any relevant family members know and understand the limits of the contract before service delivery is initiated.
- Review all documentation protocols; ensure that volunteers receive training on how and what to record.
- Review the status of clients on a regular basis and be certain that it is still safe for volunteers to be delivering services as outlined in the service agreement.

Money and Other Assets

- Limit the opportunity for volunteers to handle clients' money; if volunteers must handle clients' money, implement limitations and sign-off procedures to prevent theft and mistaken allegations of theft.
- Volunteers who have access to clients' or organization funds should be screened thoroughly, including a police records check, references, and possibly a credit bureau check.

Confidential Information

- Develop a confidential information policy which defines what is recorded/kept and where; who can gain access to records, for what purpose; how long materials are retained; how they are destroyed.

- Develop a clear client confidentiality policy and train volunteers thoroughly in compliance.
- Caution all volunteers that no sensitive documents should be removed from the premises without authorization, and no sensitive material should ever be reviewed or discussed in public places.

Volunteers in Events

- A (paid or unpaid) supervisor should be trained and appointed to circulate at all special events to ensure that volunteers following procedures have the materials and equipment they need to do their work, etc.; the supervisor is authorized and equipped (e.g., with transportation, communications devices, etc.) to pursue (within reasonable boundaries) solutions to the problems s/he might encounter.
- Keep in mind that major shifts in weather conditions or the impact of storms can make previously safe activities and settings perilous and even life-threatening; these possibilities should be part of the "what if" scenarios reviewed in the risk identification stage of risk management.
- Establish, well in advance of the event, the criteria that will be applied in the determination of whether an event should be postponed/cancelled; make certain that the decision-making process is not impaired by the amount of work, investment, and anticipation that has built up through the preparation process, and that key values such as safety and prevention are kept in sharp focus.
- Check your agreements with third party groups that help with your organization's events and activities: Is there an agreement in writing about what they will and will not do? Whose insurance covers their volunteers at your event? Have their volunteers been appropriately screened and trained to do the work? Whose policies, standards, rules apply to them? To whom are they accountable when they are working for your organization?

Other

- Develop a protocol by which volunteers document and report to their supervisors any unusual incidents or circumstances they have encountered in the completion of their volunteer duties.
- Develop an agency-wide corporate culture which encourages and rewards risk awareness, risk identification and reporting, and active participation in risk control strategies.
- Maintain frequent communication with others in your organization who are responsible for health and safety issues.
- Establish and enforce a system of routine checks of equipment, vehicle safety, and health and safety supplies; repair, replace, restock as necessary (PP. 182–190).

Step 4: Review

Review is the fourth step in risk management. The process should be continuous with risk management integrated into other systems (Institute of Risk Management, 2002). Herman says it is an approach to problem identification and solving (2009,

p. vii), and Tremper and Kostin (1993) say it should be an orientation to all other volunteer program management functions. Here are a few suggested review and ongoing risk management strategies:

- Build a review of the risk management system into the annual evaluation, policy review, and personnel appraisal systems.
- Monitor changes in legislation, bylaws, community standards, and legal precedents that may alter organizational responsibilities and/or liabilities.
- Contract the (pro bono if you can) services of an attorney who agrees to monitor legal decisions that might have an impact on the standard of care.
- Perform annual position reviews to ensure that conditions have not changed, or new hazards emerged.
- Check all equipment and facilities regularly, make repairs and update procedures accordingly.
- Consider the effectiveness of risk control strategies currently in place. Are they working? Are risks controlled to an acceptable level? Is residual risk within the organization's tolerance zone?
- Re-implement the risk management process, looking at successively lower-priority lists until the master list of risks is dealt with, all the while scanning for new and emerging risks that demand attention.

Supporting the Risk Management Process

There are many things an organization can do to support and facilitate risk management connected to volunteer involvement. In this section, three key strategies are discussed.

Create a Risk-Aware Culture

Enlisting help in the risk identification and management process is critical to early detection and effective control of risks. Best practice involves the development of a positive organizational culture that both empowers and rewards all personnel for risk identification, reporting and control initiatives.

HOW TO CREATE A RISK-AWARE CULTURE *Communicate*. Create opportunities to talk about risk. Help volunteers understand that risk is a normal part of doing business. Urge them to be conscious of risks in their day-to-day environment. Encourage identification and reporting of risks wherever volunteers work throughout the organization. Make sure that employees feel comfortable reporting risks related to volunteer involvement. Communicate that risk management creates a safer working environment for all.

Educate. Enhance risk identification skills through ongoing training, case conferences, in-service sessions, supervisory meetings, performance reviews, etc. Help volunteers to understand the full range of risk control options available in their own area of the workplace, including the small things that everybody can do to increase safety. Help them to know what issues should be reported, and to whom.

Appreciate: Reward everyone who identifies and reports risks. Make risk management a competency area and build it into the volunteer performance management system. Announce successes, publicly acknowledge and reward volunteers' efforts to make the workplace and the organization's services safer for everyone. Attention to risk management and good risk reduction ideas could become the basis of a special annual volunteer recognition award.

Implement. People need to see that their efforts bring results. Follow up on all suggestions. Implement risk control strategies and report back to the risk identifier on actions that have been taken.

Connection Between Risk Management and Policy and Procedure Development

Policies and procedures are indispensable in all risk control steps. Policies identify "what" is to be done. They establish standards and expectations. They are like rules and laws (Graff, 1997), establishing the boundaries beyond which volunteers ought not stray. They define what is and what is not acceptable, and specifically what to do in the event of trouble. Policies and procedures are therefore critical to risk management as a preventive device. They are equally important to reducing liability exposure since they are concrete proof of all the agency has done to try to identify risks and prevent harm—evidence of attempts at due diligence. For more on policies, see the author's "Policy Development For Volunteer Involvement," Chapter 7 in this volume.

But We Can't Afford to Do Risk Management—Allocating Sufficient Resources to Support Risk Management

There are hard costs involved in the implementation of risk management. Most will be related to personnel because risk management can be time consuming. The cost of the risk management strategies that flow out of the risk management process is difficult to estimate. For organizations that involve only a few volunteers, or have them performing relatively low-risk work, and for organizations that already have many of their risks well under control, the costs of implementing minor risk management upgrades may be relatively minimal. For other organizations, the costs could be higher.

Unfortunately, there are still many agency administrators (boards and senior executives) who fail to see the wisdom and profitability of investing in volunteer program infrastructure. There is often a sense in the sector that volunteer work is unpaid work and so the volunteer program should run without cost as well. To be fair, operating nonprofit organizations is becoming evermore complex and onerous. Increased demands, a constantly changing environment, and too-small budgets have become the norm. But opting for short-term savings from volunteer program infrastructure cuts (without fully understanding the potential longer-term risks of whopping legal bills, fatal damage awards, and more importantly, possible harm to people) is at minimum, nearsighted, if not unethical and negligent.

Herman (2009) says it is an irony of effective risk management that it is impossible to document the losses avoided due to precautionary efforts. Without trying to fearmonger, it is advisable to consider from time to time how a serious loss or harm could damage the organization's public trust or make operational recovery impossible.

The degree of responsibility, fiscal and otherwise, that an agency demonstrates for its volunteer program must be commensurate with the magnitude of responsibility it delegates to its volunteers. At present, many agencies are "out of sync" in this regard. This is a hard line, but it must be said: If the costs of implementing appropriate risk management techniques are judged by an organization to be too high, then perhaps this is a signal to think through whether it is wise for the organization to be operating such a volunteer program, or at least whether placing volunteers in positions of significant risk is the prudent thing to do. It is unlikely that the courts will absolve an organization of responsibility for harm, based on the defense that the organization could not afford to do a good job of managing the volunteers it mobilized.

Conclusion

Risk management may sound like a lot of work, and it can be. Remember that organizations and their personnel are actually doing much of it all the time anyway, just not systematically. Following the risk management model outlined in this chapter prompts managers to ask the right questions in the right order, generating risk management solutions throughout the volunteer program and throughout the organization.

Remember that very few programs involve no risks, and very few risky situations are managed with only one risk control mechanism. Fully evaluating the range of risks that prevails and then systematically exploring all risk reduction mechanisms can generate a properly tailored constellation of mechanisms for each situation. The process will help organizations set and operate within their own risk tolerance zones. The kind of comprehensive program review that a risk management process necessitates generates more productive and satisfying volunteer involvement, and more effective services to clients and communities as well.

Not engaging in risk management will not make the risks go away. Not managing and controlling risks increases the likelihood of a risk materializing into real loss or harm, thereby increasing liability *and* the probability of losing a legal action if, or when, one is launched.

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Web Sites for Information on Risk Management

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www.charity-commission.gov.uk/
www.iciclesoftware.com/vlh7/
www.charitycentral.ca/site/
www.nonprofitrisk.org
www.theirm.org/index.html
www.volunteerlawyers.org/

Ingrid M. Johansen's excellent four-part series of articles entitled "Legal Issues in School Volunteer Programs" has general information on legal issues relating to volunteer involvement. They are available:

Part I: www.sog.unc.edu/pubs/electronicversions/slb/slb97sp.pdf
Part II: www.sog.unc.edu/pubs/electronicversions/slb/97sum.pdf
Part III: www.sog.unc.edu/pubs/electronicversions/slb/wtrslb98.htm
Part IV: www.sog.unc.edu/pubs/electronicversions/slb/slb98sp1.pdf

PART II

Strategic Deployment and Implementation

The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

DIGITAL F

Marketing Volunteerism for Specialized Cohorts

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When one hears the phrase "I volunteer" one thinks about how nice it is for someone to give back to the community. We don't think about how they got to volunteer, what are their special skills or even what they do through their volunteering. There have been many instances that instead of asking why people volunteer that the next response is "isn't that nice."

So the questions that come to mind are:

Who volunteers?
How did they hear of us?
What do they want and what should they expect from us?
How do we keep them engaged with so much competition out there for such a limited resource?

Over the years there have been new trends emerging that will have a long term effect on volunteer programs and how we manage volunteers.

Time is becoming one of the most precious commodities. We are being bombarded by so much on a daily basis. We constantly have to multitask to keep up. Information is instantaneous thanks to the internet and there is not much time to plan and reflect.

The internet has provided avenues to gather a lot of information about volunteering at the click of a mouse. Google is fast becoming our best friend or worst enemy. Potential volunteers are using Web sites to compare and contrast information about what organizations do and how they do it. They are looking to see what is out there and how they can make an impact.

In addition, there is a greater level of sophistication in the marketing of volunteers. Social networking is becoming the recruitment tool of the future and yet many of us don't even have Web sites that are detailed enough to engage volunteers. How are we going to engage in an interactive session of Facebooking with volunteers when we are so busy?

Volunteers are looking for meaningful, challenging work. We have known for a long time that volunteers want to get involved and make a difference but the new cohorts such as baby boomers, newcomers and students want to be challenged. They want to feel that they are using their skills in a meaningful and powerful way. If they don't feel that they are making a difference and gaining some personal satisfaction, then they will go on to the next challenge . . . and it may not be with you.

Finally, volunteers come from a broad cross-section of our society.

This chapter will address some of the more influential volunteer types including employee volunteerism, baby boomers, and students and how we can market volunteering to them.

What do Volunteers Want?

Volunteers want choice, control, good customer service, supervision, clear job description, recognition, training, and perks. They want to feel that they are appreciated.

Choice is one of the most important aspects of volunteering. An article recently in the *National Post* (December 23, 2010) stated that a Toronto woman had taken her children to the beautiful spectacle at the Church of the Holy Trinity Christmas pageant, one that never failed to get her into a festive mood.

> *This year she volunteered to take part and organizers eagerly accepted her offer Rehearsals began in November. She was going to be a shepherd.*
>
> *Soon, though, the woman, who asked not to be named to preserve the feelings of her co-volunteers, was being roped into a number of jobs she never signed up for—being the usher as the play began, taking on an additional role in the pageant, hauling out costumes from storage and ironing them. "That's the whole thing with volunteering," she says. "You always think you're going to do a certain thing, but there are always 15 more things they don't really have anyone to do."*

Volunteers want control of their position. They want to be able to blend their volunteer commitment with the rest of their lives. Recently there has been more of a trend towards project-based volunteer work. This is an opportunity for volunteers to stay committed to an organization without having to work on a regular basis. This allows them to:

1. Work for more than one organization at a time
2. Blend their volunteering with their interests and skills
3. Commit to an organization without interruption of their personal/professional life
4. Not let volunteering interfere with hobbies or travel, which is especially important to this new group of baby boomers that are balancing work and social life

Customer service is another area that is in the forefront of volunteer needs. There is a need for all administrators of volunteers to build into their program a plan for responding to inquiries from potential volunteers. Too many times volunteers have said that they make an inquiry and there is not a timely response. The negative repercussions of this behavior can carry for a long time. The last thing you want to hear is that your program is not a program of choice because you do not respond in a timely manner to inquiries.

There needs to be a consistent plan for responding to e-mails and phone calls, and those responsible need to be accountable for this.

Volunteers also want supervision. This type of supervision is not based on daily inquiries but should include an outlet for measuring success of their projects. Whether volunteers are doing a one day project or working on a regular basis, it is important to both debrief after the session as well as measure against the expectations.

Finally, I cannot say enough about recognition. It needs to be passed onto the volunteer position, individual, organization and budget.

But there needs to be a recognition component to the program that is tailored to the needs of the volunteers. Employee groups do not need the same form of recognition as students or baby boomers but there needs to be something in place to keep them engaged with you and to thank them for their contributions.

Getting Ready for Specialized Volunteer Programs

It is our job to ensure that both the organization and the volunteer have a successful experience. Different organizations have different strengths and weaknesses and have to focus more regularly on one part of the cycle. For example, hospitals may not have a difficult time recruiting volunteers but they may be placing a lot of effort on retention and evaluation. Other organizations such as Meals on Wheels are recruiting on an ongoing need basis and focusing on scheduling and training. It does not matter how unique the program is, the focus is on building on successes and targeting where the weaknesses are.

Before you can target recruitment for specialized volunteer groups you need to do an internal assessment and make sure that you have capacity for the volunteers. It is important that once you put a call out for volunteers, that you can place them in a timely and effective manner.

Questions that you need to ask yourself are:

1. What do I have already that I can build on to include baby boomers, students and employee groups?
2. Where can these groups make the most impact?
3. Who is the right person internally that I need to engage in this conversation?
4. What support systems do I need to put in place to make this a successful relationship?

Some suggestions to respond to these questions are:

- Inform the leadership of your organization about what the opportunities are for volunteers. This could be done by either asking to present at a leadership, management, team or board meeting. Present staffs with an environmental scan of what the volunteers are looking for in particular groups. What are the benefits of having different kinds of volunteer support in the organization? Many organizations focus on what I call the roster of volunteer opportunities. They are given a list of volunteer positions and asked to choose one of 33 flavors . . . how can one make a decision? Sometimes they like chocolate and sometimes they want rocky road. We all want some change in our routine.

- Put together a proposal that you think may work. Using the 5 Ps of marketing will help you in putting together a thought-out plan for successful marketing.
  1. *Product.* What are you offering to the volunteer/organization?
  2. *Public.* Who are you going to exchange this product with? Who would be interested in doing this type of position?
  3. *Promotion.* What do you want to let them know about the position to interest them, what would motivate them?
  4. *Price.* What is the cost to the organization and the volunteer? What is expected of them?
  5. *Place.* Where do they do the volunteer work? Is this an opportunity that they can do offsite, is there an opportunity to do this virtually (maybe when they are at the office or on extended vacations)?

Once you have determined the kind of person that you are looking for, you need to track them down.

Target Marketing for Corporations

Many organizations have detailed processes to go through before a volunteer can start. This is not only time consuming but complicated for a company to collect from their employees. It is important to look at the job specifically and create a system that is manageable for data collections processing. One recommendation is to collect necessary information for risk management purposes and basic demographics. Once an employee expresses interest to get involved in an individual basis, then they can fill in the missing details.

Another suggestion is to make a wish list that you build on throughout the year. To do this, you need to get buy-in from all programs in your organization. The ideal scenario is to have projects available to corporations on an ongoing basis and that requires partnerships within your own staff teams.

Whether you are building a corporate program for groups or individuals, you need to understand what these potentially skilled volunteers can do to enhance your work. As mentioned previously, volunteers are looking for challenging work that they feel will make a difference. It is your job to communicate and liaise between the corporation and your organization to make sure this will happen.

How do you position yourself for corporate involvement?

- *Marketability.* Do you offer opportunities that are relevant for today's market? Skilled volunteers are abundant, but are you ready to embrace and engage volunteers who can run with projects with little support?

- *Relationships.* Recruiting volunteers is a multistep process. A successful volunteer relationship is one that can last and changes according to the needs of all parties. This will allow for better retention of volunteers.
- *Knowledge.* Can you strengthen your services from the knowledge of volunteers? Can the skills from employee engagement make a difference and can you communicate this back?
- *Leadership.* Are you positioned to be a leader in your field?

These are attractive incentives for corporations to get involved.

Next Steps

1. Research local businesses and build a database of potential contacts.
2. Do your homework. Before approaching employers you need to search Web sites and look for:
   - Evidence of a socially philanthropic arm
   - Where they have aligned themselves
   - Is there an opportunity for involvement or are they already committed to a charitable cause?
   - Who is the contact or what department is the best to contact. If you are not sure, usually starting with human resources or executive offices will be a good starting point.
   - Know the skills that you are looking for and go where those skills are abundant.
   - Keep an active database that is up to date. It is important to make sure that you are talking to the right people.
3. Two-way communication. The best form of communication is face to face. This is an opportunity to explain your needs, be creative and answer questions quickly. It is found that more is done in 15 minutes of face-to-face time then days of e-mails and phone call. This way you have an opportunity to read your audience and they have a chance to build a comfort level of trust with you through meeting face to face.
4. Always keep your word. Do not promise anything that you cannot deliver. If you agree to actions and dates, you need to stick to them. Make deadlines reasonable and realistic and build in room for unexpected challenges. Make sure that you put things down on paper. Be clear and be honest. Share deadlines and define any necessary training up front.
5. Outline opportunities.
6. Identify the benefits of partnerships. Ask for referrals. There is nothing more powerful than a recommendation from a colleague to open up doors. Most companies have associations and counterparts that they are affiliated with. This is a great opportunity to access contacts that you would not be able to otherwise. As well, if they cannot get involved, ask for the opportunity to promote internally. There may be other vehicles to get involved without actually providing structured engagement.
7. Ongoing projects. It is important to continue to build on successes. Building corporate volunteerism into an annual recruitment plan will allow you to manage your time effectively but allow for input on a regular basis with the corporation.

Are there projects that can be done in larger groups versus individuals? Develop a marketing tool that can easily be distributed electronically through their communication systems. Understand the time limitations that your corporate partner may have.

One issue is that sometimes the volunteer work is only available during the day or just the weekend or vice versa. This requires coming up with creative opportunities for involvement.

What can be done virtually? Is there an opportunity to access their skills and talent through workshops, presentations and career building? Many employees state that time is a major stumbling block for volunteering. Allowing an employee to use company resources, sit at their desk and do it in a time that works for them is a huge selling point. It is also a great way to build partnerships with both the company and the individual employee. For example, you may want a program to have a cost/benefit analysis done but you don't have paid resources for them. Contacting a company that has this type of expertise on board may be a great way to engage.

Another example is to take an idea and get a roundtable discussion from a consumers' goods company during one of their team meetings and you can observe and take notes. There are so many unique ways to engage corporations, and it never hurts to ask. I always say that asking for volunteer support as an administrator of volunteers is a very comfortable place to be versus trying to sell a product or raise funds alone.

Can there be an opportunity for a third party fundraiser? Third party fundraisers are a great way to get corporations involved. They not only provide group opportunities but can be done on their time, with their resources and with huge financial and engagement outcomes. You can then provide a creative way for presentation of funds and opportunities to move them from group engagement to individual engagement through information sessions, tours, and social gatherings.

Finally we need to talk about the outcomes of such a win/win/win recruitment program and relationship.

The benefits to the employee are boundless:

- Proud to be part of the corporate team
- Ability to use and/or learn leadership and skill development
- Networking opportunities
- Increased community awareness
- Personal fulfillment

The benefits to the corporation can include:

- Stronger employee retention
- Positive impact on employee morale
- Increased awareness of issues
- Enhanced corporate reputation

Last but not least is the organization:

- You will increase the number of active and skilled volunteers, support your efforts, strengthen the link to donations and partnerships and learn from others This is not only an impressive list of outcomes, but also a very strong foundation for what to market and promote.

Targeting Baby Boomers

Today's seniors are younger, healthier, and more active. They are a savvy, technologically advanced and influential group.

Research indicates four main reasons why baby boomers volunteer. They want to:

1. Support a cause that they believe in.
2. Make a contribution to society.
3. Share their skills.
4. Do something meaningful with their friends and colleagues.

More importantly, baby boomers want to volunteer on their own terms. Consider some of the challenges that baby boomers face.

Who are they?

- Baby boomers are a very difficult audience to engage. Baby boomers have extraordinary talent, resources and power. In 2006 baby boomers started to turn 60 years old and are now in the prime age for getting involved.
- According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics (Fritz, 2011) 33.2 % of all boomers volunteered for formal organizations in 2005, representing the highest rate of volunteering of any age group.
- This cohort is an untapped source that has so much to give but demands a lot in return.
- They are engaged, linked to their communities, educated, selective and looking for balance in their lives.
- They are very different from their parents and grandparents generation and distinctly different from Generations X and Y.
- They are looking to balance their work, family, social, and community life and there is always movement. They are never standing still and they do not have the same long-term loyalty to a cause or program as their parents did.
- They need information and they want it backed up with action. It not, they will leave and they will not be nice about it.
- Research from www.getinvolved.ca revealed that:
  - Boomers had strong ties to their community. They are connected through their businesses and their homes. They more engaged they are in their community, the more likely they are to volunteer.
  - They tend to peak their volunteering in mid life and may require some lifestyle adjustments to accommodate their road to retirement.
  - Boomers are more interested in volunteering in more than one organization at a time, reinforcing that they are not just loyal to the cause but interested in the projects.
- Many boomers will seek volunteer opportunities as a means to stay active, use their skills and pursue interests that they have not previously had time to do (Culp, 2011) They are looking for good fits between their lives and the organizations they align themselves with.

Next Steps

Baby boomers require strategic approaches in recruitment. They are not tied down to one form of communication. They read print materials and are savvy on the computer. They have a different perspective on life and feel that they have a lot to contribute to their communities. They have high expectations from the organizations that they support.

As previously discussed, before you go looking for this group you need to make sure that you have the foundation in place. When they call, you need to be there to answer in a prompt fashion. You need to have opportunities available to connect quickly and be flexible enough to negotiate.

Similar to recruiting corporate volunteers, there is not a cookie-cutter approach to recruitment and placement. Individual engagement will make the difference between making you an organization of choice and blending into the myriads of "volunteers needed" public service announcements out there.

Boomers are seeking positions that can allow them to make a contribution in a limited period of time, which may go against what we call traditional volunteering.

Focusing on the skills and outcomes are what the baby boomers are looking for in a position. You need to market according to the target that you are reaching. You need to make a case for why you think that their skills and talents will enhance your program. Putting an emphasis on the word "volunteering" may not be an asset to this type of marketing. Volunteering is seen as an ongoing, simple set of tasks that may not use the strengths of the baby boomer.

As far as tools for marketing to the baby boomers, you need to be creative, targeted and responsive. The ideal situation is a two-way form of marketing. Though using mass media is a good way to get your brand out there and be recognizable to the perspective volunteer, this is not the key form of recruitment.

You need to find out who has an abundance of skills that you are looking for and approach them with a realistic and approachable request. You want to reach baby boomers before they retire so that they are aware that they have a place to contribute as they wean off their paid work. This will make the transition very attractive to them.

You can focus some of your strategies towards career shifting for the baby boomer. The type of positions can be episodic or ongoing; they could include opportunities for family volunteering, as well as for teams, friends or employee groups.

Baby boomers will not respond easily to generic requests for volunteers. They are more inclined to assist with a cause, fulfill a need or engage in a high end project based on their individual skills and interests.

Without stating too many examples because every organization has different types of jobs, there are many areas that baby boomers tend to gravitate to, including:

- Committee/board work
- Special event planning and day-of
- Project management including working with teams and groups

Finally, it is important to recognize the unique skills that baby boomers bring to the table. They have a long life of experiences and can easily work in many different scenarios. The risk is assuming that they will do anything that you need versus recognizing the strengths that they have and engaging them in opportunities to use these strengths to your benefit and theirs.

Keeping up to date on current affairs in the media, building networks and connections that you can use as starting points, and having informational or exploratory meetings will all be of use in your recruitment practices.

Also, don't forget to manage your internal customer (i.e., staff), see what their needs are, and try and match accordingly.

Targeting Students

One of the key aspects of marketing to students is understanding their motivation for volunteering. Students are a unique group in themselves because there are many different motivational factors that you need to consider that are not in your control.

Students have a variety of factors that are competing for their attention including schedules, part time jobs and their goals.

What is it that a student is looking for? There are three main reasons why a student will get engaged:

1. Personal growth
   - Opportunity to meet people and network
   - Help out a family member or a community
   - Opportunity to see what they are learning in a practical environment
2. Culture and philanthropy
   - Do something good and help others without being paid
   - Volunteering is part of their culture and family values
   - Having something to give and feeling passion for a cause
3. Building transferable skills
   - Gaining practical work experience for the future
   - Networking and teamwork
   - To learn new skills for future employment
   - Putting in practice what they are learning
   - Building confidence and self esteem
   - Learn how things work in a practical sense

Even within the student cohort, you have different age ranges to consider.

One of the major factors in recruitment of students, whether they are high school or university/college, is timing.

Timing is everything when it comes to students. They are focused on a schedule that is specific to their learning. Students will not want to get involved during exam or holiday periods and you need to be aware of this if you are planning events that require large amounts of students.

Next Steps

There is a place for flyers, brochures, and displays when recruiting students, such as common areas where they congregate, but this is only one means of communication.

You need to understand and incorporate social media when it comes to students. Social media is soon becoming the fastest way to communicate to the youth of today. They are relying on the various media outlets for information and validation.

You will need to have a strong identity that they can relate to. Whether it is the cause or the event, you don't have a lot of time to pitch to them. They will make instantaneous decisions based on a variety of factors.

They are looking for a rewarding experience and this experience will decide how engaged they are going to get with you in the future. If you can reach youth early, it has been shown they will stay engaged longer and there is a link between higher education and donating time and money.

Students are frequently looking to boost their resumes to build on their transferrable skills and they look to volunteering to do this.

You need to think about the students in your local high schools, colleges, and universities in terms of the skills that you are looking for. What do you have to offer and what are you looking for in return?

Create a solid recruitment plan that is specifically geared towards students and how you are going to reach them. There are many opportunities to partner with campus association and student groups to help position yourself and your opportunities. Your recruitment efforts need to be engaging, well-organized, and professionally presented. They will check you out.

You need to understand that students are very quick to get engaged once they understand the issue and the need and have enough information to make a decision. Be prepared with facts and stories that will connect them with you. Make sure that you are being honest about the commitment or they will leave quickly and communicate their dissatisfaction to many others through their networks.

Try to give students a rewarding experience that they will want to remember for the future.

A great resource for recruitment is student volunteers that are already engaged with you. They are your ambassadors and door openers and can be a huge asset to your marketing and recruitment campaigns. They know what their friends want and this group works in packs. Asking one volunteer to help can get you many more by association but as easily they come together, they leave together.

Another idea is setting up student satellite programs that can be led by students themselves, almost like a third-party event, where they will do all the recruitment, screening and preparation for you and assist in the management of volunteers.

Finally, there are many forms of media that you can use to attract students. There are student unions that can advocate on your behalf. Student career centers that may be able to help you in finding specific skills are a great resource.

There are opportunities for posters, displays, student papers and magazines, internal Web sites, and last but not least, word of mouth. Telling one student who gets on board will help to spread the word to many. As well, speaking to professors and teaching assistants in courses will help you to target students that they know will make an impact or gain a lot from this experience. Asking to present at a lecture or public event may make an impact.

The main focus with students is making sure that you are using a targeted approach and that you are able to respond quickly and honestly.

Engaging students, whether from high school or beyond can be a win/win experience for everyone, but it does take time to develop, and you need to spend as much time recruiting them as you do retaining them. It is important to keep in contact on a regular basis either by phone or e-mail. Make sure that the volunteers feel confident to come to you if they have any questions or concerns. You also may want to build in some youth development activities to help them build on their skills.

Also, there are many youth-focused groups that you can target. These can include community youth groups such as scouts and associations. There are religious youth groups and further educational students such as adult learners. You may also want to try specialist schools for specific events or skills.

One final thought is to keep it fun and enjoyable. For many this is their first experience and you want to make it a worthwhile commitment so that they will continue to engage in community service. Our youth of today are our employee volunteer and baby boomer volunteer of the future.

Marketing volunteerism is a creative process and there is no one specific answer. Each organization has unique challenges and opportunities. It is important to recognize those challenges and work to your strengths and use your opportunities to be innovative, creative and unique. As in the consumer goods market, it is important to take your strong brand recognition and leverage it to create interesting and useful products for your consumer; this too can be done for volunteering.

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The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

DIGITAL G

Social Media and Volunteer Programs

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> *If you think about the next five years of what your life will be like online, socially, and what kinds of things the tools we'll be able to do, we are only at the early stages. I'm incredibly excited about the possibilities.*
>
> Larry Page, Co-Founder and CEO of Google

Some form of social media is on the lips and in the plans of everyone from White House media specialists to kindergarten teachers and Hollywood glitterati. Those names, such as Facebook, Twitter, and Flickr, may be ancient history by the time you read this chapter. The speed of change in the arena of social media resembles the speed of light. It is something few people understand. We know the lightning bolt hits first and then later comes the thunder; the lag time between light and sound is as close as most of us come to understanding the speed of light. The creation of new social media applications is like the light and sound of thunder. Just when people developed an aptitude for MySpace it was replaced by Twitter, as the latest "in" application. Larry Page's observations remind us that change is coming in how we interact socially on the Internet.

Despite this rapid change in social media, there are principles of using social media that are essential to engaging and organizing volunteer programs. Those who manage volunteers, paid or unpaid, can use this chapter to effectively organize all manner of social media, no matter the name on the package.

The chapter contains examples of Web sites to illustrate the different ways in which volunteer programs are using different types of social media. There is, however, no guarantee those sites are still active. It is likely that other examples exist which can easily be found on the Internet. This chapter on administering a volunteer program is less about pointing toward specific sites than it is about how to increase the use of social media in the volunteer program.

The chapter does not address the use of "monologue" sites. Web pages or YouTube videos are useful in administering the volunteer program, but are not social media. In order to be social media, the application must be interactive, allowing for two-way communication. This in no way implies that other Internet applications are unimportant—they are just not the focus of this chapter.

Social Media: Definitions and Usage

Social media is broadly defined as having the capacity for interaction between people. That component distinguishes it from other Internet applications. The World Wide Web is certainly a force on the Internet, but is not interactive. The earliest and most essential form of social media was e-mail.

Definitions

Social Media:

- Is Web-based technology that transforms broadcast media monologues into social media dialogues
- Allows creation and exchange of user-generated content
- Is referred to by commercial business as consumer generated media (CGM)
- Has a common thread—a blending of technology and social interaction for the co-creation of value
- Allows interactivity between people—sometimes one-to-one, sometimes in groups

The Nonprofit Technology Network (NTEN) (2010), Common Knowledge, and The Port are tracking the use of social networks in nonprofit organizations. For the second year, they have collaborated on a study to produce statistical information on social media usage in nonprofit organizations. In April 2010, the group produced the Nonprofit Social Network Benchmark Report of social media use. The report was based on data from 1,173 nonprofit professionals in a wide variety of organizations by type: associations, human services, public/societal benefit, health/healthcare, environmental/animals, arts/culture, education, international, and religion/spiritual.

The NTEN study was preceded in 2007 and 2008 by research from the University of Massachusetts' Dartmouth Marketing Research Center. The 2008 research results shows that 89% of nonprofit charitable organizations in their sample were using some form of social media (Barnes and Mattson, 2009). The more recent figures from NTEN are fully in line with the results of the earlier University of Massachusetts study. It would seem that social media use is following a consistent pattern of growing quite rapidly.

For managers of volunteers, the most relevant information is that 82.5% of interaction, using social media, was the use of in-house e-mail lists.

Most use of social media is for marketing purposes.

Social Media Use	Percentage
Marketing	92.5%
Fundraising	45.9%
Program Delivery	34.5%
Market Research	24.3%

(NTEN 2010, pg. 15)

Facebook is the leading commercial social media site in use by nonprofits, while e-mail is the most often used form of social media.

Social Media Type	Percentage Using
Facebook	87%
Twitter	59%
YouTube	48%
LinkedIn	33.1%
Flickr	25.3%
MySpace	14.4%

(NTEN 2010, pg. 8)

There are a number of statistics from the NTEN (2010) study on usage of social media of interest to those managing volunteers.

- Of those participating in the NTEN study 90% have some form of commercial social media—Facebook, Twitter, etc. About 22% have an in-house network. An in-house network is for paid staff, volunteers, members/clients. The bulk of nonprofits (17%) have only one in-house social media network. This could be anything from an e-mail list to a private Facebook site. (pg. 20)
- In-house networks are "owned" by the fundraising arm of the nonprofit in 33% of the organizations survey. (pg. 5)
- Twitter usage by nonprofits has gone up 17 percent since 2009. It was 43% in 2009 and 2010 reached 60%. (pg. 2)
- 60% of baby boomers are avid consumers of social media like blogs, forums, podcasts, and online videos. (Wortham, 2009)
- Satisfaction with social networking sites, as reported by these staff, is correlated to the commitment of two or more staff managing the sites. (pg. 9)
- For both commercial and in-house social networking sites at nonprofits there is a paid staff person with an assignment of 1/4 or 1/2 time for managing the site(s). (pg. 23)
- When asked why a nonprofit does not use social networking sites, especially with commercial sites, 47% say "lack of expertise," and 32% say "insufficient budget." (pg. 6)

The NTEN (2010) study is reliable for its wide cross section of types of organizations, budget size variance, and number of employees. Close to 30% of the study group had five or fewer employees, 5% had no employees. Almost 33% had 51 to 250 employees. 40% of the sample had overall budgets under $1 million. 2% had budgets higher than $250 million. (NTEN 2010, pg. 2)

The array of sectors where nonprofits operate was balanced. 22.7% were in human services, 18% in education, 16% in public sector/societal benefit groups, 14.5% in health care, the lowest was for international organizations at 2.8%. (NTEN, pg. 3)

It is clear that nonprofits and likely their volunteer programs see marketing and fundraising as appropriate uses of social media, but there seems to be timidity about crossing into other areas of usage such as blogs for volunteers to share experiences, Wikis to manage projects or meetings, or a Facebook page only for volunteers.

Types of Social Media

Using social media in the administration of volunteer programs begins with understanding the different types of social media currently available.

Type of Social Media	Definition	Examples
Blog	(a blend of the term web log) Usually maintained by an individual with regular entries of commentary, descriptions of events, or other material such as graphics or video. Entries commonly displayed in reverse-chronological order. Interactive, allowing visitors to leave comments and messages. Interactivity is what distinguishes a blog from other static Web sites.	Sweet Reflections: A blog created by the author of this chapter to record the progress of a large art project undertaken by her husband, a stained glass artist. http://ggonion.blogspot.com/
Microblog	Type of blogging, featuring very short posts and can add pictures and videos A microblog, such as Twitter, is a miniature blog.	Together Green: A volunteer site with frequent posts on environmental issues http://twitter.com/#!/togethergreen
Instant Messaging (IM)	Exchange of text messages through software application in real time. Generally included is the ability to easily see whether a chosen friend, co-worker or “buddy” is online and connected through the selected service. IM differs from other social media in the immediacy of the message exchange, unlike blogs.	RAINN: The nation’s largest anti-sexual assault organization provides instant help to those who are victims of sexual assault via instant messaging. http://apps.rainn.org/ohl-bridge/

Type of Social Media	Definition	Examples
	Makes a continued exchange simpler than sending e-mail back and forth. Most exchanges are text-only, though popular services, such as AOL, MSN Messenger, and Yahoo! Messenger and Apple's iChat allow voice messaging, file sharing and even video chat when both users have cameras. Most often used by teenagers and harried business people.	
Social networking	A means of communicating and sharing information between two or more individuals in an online community. Can include the use of photos and videos. Can be public or private.	Red Cross 24,000 followers for updates on disasters, local chapters, and how to help. www.facebook.com/redcross?v=app_143527638995189
Wiki	Also known as a wiki engine or wiki application, it is software that allows users to collaboratively create and edit web pages using a web browser. Most well-known site is Wikipedia. Imagine an online location where there is a committee "to do" list. Everyone can see the list, add or comment on items, or cross items completely off.	Welcome to a Volunteer Management wiki A site where you can contribute your knowledge of volunteer administration or other topic area and can edited by them. http://wiki.volunteermanagers.org.uk/index.php?title=Main_Page
E-mail	Electronic mail A system of worldwide electronic communication in which a computer user can compose a message at one terminal that can be regenerated at the recipient's terminal when the recipient logs in.	Mental Health Today An e-mail volunteer responds to those who are coping with a mental illness. www.mental-health-today.com/anxiety/vol.htm

Planning to Use Social Media: The Good, Bad, and Scary

Engaging and managing volunteers requires skills in organizational planning and design. While it may be tantalizing to jump into creating a Twitter site for volunteers, it is more likely to be successful if the administrator of volunteer programs uses those planning skills in advance of a launch. Planning is important, but so is courage. Courage leads us to what challenges us. This section of the chapter provides a format to gain courage and set in motion a planning process, no matter the social media used.

Suggestion	What To Do?
Embrace The Fear	Say "Twitter." Watch eyes roll. Say "Wiki" and faces go blank (and those blank faces are the same ones that use Wikipedia daily!). Start your exploration of the world of social media by admitting the negative aspects. Resistance. Anger. Nightmares. Sometimes your own. Sometimes others. Take that negative energy and invest in it. Use the force of the energy to give you the zeal to building the volunteer program with the help of social media. Ask yourself, "What's the worst thing that could happen?" (Kanter, 2010)
Do Not Rush Into It	Start by finding social media success stories and lots of examples of social media use in other volunteer programs. Especially useful are social media applications developed by volunteer programs that serve the same clientele or membership as your organization. Share those examples with everyone, even those who are anti-social media. Identify the "influentials" in the organization. Adoption of social media applications involves an internal change process. Managers of volunteers need allies to sell the changes to volunteers, staff, and clients/members. The social media means the volunteer program is operated in a new way. New can be a challenge for many. Never allow yourself or the volunteer program to be stampeded by others to adopting a social media application without a plan. Think about budgets and resources. Who will develop the application? Who manages it and keeps it fresh? Who will do this when you change jobs? Is their paid staff to maintain the site? If not, who will?
Create a Planning Team	Volunteer programs can benefit from the use of social media applications, but only if the volunteers and staff who use them are on board. A planning team is a means to engage those inside the organization in building a vision for how things can be better with the adoption of social media as a means of doing business. The team needs social media lovers and haters, and those in the middle, some volunteers, staff, young people, and experts. No more than six to eight people for a limited time. It is easier to attract those most qualified when time commitment is short. Write a committee guideline to use in recruiting people. Have duties, responsibilities, outcomes, and time line.
Write a Plan	Have an idea of overall goal for using a specific social media application to a designated purpose. For example, say you want to set up an e-mail program where volunteers check in on clients. Do not fill in the details, let the planning team do that. For your plan, have goals, objectives and action plans with dates and measurable activities. Guide the committee to create a practical plan and put it in writing to serve as a model for similar future plans.

Suggestion	What To Do?
Develop the Social Media Application	Once the plan and budget are approved it is time to develop the application with all its "bells and whistles." Check out Facebook as an example. There is a profile, you can post pictures or a video, and the list of features goes on. All details need to be in place before the site is launched. Tip: Leave twice the allotted time to complete the intricacies of any social media site. Even the most benign site, like a blog, needs time for setup.
Do Road Shows	You need two types of road shows—the first kind of show is how social media is being used to further the mission of the organizations. It might include samples from other organizations. It is not enough to adopt a social media application for the volunteer program, without building internal support. The second road show is the overview on the "specifics" of social media application. Before it is complete tell stakeholders about it. Demonstrate how it will be used to more effectively engage and manage volunteers to accomplish the aims of the organization. Road shows are done as the application is in its development phase. These are *not* field tests. (They come later). These are short multimedia presentations to provide information to volunteers, staff, and clients or members.
Field Tests	The social media site chosen, is developed and appears to be ready to open for business. Time to test it. Select volunteers and/or staff and clients, members—a small and private sample to field test the site. Have pre-arranged questions for the group to evaluate the site. How useful? Easy to use? Good for beginners? Need a tutorial? Benefits of the site to . . . ? Recommendations to improve the site? Which leads to the next step.
Revise	Revisions are made based on the field test and a review by paid staff and/or key volunteer leaders. Strive to make the site the best it can be. Look at other similar sites with a different audience. Get new ideas from any reputable location. Run the revisions by those who recommended changes. If the changes are cosmetic there is no need for further field-testing. If changes are major, another field test might be in order.
Launch	Launching a social media site is totally dependent on its function. A private blog site with limited membership is introduced to those who use it and those in leadership positions. A social media site meant to attract potential volunteers with glamour, glitz, and photos deserves a big sendoff. Have a party. Prepare simple 3×5 cards with information on how to access the site and how its use relates to the mission of the organization. Get a volunteer clown to help promote a launch. Hand out cards at a celebratory event to all takers.
Maintaining the Site	Social media sites, once created, need to be updated regularly. If not used, take it down. The planning team needs to include how the site will be monitored or maintained.

(*continued*)

Suggestion	What To Do?
	Maintenance is a great task for a few virtual volunteers. Use rotating terms of service, or better yet, let the virtual volunteers work out the monitoring and maintenance duties. Write a position description and recruit for the right people to keep your social media effort fresh and lively.
Evaluation	Social media, like every other aspect of engaging volunteers, deserves to be evaluated. Early evaluations provide information for quick revisions to enhance the site immediately. Some evaluations are intended to address whether the original goals for meeting the needs of volunteers are being met. That might take some time. This author has a Twitter "Tip A Day," site for managers of volunteers (http://twitter.com/nlmacduff). The first month brought 12 followers, but two weeks later there were 40. Those numbers are key to determining if the site is worth the effort. People are bombarded with information all day. Building interest and engagement in yet another site takes time. Stagger out the evaluation process to collect information related to the intention and purpose for the site.

Manager of Volunteer Functions and Social Media

Whether managing volunteers at an animal shelter, an art museum, a state park, or homeless shelter, there are some common administrative functional areas. Function relates to an activity or role assigned to someone. Managers of volunteers have functions in planning, marketing, recruiting, training, supervision, and recognition.

Deciding to use a social media application means tying it to a functional area of volunteer administration. A *functionality* approach in the choice of social media ties the activities to work done by and for volunteers. It also has the potential of opening doors to uses not previously considered. For example, Twitter is short messages, and a micro-blog, that people can respond to or just read. It is often used for commentary of the short variety.

Consider the function of recognition. Create a micro blog recognition site. Staff can post recognition messages for volunteers. Volunteers can recognize the support of paid staff. Clients can recognize volunteers. The manager of volunteers can post regular "shout-outs" to noteworthy activities by volunteers . . . and all in 140 characters or less. In planning to use a form of social media, start first with the function. It is likely to lead in many directions.

Volunteer Administration Function	Activities of the Administrator of Volunteers	Ideas for Using a Social Media Application
Planning	■ Research ■ Committee Coordination ■ Writing a plan ■ Monitor the Plan	■ Use a **blog** for a focus group on needs seen by volunteers. ■ Use an online survey tool to ask volunteers and staff of services that can be added for clients and members. Use online survey tools like SurveyMonkey (free)

Volunteer Administration Function	Activities of the Administrator of Volunteers	Ideas for Using a Social Media Application
		■ Use a **Wiki** to gain information from volunteers and staff on needs related to volunteer program. ■ Coordinate the activities of a planning committee using a **Wiki**. ■ A plan is placed in the **Wiki**. Accomplishments are recorded as completed. ■ **Micro-blog** for meeting reminders and updates. ■ Coordinate meetings using online audio and video interactive sites like **Skype.**
Marketing	■ Identify types of people not volunteering ■ Understand characteristics of current volunteers ■ Understand market of those likely to volunteer for specific organization	■ Create a **blog** to learn more about psychographic characteristics of volunteers. ■ Use **survey** instruments to determine where current volunteers learned about volunteer opportunities. ■ Use online sites to interview volunteers to build (psychographic and demographic database). ■ Organize an online **blog** of other managers of volunteers to discuss marketing as it relates to volunteer programs.
Recruiting	■ Organize and coordinate a volunteer recruiting team ■ Design a recruiting campaign annually ■ Screen volunteers ■ Evaluate success of recruiting	■ Design a **social networking** site (Facebook, MySpace) for JUST recruiting purposes, not a part of the organization page. (Kirkwood, 2010) ■ Engage a volunteer recruiting team. Let them plan a recruiting campaign. Use a **blog and Wiki** to reduce the number of face-to-face meetings. Meetings can be held online with audio/video live chat sites. ■ Create a **micro blog** site to recruit for short notice or short time tasks. Actively recruit those who want these types of tasks. Have them sign up. Keep a roster of followers. (Kirkwood, 2010) ■ Conduct interviews (standardized questions) using **instant messages** for those who have it.
Training	■ Orientation of new volunteers ■ In-service training for seasoned volunteers ■ Orientation for episodic volunteers.	■ Create a **blog** to train new volunteers on "soft" topics like confidentiality, privacy, financial, and other behavior policies. Make it private for each new class of volunteers. Be clear that participating on this site is an expectation for new volunteers. Post the Volunteer Handbook on the site. Include pictures of volunteers in action. ■ **Blogs** can be used to provide information on specialized topics unique to volunteers for either the long-term continuous serving or episodic. For example: Event volunteers can get trained on things like expectations, where to check in, appropriate clothing, duties, etc.

(*continued*)

Volunteer Administration Function	Activities of the Administrator of Volunteers	Ideas for Using a Social Media Application
Supervision	■ Monitor volunteer performance ■ Coordinate meetings ■ Communicate information ■ Motivation of different volunteers with different needs ■ Record keeping on volunteer participation and accomplishments ■ Conflict resolution ■ Evaluation of programs—what volunteers do for clients/members ■ Evaluation of —volunteer performance	■ Use a **Wiki** for all committees to set goals, assign tasks, and monitor progress. ■ Create committee **blogs** to be used only while a committee is in operation. ■ Organize an **e-mail** mailing list for up-dates and newsletters. Use snail mail only for those with no Internet access. ■ Use online communication tools to create **e-mail** mailing lists. Constant Contact and Vertical Response are low cost to most nonprofits. ■ Get evaluations of volunteer experience via a **micro blog**, especially for short-term volunteers. ■ Create a **blog** for volunteers to talk about their experiences (no mention of clients, of course). Post questions about why he/she volunteers. Read responses and look for motivators. Incorporate different motivational strategies in recruiting material based on what is learned. Post informational links to help volunteers be more effective. ■ Do **not** evaluate volunteers or try to resolve conflicts on a social media site.
Recognition	■ Record and tabulate the work of volunteers ■ Provide formal and informal methods of recognizing volunteer contributions ■ Recognize the efforts of paid staff who contribute to the well-being of the volunteers and the programs that guide them	■ Use a **micro-blog** to highlight work of volunteers at least once per week. ■ Be sure **a social networking** site, whether organizational or for the volunteer program, has a regular feature "volunteer of the month." ■ Use **e-mail lists** to regularly report to volunteers such information as hours of service, accomplishments, copies of thank you's from others, and client/member comments. Do this separately from regular online newsletters. ■ Say thank you to one person each day via **e-mail**—paid staff or volunteer. ■ Create a video of volunteers at work. Post on **social networking** site. Get links to it from organizational Web site and through **e-mail** lists (Kirkwood, 2010)

Conclusion

Before launching into the use of social media, determine how it can address identified needs. The social media application must relate to functions of the administrator of volunteers. A social media site is useful only when it makes the administration of volunteers more efficient and effective and carries out the mission of the organization. It should be a tool that enhances the program and saves time and money.

Technology is not the answer to all problems, but rather it provides tools for reaching new audiences of volunteers, organizing the work of current volunteers, and recognizing everyone's contribution to the process (Pogue, 2010).

> *Machinery does not reform society, repair institutions, build social networks, or produce a democratic society. People must do those things, and the Internet is simply one tool among many. Find talented people and give them the tools they need.* (Agre, 1998, p. 234)

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Microblogging: MyLife, FourSquare, Jaiku, Plurk, Posterous, Tumblr, Twitter, Qaiku, Yammer

Social networking: Cyworld, Facebook, Orkut, LinkedIn, My Space

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Wikis: Wikidot, PBworks, Wetpaint, Wikia,

The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

DIGITAL H

Effective Leadership and Decision-Making

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There has always been a unique struggle for those who are responsible for administering programs supported by volunteers to be both a program manager and a volunteer leader. The role of volunteer leader is often left to on-the-job experience. You have the job, you have volunteers, now what?

The goal of this chapter is to provide concrete resources to assist volunteer program administrators with the leadership of the volunteers they depend upon. In volunteer programs there is often only on-the-job training to offer you insight and advice into the complexities of *leading* and *managing* a successful program. This chapter provides readers an opportunity to explore the various models for leading programs. Models of volunteer leadership provide a practical means for working with volunteers and provide the basics for working with volunteers. A little deeper glance provides volunteer leaders an overview of specific leadership theories. The theories covered—situational, transformational and authentic, as well as servant leadership—are just a few examples, challenge volunteer leaders to be creative in their approach to working with volunteers. Lastly, the chapter provides practical strategies for applying theory, as well as the role of decision-making and emotional intelligence in leading volunteers successfully.

In 1993, Fisher and Cole embarked on the task of bringing leadership and management advice to volunteer administrators. Their book initiated a stream of resources designed to bring knowledge to program administrators in an effort to make them successful leaders of volunteers. Since that time though, much about what we know and how we lead volunteers has changed, as has the technology, the theory-base, and the budgets that most programs are allocated.

So what does it mean to be a volunteer leader? The volunteer leader is an individual who has multiple roles within the organization which all center on the development of a volunteer program. These roles often include organizational liaison, recruiter, interviewer, evaluator, supervisor, troubleshooter, trainer, educator, and then includes a long list of skills and necessary attributes to be successful.

Leadership and Management

The first concept to address is establishing a view of leadership which is consistent with the needs of volunteer programs. In order to do this, we must first differentiate leadership from management. Leadership and management are two concepts which are linked because of their role in administering programs. Because of this link it is important to understand the reciprocal relationship they share.

Northouse (2010) captures the essence of the relationship by illustrating that each entails working with people and "effective goal accomplishment." However, much of the literature emphasizes the inherent differences between the two.

Management, first identified by Fayol (1916), was designed as a system for businesses and corporations to account for internal processes related to production, sales, and revenue, but expanded to include the primary tasks of, "planning, organizing, staffing, and controlling" (as cited in Northouse, 2010, p. 9). This is seen in contrast to leadership conceptualizations which focus on skills associated with visioning, building teams, and inspiring.

In 1977, Abraham Zaleznik posited the question, "Managers and leaders: Are they different?" He provides answers in five categories, personality, attitudes towards goals, conceptions of work, relations with others, and senses of self. He concludes with the idea that managers are focused on control and stability, while leaders are focused on growth, risk and change.

Today, much of the literature specifies that management and leadership, while dependent upon another and used in conjunction, are two different skill sets for which a program administrator must build a certain level of competency. This can be challenging, but there are many adequate resources available to assist with this developmental process. As will be discussed in the following section, you will see that many of the volunteer leadership models used today incorporate both leadership and management skills.

Models of Volunteer Leadership

Over the past twenty years there have been many attempts to bring clarity to the tasks associated with volunteer leadership. This text provides detailed accounts of the steps commonly associated with volunteer leadership. While there are dozens of different models available to use as a guide, we will discuss six unique models in this text.

ISOTURE

One area which has been widely dependent upon the use of volunteers to maintain program resources is 4-H. As part of states' Extension Service, 4-H is supported by the services of volunteers to provide direct services to clientele.

Because of this, the first model we will discuss is the ISOTURE Model. ISOTURE developed originally by Dolan (1969) as a means for developing adult leaders in complex organizations was applied by M. Boyce in 1971 to the role of volunteers in extension programs.

ISOTURE identifies seven essential steps to follow when establishing a volunteer development plan. *I* (Identify volunteer roles) promotes the use of job descriptions and specific areas of use for volunteers in program objectives. *S* (Select volunteers) purports that the volunteer program administrator should recruit volunteers who align with the desired positions and roles. *O* (Orient volunteers) includes tasks associated with providing basic information about the program, clientele and mission and vision of the organization. This stage allows the volunteers to see the value of their role to the organizations. *T* (Train volunteers) references the need to provide specific job/task responsibility training (formal and informal) to volunteers. This promotes clarity of expectations for both the volunteer and volunteer administrator. *U* (Utilize volunteers) simply states that volunteers should be positioned within the organization in the positions for which they have been recruited and trained. Volunteer administrator tasks for this stage include: supervising, communication, problem-solving, and team building. *R* (Recognize volunteers) is designed as a means for providing awards and recognition to volunteers for their time and service. Lastly, *E* (Evaluate volunteers) is a way for volunteer administrators to provide valuable feedback on performance to volunteers. This may be accomplished through formal or informal methods.

From Dreams to Reality

In 1983, Sue Vineyard further promoted the professionalization of volunteer administration with her model shared at the National Conference on Volunteerism. "The Bridge from Dreams to Reality" model conceptualized a formalized process for administering volunteer programs. The model includes Dream, Plan, Organize, Staff, Direct, Assess, Reality and Feedback. The process starts with a Dream, a starting point for the program in recognizing volunteers as a viable organizational resource. The following phases promote administrative task associated with the process. Plan, setting goals and objectives, addresses recognizing the role of volunteers within the organization. Organize, action plans and job design, specifies unique ways in which volunteers can contribute. Staff is centered on the job of recruitment, however, it also includes interviewing and placing volunteers in the appropriate positions. Following is Direct, train and supervise, which includes the proper developmental resources for placed volunteers. Assess simply provides that volunteer administrators should seek the appropriate time to evaluate volunteer contributions. Reality is the endpoint where volunteer services and time are recognized and then followed through feedback back to the Dream phase.

LOOP

In 1991, Kathryn Penrod simplified the process with her LOOP Model. The model focused on the fact that, "guiding volunteers is showing leadership" (p. 1). This research-based model identifies the following steps: Locate, Orient, Operate, and Perpetuate. As recognized with other models, the Locate step promotes identifying volunteers for specific jobs. This includes developing job descriptions, recruiting and selecting volunteers. Next, Orienting includes the leadership task of guiding and inspiring volunteers to get things done. This allows volunteers to see the value in their role, and should include both formal and informal methods. The Operate stage gives volunteer leaders the challenge of continually focusing on the developmental needs of their volunteers. This may include additional training and development, recognition of accomplishment and contributions, and individual growth. Lastly, Perpetuate promotes that volunteer leaders should continually seek to evaluate and recognize volunteer contributions. These two tasks will assist in perpetuating long-term involvement of volunteers within the organization.

GEMS

Another model developed originally within extension is the GEMS Model of Volunteer Administration (Culp, Deppe, Castillo, and Wells, 1998). This model provides a systematic means for administering a quality volunteer program recognizing six other historic models of volunteer administration. The 18-phase model is organized around four basic stages, Generate, Educate, Mobilize and Sustain. The model, which is conceptualized in a spiral formation, begins with phase 1, Needs Assessment, at the bottom and most narrow part of the spiral. Progressing through the Generate stage, there are five other phases following Needs Assessment: Job Description (2), Identify (3), Recruit (4), Screen (5), and Select (6). Moving to the middle section of the spiral is the Educate stage, which has four distinct phases: Orient (7), Protect (8), Resource (9), and Teach (10). These phases discuss the need for providing volunteers with structured and strategic education to the volunteer, but also to staff and other stakeholders and clients who may be interacting directly with volunteers.

Next in the spiral, Culp et al. (1998) include the Mobilize stage. This stage has only three phases, but all focus on ensuring that volunteers are engaged in their position and supported through their motivational and supervisory needs, Engage (11), Motivate (12), and Supervise (13). Moving into the final phases of the model, the spiral is now at its widest point. The Sustain stage, which has five phases, allows for the volunteer administrator to initiate discussions about the progress, happiness, and needs of the volunteer. These phases include: Evaluate (14), Recognize (15), Redirect (16), Retain (17), and Disengage (18). This stage provides that during phase 16, Redirect, a volunteer may be positioned back at phase 7, "receiving new job responsibilities, knowledge, and the skills necessary to perform the assignment effectively" (p. 40). Likewise, phase 17, Retain, shows that a volunteer may need additional protection, phase 8, allowing them additional support from the organization.

Culp et al. (1998) do suggest that there may be instances where volunteers must Disengage from the organization. This could be the result of a variety of instances, personal or professional. The goal should always be to enter this phase with the utmost respect for the time given by the volunteer maintaining the positive relationship established.

Leading Volunteers for Results

The last model of volunteer leadership discussed in this chapter focuses on Bradner's (1999) Leading Volunteers for Results. Her approach recognizes a basic "skeletal" model utilized in volunteer management. These basics are Plan, Organize, Staff, Support and Renew. In Bradner's work, she creates a view of volunteer administration which specifically refers to the leadership of volunteers. In ten steps she encourages specific leadership behaviors. The Planning stage incorporates Steps 1 to 4. Step 1, *Leaders have a vision* promotes the use of knowing what the bigger picture is for programs, including how to incorporate volunteers. Step 2, *Leaders know their mission,* refers to recognizing what the specific actions and services are conducted through the organization and how volunteers can serve. Step 3, *Leaders define core values and have a plan*, allows volunteer administrators to identify important priorities and how not to deviate from that plan.

The Organize stage includes Steps 4 and 5. Step 4, *Leaders create a culture conducive to success* promotes working with permanent staff and clients to welcome volunteers and their contributions. *Step 5, Leaders develop a framework that enables*, recognizes the need to ensure that job descriptions are representative of need and that risks to the volunteer, organization and client are minimized.

In the Staffing stage, Steps 6 and 7 are outlined. This includes *Leaders involve the right people* (Step 6) and *Involving people meaningfully* (Step 7). Both of these steps ensure that volunteers are correctly matched with job descriptions, selected based on qualifications and then allowed to work in an area which is personally beneficial and rewarding to the volunteer.

Steps 8 (*Leaders groom leadership for the future*) and 9 (*Leaders use effective conflict management and communication strategies*) are included in the Support stage. This stage directs the attention of the volunteer administrator to ensuring that the volunteer is comfortable with tasks, so that delegation may take place. This promotes ownership and provides that the volunteer is an important part of the organization. While delegation can be a struggle for some, Bradner (1999) emphasizes that believing in the good work of the volunteers you recruit reinforces to the volunteer the value of the position they hold. Step 9 focuses on the role of communication in addressing complex issues within the organization. This may include issues directly related to the role or responsibilities of the volunteer, but could also include conflict among staff or staff and volunteers.

Lastly, Bradner (1999) suggests that volunteer administrators renew their volunteer staff. Step 10, *Leaders evaluate and renew*, establishes a system for maintaining volunteers, promoting volunteers, or removing volunteers. Of course, this is based on the systematic collection of information to assist with justification for programmatic or staffing changes. Evaluations can be used to demonstrate value of volunteer administration efforts, including direct client impacts, or simply to show if a volunteer is meeting expectations for their assigned role. Bradner proposes using each step as a comprehensive model of leadership for volunteer programs; each step providing its own unique contribution to the total volunteer experience.

Volunteer Administration Competency Model

The following is an excerpt from Stedman and Rudd (2004)*.

The model proposed provides the dimensions of VRM [volunteer resources management] and includes the theoretical base, foundation, and processes of the discipline. The theoretical base is in psychology and sociology, and the foundation stems from Leadership and Management, Community Development, and Teaching and Learning. The processes are Organizational Leadership, Systems Leadership, Accountability, Management Skills, Personal Skills, Commitment to the Profession and Organizational Culture. Each level of the model will be explored in detail and supporting documentation offered. The researchers developed the conceptual model (see Exhibit H.1) which depicts the dimensions of volunteer administration. Researchers adapted the model from Williams (1991) who suggested the theoretical dimensions of Agricultural Education.

There are five key contexts which volunteer administration (VA) currently operates. The primary contexts of VA are Faith-Based Initiatives/Church Organizations and Not-for-Profits. These two contexts are the most reported sources for voluntary activity (Independent Sector, 2001). The three auxiliary contexts include the Cooperative Extension Service, Education (K-12 and colleges/universities), and Businesses/Industry. These auxiliary contexts report lower levels of volunteer contributions than the primary contexts and may not depend solely on a volunteer staff to maintain day-to-day operations of the organization. It is these contexts which determine the importance of certain processes over others.

Each context is unique in administering volunteer programs based on the needs of the organization, the clientele, and volunteers. Special circumstances determine the extent that each volunteer administration process is practiced. For example, a volunteer administrator working with long-term direct service volunteers may use a different management strategy than if working with short-term or episodic volunteers. Additionally, a complex organization with a hierarchal structure may desire the volunteer administrator to have a higher level of competence in skills related to organizational culture than of a simpler, less complex organization.

The model begins from the theoretical base of VRM. The base builds the foundation, which disciplinarily supports volunteer administration. The processes of VRM comprise the operational level of volunteer programs. Fisher and Cole (1993) describe the discipline of volunteer administration as "the knowledge, skills, and abilities required of professional managers to effectively involve volunteers in the work of organizations" (p. xiv). The processes are the competencies related to volunteer administrator, their proficiency in skills; however, to infer knowledge, the underlying foundations of the processes must be explored.

THEORETICAL BASE The theoretical base is comprised of psychology and sociology. These major fields of study provide the strongest foundation to support the other dimensions of VRM as outlined in this section.

*This sixth model is excerpted in this chapter with approval from the *Journal of Leadership Education.*

EXHIBIT H.1 Dimensions of Volunteer Administration

Processes	Organizational Leadership	Systems Leadership	Account-ability	Management Skills	Personal Skills	Organizational Culture	Commitment to the Profession
Discipline	Volunteer Administration						
Foundation	Leadership and Management		Community Development		Teaching and Learning		
Theoretical Base	Psychology and Sociology						

PSYCHOLOGY Psychology, in the simplest words, is the study of the mind and mental processes. The implications of having a strong base of knowledge in psychology for volunteer administrators are endless. Theories derived from psychology and sociology provides a basis for the concepts associated with leadership and management, community development, and teaching and learning.

The concept of motivation, and the many theories that are associated with it, has continuously influenced the foundation of VRM. Most texts today review Maslow's hierarchy (Maslow, 1954) or Herzberg's Two-Factor model (Herzberg, Mausner, & Snyderman, 1959). Understanding motivation is one of the most studied aspects of VRM and continues to be an important component of successful volunteer programs. There is no doubt that the motivational needs of individuals persuade the way that volunteer administrators recruit, train, recognize, retain, and supervise. The many theories of motivation make up an essential piece of the volunteer administrator's role.

Psychology also enables the volunteer administrator to understand human development. The effects of the Human Ecological model (Bronfenbrenner, 1979), Ages and Stages youth development (Cox, 1999), and the work of Erikson and Piaget all influence many of the decisions that are made by volunteer administrators. These theories ensure that appropriate programs are developed for clientele, that volunteers are matched appropriately to assignments, and that individuals are included in important decisions for their unique contributions.

The influences of psychology are evident in personality assessments, learning style inventories, and leadership instruments. Volunteer administrators should be familiar with all of these. The Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) supports team building. Boyd's (2002) study found that understanding and utilizing group dynamics, personality type, and team-building strategies, along with relationship skills grounded in understanding motivation, inspiring commitment, people skills (developing the "total" person), and sharing power and giving up control as essential competencies of the volunteer administrator.

SOCIOLOGY The second piece is sociology, that is, the study of human social behavior (*The American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 2000). Interpersonal relations, self and social identity, group behavior, prosocial behavior and multiculturalism all affect the discipline of VRM in some way (Connors, 1995). The inherent understanding of how people behave greatly influences the decisions that are made every day by volunteer administrators. Outlined AVA competencies influenced by sociology are Staff/Volunteer Relations (staff engagement), Financial Resource Management (Donor Identification), and Cultural Competence (human rights, diversity, and inclusivity). Collaborating with others, Relationship skills (the ability to motivate and work with others effectively), and Communication Skills (verbal, nonverbal, listening) are competencies identified by Boyd (2002) that the foundation of sociology supports.

The theoretical base of VRM provides an origin for the discipline and for the profession. Psychology and sociology greatly influence the day-to-day operation of volunteer administration and provides an empirical basis for the models and strategies that are used. Their influence is seen throughout the dimensions of VRM.

FOUNDATIONS The foundations of VRM are Leadership and Management, Community Development, and Teaching and Learning. These three foundational disciplines provide the basis for why the identified processes of volunteer administration are important and relevant to the profession.

Leadership and Management

The foundation discipline of leadership and management has provided volunteer administration with much of its theoretical base. As identified earlier, the dominant contributing fields to VRM have been business management, personnel management, and public-service administration. This correlation is primarily due to the similarities of function in managing groups of people. Recently the addition of leadership principles into the field of VRM has extended the function of the volunteer administrator to include leader of volunteers. Often the volunteer administrator fulfills both roles of leader and manager (Fisher & Cole, 1993). The following definitions clarify management from leadership:

- *Management* — planning, organizing, staffing and human resource management, leading and influencing, and controlling (Buford, Bedeian, & Lindner, 1995).
- *Leadership* — The reciprocal process of mobilizing, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers (Burns, 1978).

Each discipline has a distinct contribution to VRM, however, the field of management has long been the dominant influence. Cronk (1982, as cited in Fisher and Cole, 1993) defines the volunteer administrator's management responsibilities as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, controlling, interpersonal roles, informational roles, and decision-maker. The dominant management philosophies within VRM are personnel management and program management, and each offer a unique strategy for managing volunteers. The primary distinction is that organizations that support the use of volunteers throughout depend more on the personnel management model and organizations that utilize volunteers in multiple activities depend on the program management model.

The pragmatic nature of the profession has led to the development of management models to address the needs of volunteer administrators. These models include ISOTURE (Boyce, 1971), The Bridge from Dreams to Reality (Vineyard, 1983), Volunteer Professional Model for Human Services Agencies and Counselors (Lenihan & Jackson, 1984), Volunteer Management Cycle (Lawson & Lawson, 1987), the 4-H Volunteer Development Model (Kwarteng, Smith, & Miller, 1988), LOOP (Penrod, 1991), GEMS (Culp et al. 1998), and Leading Volunteers for Results (Bradner, 1999). These various models all have certain characteristics creating consistency in volunteer program administration, regardless of the specific acronym offered by the author(s) of the model.

Identification of the processes associated with VRM proved to be an important stepping-stone in the development of the profession. Research has shown that the models are relevant and applicable in the day-to-day management of volunteer programs. However, in the completion of management related tasks, is it unreasonable to consider and employ other management models and theories?

The application of alternative management models to the field of VRM is an important consideration. The volunteer administrator as a manager must be able to effectively understand and utilize other management theories for the betterment of the profession. They should be proficient in McGregor's (1985) Theory X and Theory Y, Blake and Mouton's (1985) Managerial Grid, Odiorne's (1965) Management-by-Objectives, and Fiedler's (1967) and Vroom and Yetton's (1973) Contingency Models. These models have shown to make a significant contribution to the field of management and can provide volunteer administrators with strategies for the management of volunteer programs and volunteer personnel.

At one time the AVA's standards of competence were grounded heavily in the managerial competencies as described by Cronk (1982). However, the AVA's standards of competence have changed since the publication of Fisher and Cole's book in 1993 and now encompass a much different standard, including leadership.

Fisher and Cole (1993) refer to Bennis' (1984) definition of leadership competencies. These competencies include focusing on commitment to a vision or an agenda, communicating and interpreting the vision so that others align themselves with it, maintaining a reliable, consistent posture, knowing one's strengths and deploying them effectively, and advocacy as an additional leadership function. The AVA's current set of identified competencies includes knowledge of leadership theories as a skill of commitment to the profession.

Leadership in volunteer programs takes on a more significant role for educators when designing curriculum for volunteer administrators. The educational curriculum must adequately address leadership theories and their application to volunteer administration. Leadership has already exhibited influence in the discipline of Agricultural Education and educators have integrated leadership principles into established curricula. As a growing discipline within agricultural education departments, faculty have focused research on developing and implementing leadership curriculums, a next step for volunteer administration (Boyd & Murphrey, 2001; Brown & Fritz, 1994; Fritz & Brown, 1998; Townsend, 2002).

In considering a focus for leadership education for VRM, the defined competencies by Bennis contend that transformational leadership and full-range leadership education curricula may be the most appropriate. However, knowledge and application of traditional and contemporary leadership theories to volunteer administration is important and necessary. If knowledge of leadership theories is an essential competence (as identified by the AVA), then educators must be prepared to further examine and expand curricula that focus solely on the management-related skills of the volunteer administrator.

Community Development

Community-development-related theories are a second foundation of VRM. The idea that individuals within society have a defined role to be citizens and participate in community-related programs and initiatives is a driving force of volunteerism. The relationship between the voluntary sector and the community is strong, due to the fact that voluntary organizations are often called upon to respond to community needs and to use volunteers from the community (Connors, 1995). Community development theories emerge in the volunteer administrator's tasks associated with understanding the role of individuals in communities and the varying perceptions of an organization by the stakeholders, the staff, board members, volunteers, and clients. A key for volunteer administrators is to understand how that varies community-to-community, rural-to-urban, and so forth. This includes knowledge of the fundamental differences in how communities react to philanthropy and the civic participation level of local residents.

This foundation includes various theories that address the community as a system and those that deal specifically with community development. Community development theory encompasses a wide-range of topics all relative to the field of VRM and includes system development, defining community, holistic approaches, democracy, citizen roles, and building on diversity (Cook, 1994). For example, the system theory (Tamas, 2000) in community development provides an illustrative framework that outlines the many factors involved in community development. The focus of this theory includes assessing power and influence, understanding the dynamics of inter-group relationships, and changes in planning development activities. Additionally, concepts like Lasswell's value/institution categories (Cunningham, 2002) can provide volunteer administrators with strategies for identifying and recruiting volunteers from the community for the organization. The wheel specifies those individuals from government agencies, families and family support groups, schools (public and private), higher education, businesspersons, civic organizations, various society groups, and religious organizations be included in community development efforts and is appropriate for guiding the selection of volunteers.

Community development provides VRM with much of its ability to capitalize on community structures and individuals to operate programs. The drive to assist with developing responsible voluntary activities is an important consideration for volunteer administrators. As Connors (1995) phrases it, "Responsible voluntarism is an active, spontaneous, and challenging force in society" (p. 8).

Teaching and Learning

Teaching and learning is an important theoretical foundation of VRM. Most literature, outside of motivation and management, is on training and orientation. Are volunteer administrators doing a good job orienting the volunteer to the organization? Are they doing a good job training them for their position? Are they providing continual support to the volunteer? These questions provide the means for volunteers successfully performing their volunteer roles.

The Association of Volunteer Admistrators's (2001) competency of resource development and management requires the skill of volunteer performance management. Within this skill is the concept of orientation and training, which includes specific references to design and implementation of training programs for volunteers. Additionally, the AVA included training of paid staff as an important step in staff and volunteer relationships and risk management. Boyd's (2002) study included teaching and learning under two competencies, organizational culture (creating a positive environment in which volunteers can learn and operate) and management skills (competent in orienting and training volunteers). Yet, to be competent, what does a volunteer administrator need to be able to do?

The volunteer administrator should understand the basic principles of pedagogy and andragogy and ways to ensure that volunteers are, for one being properly trained, but being trained in a manner which complements their learning style for greatest retention of material. The concept of training and orientation for volunteers is especially important due to the growing numbers of volunteers. Understanding teaching and learning concepts can assist the volunteer administrator in knowing how much training is effective, what to expect of adults in a learning environment, and how to differentiate training for adults and youth. Volunteer administrators will need to determine expectations for volunteers and the implications for their training and orientation needs.

There are five major orientations related to adult education that should be emphasized when instructing volunteer administrators. The five are Behaviorist, Humanistic, Cognitive, Social Learning, and Critical Reflection (as cited in Birkenholz, 1999). These five orientations provide a framework for understanding the various ways that individuals learn and can prove to be an essential tool for ensuring a strong quality educational program for volunteers.

The foundation of VRM comprised of theories from leadership and management, community development, and teaching and learning all derived from the same footings: psychology and sociology. The footings of psychology and sociology provide the theoretical reasoning for why people do the things they do. More importantly, they provide a firm basis for the development of VRM as a profession and as an academic discipline.

Processes

The processes associated with the discipline of VRM are a compilation of identified competencies from the literature. The primary source was the AVA's set standard of competence, and source of content for the AVA credentialing program. The competency set was determined by a survey of experts in VRM and the five main areas are to be an exhaustive list of the competencies that volunteer administrators should possess. They are commitment to the profession, planning and conceptual design, resource development and management, accountability, and perspective and responsiveness.

Commitment to the profession refers to the administrators' professional ethics and ethical decision-making. Planning and conceptual design focuses on organizational overview, organizational resources, organizational operations, and the planning process. The third competency set emphasizes resource development and management and the skills of volunteer system management, volunteer performance management, staff and volunteer relationships, risk management, and financial resource management. The competency of accountability refers specifically to monitoring, evaluation, and reporting. The last set is perspective and responsiveness and emphasizes cultural competence, global volunteerism, managing change, and strategic relationships. These processes are common to literature published on volunteer administration (Association of Volunteer Administrators, 2001; Boyd, 2002; Bradner, 1999; Campbell & Ellis, 1995; Connors, 1995; Culp et al. 1998).

The first process was organizational leadership with focus on commitment to vision, ability to access needs, long-range planning, articulation of volunteer efforts and accomplishments, short-range planning, needs to plans to action, articulation of organizational vision, and creative use of technology.

Second was systems leadership with understanding the system in which you operate shared leadership, understanding and utilizing group dynamics, personality type and team-building strategies, willingness to share power, and collaboration with others.

The third process was organizational culture and identified skills of acting as an internal consultant, creating a positive environment, relationship skills, inspiring commitment and eagerness to learn, trusting volunteers, and positive attitude and energy. Personal skills were identified and included people skills, conflict resolution skills, communication skills, creative thinking, and the ability to predict and manage change.

Lastly, the management skill included understanding the functions and operationalization of an effective advisory system, and competence in recruiting, screening, matching, orienting and training, protecting, recognizing, and retaining. The objective of Boyd's (2002) study was to determine competencies that would be required by volunteer coordinators in 2010; however, the similarities between the two provided the foundation for the processes outlined in the model of the dimensions of volunteer administration.

The final processes included in the model were Organizational Leadership, Systems Leadership, Accountability, Management Skills, Personal Skills, Organizational Culture, and Commitment to the Profession. The identified processes all contained competencies that are either part of the current structure of volunteer administration, or per Boyd's study, had a valued place in the profession for future consideration. The goal in providing the processes was to ensure that there was comprehensive set of identified pragmatic subject-matter areas.

The models included in this section provide a starting point for determining a direction for administering a volunteer program. With that said, it becomes essential to the volunteer leader to assess which model fits his/her personal needs, but also those of the program and volunteers.

Another viewpoint on leading volunteer programs is to take a deeper look at traditional leadership theories to determine how these ideas fit into a broader model of volunteer leadership.

Integrating Leadership Theory into a Volunteer Program

This next section provides a glance into five different conceptualizations of leadership theory: Leader-Centered, Situational, Transformational, Team-Based, and

Follower-Based. These conceptualizations include many traditional and contemporary views of leadership.

Leader-Centered

Leader-centered theories have typically focused on approaches and models whereby the emphasis is clearly placed on characteristics, behaviors or preferences of the individual leader. Traditionally, there are three theories which one can classify as leader-centered: Trait Approach, Skills Approach, and Style Approach.

TRAIT APPROACH Each of these approaches center around the leader and provide a means for understanding why leaders adopt certain practices in their leadership roles. The first is the Trait Approach, also known as the "Great Man" Theory. This approach justifies a leader's personal characteristics and has been studied since the late 1940s. The first attempts at explaining leadership through this perspective was done so by assessing qualities held by great political, military, and social leaders (Northouse, 2010). Since Stogdill's initial study (1948) there have been a number of researchers seeking to answer the question of what makes a great leader great? Northouse (2010) provided a synthesis of each of these and concluded that there are five consistent leadership traits: Intelligence, Self-Confidence, Determination, Integrity, and Sociability.

For a volunteer leader it may be important for him/her to possess and make use of each of these traits. Intelligence can be used to be systematic in evaluating programmatic needs and working with volunteers, while self-confidence ensures that the individual is certain of their competence (maintaining a sense of self-esteem and self-assurance). A leader's determination may be indicative of his/her desire to have a strong program, but also the ability to seek the best volunteers for their programmatic needs. The last two provide a sense of personal connection to the leader through their integrity and sociability. Integrity ensures that the leader approaches decision making through a values-based approach and sociability gives attention to the relational needs of volunteers, staff and stakeholders.

SKILLS APPROACH Also in this category is the Skills Approach conceptualized by Robert Katz (1955). Katz's approach brought forth the need for a leader to possess three different administrative skills: technical, human, and conceptual. The technical skill set brings attention to the specific competencies necessary to carry out the most basic type of activity associated with a job or career. As described by Katz it involves hands-on activity with a process or product. Next is the human skill, which could be understood as the 'soft' or interpersonal skills necessary to be successful in working with people. This skill incorporates those behaviors required for understanding individual motivation, conflict resolution, and social awareness. Certainly not last by any means are conceptual skills. This is the ability of a leader to work with abstract ideas or concepts. Having this skill leads to the capability of translating abstract concepts into concrete ideas, including working with strategic visioning.

As a volunteer leader there is certainly the technical piece of understanding what duties and responsibilities you are asking your volunteers to complete. For instance, if you are director for a youth development program (4-H, Girl Scouts, Boys' and

Girls' Clubs) you may require that volunteers work one-on-one with those youth requiring a knowledge of youth development principles. In this instance, the technical skill would relate to the volunteer leader having a certain level of competence in Piaget's developmental work. The human skill set would be necessary at nearly every level of administration in a volunteer program. This encourages relationships with volunteers, staff, and clients. Specifically, this assists with recognizing the motivational needs of volunteers, which based on the models discussed in the previous section, is an essential part to volunteer management and leadership. Being able to think beyond the concrete world is important for the volunteer manager. Often there is a need to be strategic and envision what the organization or volunteer program could be—having a strong conceptual skill set supports these needs.

STYLE APPROACH The third theory discussed from a leader-centered perspective is Style Approach. The Style Approach has a number of different perspectives which can be characterized within this category. However, the emphasis here will be on Blake and Mouton's (1978) Leadership Grid, which is a specific model of leader style preference. In general, leaders' preferences for behavior can be grouped by *task* or *relationship*. A leader who uses both of these together has a balanced approach to leadership with an equal emphasis (high) on tasks and relationships within the organization. Blake and Mouton further differentiate the interaction of tasks and relationships with the Leadership Grid, identifying five leadership behaviors. The first is a low-task, low-relationship behavior, impoverished. This behavior is described by a leader's lack of interest in issues related to either tasks or relationships. In this case, it is difficult for followers and peers to identify a focus, other than self, of the leader. Moving across the grid is the authoritative leader. This leader has only the task as a focus and is characterized by such an intense interest in task completion that relationships and people matter little beyond their contribution to task completion. In the center of the grid is middle-of-the-road which describes a style whereby the leader modestly commits to task and relationship needs. In this particular instance, there are sacrifices made at both levels. In the corner representing a high-relationship, low task is country club. Country club refers to a leader who places emphasis on relationships, socializing and supporting the interest of others, often forfeiting needs related to the task. The last style characterized on the grid is team leader. This style represents a leader who places high concern on both task and relationship needs. They work exceptionally hard at maintaining a balance between tasks and relationships ensuring quality outcomes and a happy staff.

As it is evidenced, this approach focuses on a leader's preference for providing structure to the organization, either through a task emphasis or relationship emphasis. The volunteer leader must be aware then of their own preferences and be able to identify which category best describes his/her behavior.

Situational

There are two theories which will be discussed in this section related to leadership based on situational factors, Situational Leadership and Leader-Member Exchange (LMX). Theories or approaches categorized as situational or contingency are usually done so because the leaders received cues from external sources. These sources can be related to the follower's needs, task characteristics, or socialized interactions.

SITUATIONAL LEADERSHIP Situational leadership as defined by Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2008) works to adjust a leader's style based on follower needs. This particular model is attractive to many leaders because it does permit a leader to identify needs and then apply a style which is most beneficial for that follower. Followers are categorized as D1 to D4. A follower at the D1 level may be new to the job or position (newly secured volunteer) and who has little experience in the organization or with the specific task. They are seen as low in competence, but high in commitment (very eager to get to work). As you can imagine with volunteers, this is an exciting time as they enter a new organization, but as necessary with training and orientation, do need some preparation prior to task completion. The leadership style best suited for this stage is considered an S1, or directive. There is little support required, in that the motivation is there, but what is needed is specific instruction on what needs to be accomplished (clearly outlining expectations to a new volunteer). Next is the D2 follower who is seen as having some competence, but low commitment (been in the position long enough that the "honeymoon" phase is nearing end). The complementary leadership style is S2, or coaching. In this style behaviors focus on encouragement for the necessary relationship support, but also still providing clear expectations of task completion. An example would be of a volunteer who has been with the organization for a few months and may feel a little disenchanted with his/her work. The motivation to keep them going is absolutely necessary and so the volunteer program leader must be sensitive to those issues, but at the same time the volunteer has not mastered their work yet, either requiring special attention to task direction.

The last two follower developmental levels are D3 and D4. In both of these cases more time has been spent with the organization; however, each has its specific needs. At the D3 level—high competence, low commitment—the follower has the necessary skill set to be successful, but maybe is unsure of his or her capability. This likens to the volunteer who is ready for the mid-level assignment, potentially to serve as a volunteer supervisor of new recruits, but is not sold on the idea that they are prepared. In this case, the leader may elect an S3 supporting role in order to fulfill their confidence needs of the follower. This can include a level of empowerment and reinforcing that the volunteer is definitely ready for the advancement in responsibility. The final category is the D4—high competence, high commitment. This volunteer has likely been with the organization for some time and knows the ins and outs of each assignment, the staff and clients. They are comfortable with their assignment and see themselves as a resource for other volunteers. The leadership style most complementary at this stage is the S4—delegating. The leader promotes confidence in the volunteer by consistently utilizing them as a resource and has the ability to simply request that tasks be completed and the volunteer has the skills necessary to do so.

The piece which is often the most helpful and supported by Hersey et al. (2008) is the role of communication in using any of the styles discussed. Hersey et al. promotes that the idea of leadership is shared and done with a follower, not to a follower. You must be clear in the selection of the styles you adopt for each volunteer and keep an open dialogue, so that you are clear on what style is most appropriate.

LEADER MEMBER EXCHANGE (LMX) Leader Member Exchange, also called LMX, is based on the idea of vertical dyad linkages (VDLs) where individual relationships are stressed as part of the leadership process. Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) continued to explain these relationships in promoting a dyadic relationship between a leader and a follower. However, since there are multiple volunteers in an organization at a given time, it is important for the leader to establish these relationships with each individual. The end result of the VDLs is that some individuals may establish stronger relationships with the leader. Individuals who are fortunate enough to have the stronger relationships are categorized into the "in-group" while those with weaker VDLs are in the "out-group." Those in the in-group are often recipients of more information, resources and frequently spend more time with the leader. It is natural to believe that some relationships are easier to establish than others—imagine liking and giving equal attention to everyone all the time—it would be exhausting. However, when there is a significant drop in the quality of VDL, the resulting out-group receives less information, less opportunity, and less time.

The recommendation for leaders to balance out the dynamic among the quality of exchanges between the in-group and out-group is to engage in "leadership making." Leadership making refers to the leader's role in creating positive exchanges among all followers, but especially the out-group members. Graen and Ul-Bien (1995) recognize three different phases of the leadership-making process. The first is considered the stranger phase, whereby interactions are one-way (volunteer leader to volunteer) and emphasis is on the self. The second is the acquaintance phase and exchanges gained in quality and frequency. This brings the opportunity to discuss more personal issues and share details which may have seemed superficial at the stranger phase. In the final phase of relationship development, partnership, both parties are equally committed to the relationship and there is openness in communication. Information is shared and personal knowledge leads to higher quality exchanges.

As a volunteer program leader this approach is beneficial because volunteers could naturally see paid staff as the in-group and themselves as the out-group. In this scenario it is important for the volunteer leader to promote time to the volunteers reinforcing their role within the organization. Establishing the value of their service assists them with perceiving themselves as members and not outsiders just providing a service.

Transformational

This particular set of theories has received the most attention over the past twenty years by individuals representing all fields, corporate, government and nonprofit. In this section, the basics of transformational leadership and authentic leadership will be discussed.

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP Transformational leadership was conceptualized in the 1970s shortly after James McGregor Burns (1978) published his work on leadership. The initial tenants of the theory began with transactional leadership, which was closely connected to the more traditional methods management. Transformational leadership, which grew out of this earlier work, was further defined and operationalized by Bernard Bass (1985). Bass described the need for leaders to take into consideration the whole person and those older approaches would not suffice in today's world.

By focusing on the follower's needs, specific leadership behaviors could be used to elicit different motivational factors. Through emotional needs and values a leader could encourage followers to do more than expected. This includes "raising followers' levels of consciousness about the importance and value of specified idealized goals, getting followers to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the team or organization, and moving followers to address higher-level needs" (Bass, 1985, p. 20).

The behaviors which were included were: idealized influence (the ability to have actions follow values), inspirational motivation (encourage through symbols), intellectual stimulation (promote thinking outside the box), and individualized consideration (unique attention to each person). Using each of these in a combination with one another promotes deeper relationships, stronger motivation, and more fully invested volunteers.

In a similar fashion, Kouzes and Posner (2007) developed another model of transformational leadership based on over twenty years of personal best stories collected from leaders from all industries and sectors. Their work identified five unique practices which derived from the stories illustrating the moments in time where they were able to capture attention, commit to goals and promote shared ideals. The five Kouzes and Posner proposed were: model the way (reinforcing actions based on clear ideals), inspire a shared vision (communicating a clear picture of the future shared by all), challenge the process (moving beyond the status quo), enable others to act (appreciating the talents of others and promoting their involvement), and encourage the heart (showing support and recognition).

As a volunteer leader it becomes a necessity to promote positivity within the organization. In the case of working with volunteers they must be able to identify that the work they are doing is contributing to something bigger than they are—transformational leadership allows that to happen. Through the Leadership Practices model it becomes clear how previous models of volunteer leadership can fit within this perspective. Each piece reflects a specific component with the volunteer leader being the central person in promoting the volunteer program through his/her own actions.

However, in the aftermath of turmoil after a number of unethical actions from individuals in the spotlight (Kenneth Lay—ENRON, Bill Clinton—Lewinsky scandal) another theory grew from the foundation of transformational leadership—authentic leadership.

AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP With authentic leadership still just a rough idea in most leadership theorists' minds, it has taken hold of a generation seeking more from the leaders in which they work for and support. The consistency lies within the reason why authentic leadership is a growing perspective of leadership, and that is people want trust, honesty, integrity and genuineness in their leaders. While there is no consistent definition of authentic leadership, there are three perspectives promoted: Intrapersonal, Developmental and Interpersonal.

The intrapersonal perspective is derived from an individual's comfort and awareness of who they are, the history of their life story, and the passion and values they have driving them forward. As described in Northouse (2010) it is the meaning attached to a life story which creates the person, it becomes a unique identity possessed by only one.

The development perspective recognizes that there are life experiences which alter the way one sees the world. In life, the unexpected can occur and change us forever. In this case, the focus is on the ongoing nature of being and that every day we change, we grow and that our development occurs over a lifetime of experience. Through this model, examples of Nancy Brinker (Susan G. Komen Foundation), Lance Armstrong (Livestrong), and Blake Mycoskie (Toms Shoes) all come to mind. As a volunteer leader it may take a life-altering experience to bring forth the passion needed to lead a foundation, a nonprofit, or NGO.

The third perspective is indicative of the reciprocal nature of a leaders' and followers' needing to align on a personal level. In this case, a leader may have espoused values which promote certain ideals and those ideals are easily communicated and reflected in the values and ideals of others. One strong example drawn is of Martin Luther King, Jr. His original investment in understanding a need for equality was personally derived, and yet the day of the Civil Rights march on Washington D.C. he had no idea who would come or how many would show. His values and ideals were widely held by others creating a connection and a vision of unity in which he could promote and lead.

There are a few different practical ways to promote authentic leadership and Bill George's (2007) *True North* is a means for objectively working though developing authentic leadership. Based on five dimensions: purpose (to drive passion), values (to drive behavior), relationships (to drive connectedness), self-discipline (to drive consistency), and heart (to drive compassion), George gives readers a roadmap for clearly articulating the manner in which they want to lead (personally and professionally).

As a volunteer leader it is important for there to be a connection to the mission of the organization and that connection is observed by volunteers. In being authentic, the complexity of false presentation is eliminated and individuals feel a stronger and deeper connection to the organization and to the people.

Team-Based Approaches

Teams have become an increasingly effective way to manage workloads in any kind of setting; however, most recognize the complexities and conflict which often arise as a result of team-based assignments. While the model is not typically included in "leadership" texts, it does provide valuable insight into why teams go through what they do during the developmental process. As a team leader it is valuable to recognize a team from a group and the impacts resulting from that variation. A team is recognized by the unified goal bringing them together. They have a commitment to working with one another to resolve issues prohibiting their success. A group merely represents a group of individuals whose goals may not be the same. Often the one barrier stopping a group from becoming a team is the clear articulation of a goal. The model discussed in this section focuses on the stages in which an individual group experiences as becoming an effective team.

GROUP DEVELOPMENT PROCESS In the 1960s, Bruce Tuckman focused on describing an initial sequence of stages to represent group development. Within the decade and the inclusion of Mary Jensen's research established the model of Small-Group Development. By 1977, Tuckman and Jensen refined the model now including a series of five stages: forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning. While this is a model presented for group development it can be used to also generalize about a team's developmental nature.

As one can reflect on introductory moments, it is easy to recognize the 'forming' stage. Tuckman and Jensen (1977) describe this initial stage as being full of "testing and dependence" (p. 419). With that, people coming together in this stage must learn from one another about each individual's strengths, purpose, and values, but also the task, goals and expectations. Because of the guarded nature of this stage individuals often have a very surface-based understanding of the people whom they must interact (recall the stranger phase in LMX). Yet, as the group progresses, more conflict can arise resulting in complex emotional responses. This "storming" stage consists of a testing of individual values. At this time, honesty, openness, and candidness are necessary in order for the group to progress. When a leader is not appointed, this stage often includes a vying for power among the group members.

Moving through the model, if a group can progress successfully through the "storming" stage, they are set for the "norming" stage. Within this stage, also known as the "harmonious cohesion" stage, the issues which resulted in conflict have been resolved. As a group works through conflict, set norms of communication are established and individuals build their capacity to speak their minds. This involves the sharing of ideas and a willingness to work toward problem identification and solution. Through this stage is the "performing" stage whereby group members reach the height of their connectedness. In this stage, members know their role, support other members, and work toward problem resolution. There is a firm commitment to the group, its shared values and the goal. Once the goal has been reached and the group function resolved, the group must adjourn. In this phase, the team dissolves, but does so through celebration and recognition of the group's combined efforts.

It is so necessary to appreciate that this process has to happen and often does happen without much stimulation from external forces. In other words, it happens whether we like it or not. In the volunteer leader role it is your responsibility to see the process through and help facilitate its progression. Many of the steps within the stages are addressed through good recruitment, strong training and orientation, and clear expectations communicated through supervision—and of course, recognizing the contributions of volunteers!

Follower-Based

In this section, theories are discussed which support the basic understanding what it means to serve those who provide services to you or your organization. It is through the concepts associated with servant leadership that we provide homage to the individuals who give of themselves to our organizations. The second piece is being able to recognize the various types of followers which result from their personal experiences.

SERVANT LEADERSHIP RK Greenleaf pioneered the idea of servant leadership after his nearly forty-year run with AT&T. The corporate world teaches many things and Greenleaf took the idea that traditional corporate strategies were insufficient in addressing the depth of issues which working people faced. His reflective time and writing produced the concept of the "Servant as Leader." The influence was largely eastern in that many of the connections that Greenleaf made to this notion were derived from religious studies from long ago. This in itself is a great reason why so many individuals are drawn to servant leadership.

Greenleaf (1970) set forth ten basic principles to guide a leader's actions resulting in a more servant-based style of leadership. These are: 1) listening, 2) empathy, 3) healing, 4) awareness, 5) persuasion, 6) conceptualization, 7) foresight, 8) stewardship, 9) commitment, and 10) building community. Although there is nothing new about these ideas, the manner in which Greenleaf combines and connects the concepts is. A leader demonstrating servant leadership should continually focus on the followers, for as we'll discuss soon, the followers do hold the most power. This premise drives all the behaviors listed. In order to be successful, a leader must listen to the needs of the people, understand their position, promote their wholeness (engage in activities to support transformation), and be aware of themselves, but also everyone and everything. In this first layer of principles there is an evidenced need to reach out to people and to connect with those whom we work. Moving forward, there is also a need to be competent in workplace matters. A leader must be able to promote ideas and messages which are supportive of goals, make abstract ideas concrete, and use historic trends to make decisions about the future. The last piece focuses on the bigger picture. A servant leader must take care of those things in his/her trust for future generations, show a commitment to the growth of others, and bring people together within the organization and to the organization out.

FOLLOWERSHIP The last perspective we'll discuss focuses on understanding the nature of being a follower. Although this chapter addresses being a leader, having a basic knowledge of followership is necessary. Rost (1995) provided that historically there have been various viewpoints about followers. The most common pre-industrial viewpoint was that followers were in fact followers due to some inferiority to the leader. This included intelligence, need of guidance, not able to or not willing to lead, and a general sense that the follower was average. However, after the industrial revolution much changed about the perception of followers and that included the notion that followers do indeed hold much of the power within the leader-follower relationship. You do have to stop and ask yourself, for what value is a leader without followers?

In focusing further on the types of followers, Kelley (1992) identified five distinct follower types, all with productive and non-productive variations. The "alienated" follower can be viewed as a devil's advocate and independent when productive, yet troublesome or negative when non-productive. In either case, the alienated follower can be problematic due to his/her consistent challenging of others within the organization. The "conformist" will be seen as a team player, one who willingly accepts assignments, but to others can be viewed as the yes man or lacking his/her own ideas. In organizations, we have seen those who can be perceived as playing political games all with the end of getting ahead. While this is non-productive, the productive view of the "pragmatist" is that he/she will work to get things done and has a very realistic perspective. There are two last types, the "passive" and the "effective." The passive is seen as having no productive behaviors, instead is consistently viewed as yielding to the leader for decision-making and needing constant attention. On the opposite end of the spectrum is the effective follower, who is actively engaged, thinks on their own, and assumes ownership for actions and for the organization as a whole.

All of these types can be observed in all sectors, and you should challenge yourself to identify what type of follower you have been, but also work to identify the types of followers you have currently serving in your organization. Again, the intent of this information is not to prescribe leadership behaviors for each follower type, but to understand what is driving the actions and behaviors of individuals.

Putting Theory into Practice

It would be wonderful if there were a checklist of leadership to-dos in order to be effective. Unfortunately, much of leadership must be personally driven and initiated from a core desire to lead and serve. The most practical advice is to define the basics for you and identify through personal experiences what strategies are most appropriate. Because there are so many perspectives of leadership, as shown in this chapter, one should reflect on successes of leadership. So, the practical lesson becomes taking to heart what works—sometimes which could mean working through situational leadership practices and another leading with a transformational focus. Understanding your own strengths and preferences though is a great starting place.

A philosophy of leadership has great value for those in administrative positions. Clear articulation of one's own beliefs is a wonderful tool for communicating expectations. It is recommended to begin with defining a leader (traits, behaviors, actions, beliefs) and follow with defining leadership (the combined process). The philosophy should be justified through recognizing the value of individual experiences as noted above. This could be derived from paid positions, volunteer positions, sporting experiences (coaches), educational experiences (teachers), and of course, parents. All recognizing the good, the bad, and the ugly!

In order to accomplish this, there are several pointers that can assist, including: critical thinking and emotional intelligence. Critical thinking, which has received a large amount of attention over the past twenty-years in academic circles, is growing in recognition in the corporate world. Employers are sensitive to individual's perceived and demonstrated ability to think critically; however defining and providing parameters is important in understanding critical thinking. Facione (1990) first defined critical thinking in a rather lengthy verbose form, since that time, a shorter more concise definition has evolved and that is to use "reasoned, purposive, and reflective thinking to make decisions, solve problems, and master concepts" (Rudd, Baker, & Hoover, 2000). To more clearly identify critical thinking, there are six common skills used to express or practice critical thinking: interpretation, analysis, inference, evaluation, explanation and self-regulation. One must be able to answer how information fits together, how concepts connect, and generally what new information means. It is also imperative to examine ideas and assumptions. At a time, when personal agendas are common, it is important to recognize the point or position others are taking.

Through evaluation, one examines others' claims and assigns value to those arguments. Inference has the most utility in administrative and leadership functions because it promotes that alternatives should be explored, outcomes assessed, and recommendations drawn on the systematic examination of the alternatives. The last two, explanation and self-regulation, promote being able to clearly articulate one's thoughts, ideas, and understanding of concepts and information (think explaining your philosophy of leadership). Self-regulation, which is tied to our last concept, emotional intelligence, is twofold: self-examination and self-correction. Self-examination being the explicit time spent reflecting on one's own beliefs and values; however, self-correction recognizes that sometimes we are faltered in our views and must correct how we see the world (a paradigm shift, if you will).

Being able to pull all the pieces together is important, as they all support one another in the quest to be a successful leader. It is using critical thinking to establish and understand leadership and the nature of being a leader; however, there is one last concept to fully be prepared for leading and managing a volunteer program: emotional intelligence.

It has often been said that critical thinking is the mind of leadership and that emotional intelligence is the heart (a little more task and relationship for you!). But, to successfully venture into working with people it takes a little more than a clear view on leadership—you have to have a clear view on yourself and others.

Emotional intelligence is recognizing your emotions and using them to make decisions you can live with, but also the emotional needs of the people around you. Emotional intelligence is broken down into two categories, personal competence and social competence. Personal competence is our own ability to recognize emotional impulses and reactions, as well as control (or use them) in a beneficial, healthy way. It begins with self-awareness, or emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment, self-confidence. Following is self-regulation (sound familiar?) or self-control, trustworthiness, conscientiousness, adaptability, and innovativeness. Through these two ideas, one is then able to self-motivate or have an achievement drive, commitment, initiative, optimism.

On the social side, social awareness promotes empathy (Sensing others' feelings and perspective), a service orientation, the ability to anticipate needs, developing others, and bolstering their abilities. Included as well are leveraging diversity and cultivating opportunities, but also political awareness or recognizing emotional currents. All of these concepts can be seen in different leadership theories from trait approach, through transformational leadership, and in authentic and servant leadership. Critical thinking and emotional intelligence become the glue which holds leadership together.

Conclusion

Leadership is such a personal journey that one embarks on through life, personally and professionally. Reviewing the concepts within this chapter is a starting point in bringing recognition to one's leadership potential. The rest remains up to the individual, to reflect on meaningful moments of success, to recognize personal preferences, and to systematically identify what purpose they want to fulfill through leadership. This can take time, but it will be well worth the effort—the joy of working with volunteers and a staff who appreciates the dedication and commitment shown is priceless.

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DIGITAL I

Information System Tools for Volunteer Management

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The application of sound volunteer management practices and the competencies of those responsible for managing volunteers have frequently been related to the efficacy of volunteer programs (Boyd, 2003; Brudney, 2005; Hager & Brudney, 2004). The literature contains numerous recommendations regarding effective practices and the competencies needed by managers of volunteers. (Fisher & Cole, 1993; Seel, 2010). Less has been written, however, about information technology tools, which can be used to facilitate and support volunteer management activities and those who are responsible for them. Advancements in information technology have provided very powerful and sophisticated tools which are particularly suited to meeting the needs of volunteer programs, staff members, and volunteers. When used in support of programs that have established good volunteer management practices, these tools can save time, money, and effort. They can improve communication, enhance access to information and resources, and speed up or eliminate tedious processes and in so doing, enhance the experiences of both volunteers and staff. They are not panaceas, however, nor can they be used as substitutes for good management practices or competent managers of volunteers. While information technology tools can be both useful and beneficial, organizations must assess their costs in light of the advantages to be gained, the availability of funds, and the specific needs of their own staff members and volunteers.

Although a variety of information technology tools are available, this chapter focuses primarily on "information systems" which can be especially useful in supporting key volunteer management practices as well the individuals who are responsible for them. Encyclopedia Britannica defines an information system as:

> *. . . an integrated set of components for collecting, storing, processing, and communicating information. Business firms, other organizations, and individuals in contemporary society rely on information systems to manage their operations,*

> *compete in the marketplace, supply services, and augment personal lives. For instance, modern corporations rely on computerized information systems to process financial accounts and manage human resources; municipal governments rely on information systems to provide basic services to its citizens; and individuals use information systems to study, shop, bank, and invest.* (Zwass, 2011)

Information systems, which are available via the World Wide Web (commonly referred to as being "online"), can be especially valuable tools because they can be accessed by anyone, at any location with an Internet connection. Access can be regulated through the use of passwords and other mechanisms to verify users' identities and authorization levels and to protect sensitive information. In the volunteer sector, online information systems have the potential to enhance volunteers' association with and sense of "connectedness" to the organization, provide both staff and volunteers with readily accessible information and resources needed to do their jobs, and reflect the overall infrastructure of the volunteer program.

Is it reasonable to expect volunteers to use an information system? That question must be answered by individual organizations in light of input from volunteers and staff and upon careful consideration. In some cases, it may not be a viable expectation. In others, volunteers, especially those from the baby boom generation, may expect and insist that information systems be available to support them in their volunteer work. (Culp, 2010).

In the following sections, examples of information system applications used to support volunteer administration are presented in the context of recommended volunteer management practices and competencies. The individual components and tasks, which comprise these practices and competencies, are delineated and information system tools which can be used in support of each of them, discussed and illustrated. This is followed by an exploration of potential challenges to the implementation of information systems in volunteer organizations. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the elements that are needed to support volunteer programs in implementing information systems and recommendations for getting started.

Tools to Support the Engagement of Volunteers

The Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration (CCVA, 2008) lists Human Resource Management as one of five core competencies in its *Body of Knowledge in Volunteer Administration* and describes it as "The ability to successfully engage, train, and support volunteers in a systematic and intentional way" (p. 3). Within CCVA's Human Resources competency is the expectation that volunteer administrators will be able to " . . . engage volunteers for assignments that match their skills, interests, abilities, and time availability" (p. 5). How can information systems be used to support these functions?

To match a volunteer's skills, interests, abilities and time availability with the needs of the organization and/or its clients, the volunteer administrator must first have accurate information about the volunteer's skills, interest, and abilities as well as the times during which he or she is available to volunteer. Volunteer organizations obtain this information through a variety of means including individual interviews, questionnaires, etc. Depending on the procedures in place at that organization, the information may then be maintained in the volunteer's individual file, combined with information from other volunteers, entered into a database, photocopied and shared with appropriate staff members or volunteers who coordinate other volunteers, or handled in any number of ways. Regardless of the way in which it is handled, this information, along with volunteer contact information, such as name, address, phone, and e-mail address, is needed to effectively match the volunteer and allow him or her to be contacted about an assignment. Of course, making that assignment requires that the volunteer administrator also have information on the current needs of the agency regarding when and where volunteers are needed, what skills are required, etc. Having all of this information available at once, and in the hands of the appropriate individuals is essential to finding suitable matches for volunteers, while at the same time meeting organizational needs for volunteers.

An online information system, which can be used by both volunteers and staff at any location with an Internet connection, is ideally suited to this task. Such a system allows volunteers to enter their own contact information, skills, interests, abilities and time availability as well as other items needed by the organization to support volunteer involvement. For example, organizations which provide volunteer services across a large geographic area may want to ask a volunteer to specify the locations at which he or she is willing to volunteer or the distance he or she is willing to travel. An information system can be configured to gather whatever type of detail is needed to allow for the most appropriate placement of the volunteer. Staff members are then able to consider that volunteer's individual information and match it with organizational needs. Such a system also provides a level of convenience for volunteers in that it allows them to update their information as changes in address, phone number, time availability, volunteering preferences, or other items occur, and to do so at any time of the day or night, thus eliminating the need to wait until the office opens, or until the appropriate staff member can be reached by phone, or until a form has been received.

On the staff side, this type of system makes current, detailed volunteer information available at any location with an Internet connection, allowing authorized individuals to access it by logging on to the system. It also eliminates the need for filing or data entry of a volunteer's information by a staff member or office volunteer. It can potentially lower paper, postage, and copying costs since questionnaires or other forms may no longer need to be printed, mailed, or copied. Such a system also allows staff members to add important information to the volunteer's record and to create reports that can assist them in making volunteer assignments. For example, some organizations require that volunteers obtain criminal record checks or "clearances" before they are permitted to work with children. Others require that volunteers complete certain training requirements or obtain certifications prior to being assigned. Staff as well as volunteers who serve in the capacity of supervisors of other volunteers can record this information in the volunteer's record. If the organization regularly evaluates volunteers, evaluation information can also be recorded in the system, thereby making even more detailed information available to those responsible for matching volunteers to assignments.

The following example illustrates the ways in which an agency providing adult literacy tutoring services might make use of an information system. This sample agency prepares volunteers to tutor clients at libraries, community centers and other locations in a metropolitan area and provides the necessary educational materials. Its clients are adults who are unable to read or need to improve reading proficiency as well as those who are proficient in a language other than English, but want to learn to read or write in English. Clients may also receive tutoring in writing and basic mathematical concepts as well as applied mathematics such as maintaining a check register, calculating a restaurant gratuity, etc.

In addition to collecting basic contact information from volunteers, the agency has configured its information system to ask volunteers to indicate any languages other than English in which they are fluent and able to read and write; their preferences for tutoring subjects such as reading, writing, or math; the topics or levels they prefer to tutor (i.e., beginning reading, multiplication tables, grammar, etc.); locations at which they will tutor; days and times during which they are available; prior tutoring experience; any teaching certifications or employment as a teacher, tutor or teacher's aide; and whether or not they prefer to work with clients individually or in small groups.

The agency's information system also contains detailed information on each of its clients, including their educational needs and levels, locations at which they can participate in tutoring, language fluency, times at which they are available, and the books and materials they have received. The system includes features designed to protect the privacy and confidentiality of this information as well as mechanisms to ensure that only those staff and volunteers with the proper authorization are able to access it.

With all of this information available to them, agency staff members who are responsible for matching volunteer tutors with clients are able to view reports produced by the information system which identify volunteer tutors whose qualifications, preferences, and availability match the needs and availability of the clients. Once a match is made, staff members record it in the system and then add the location, times and days during which the tutor and client meet to the online schedule. The agency may opt to include a feature within the information system which keeps track of the books and educational materials made available to the client, allow volunteer tutors to place orders for additional materials, record the client's progress, and more. Such information can be very valuable for evaluation and reporting purposes, which will be discussed later in this chapter. Some literacy agencies allow volunteers and clients to develop their own tutoring schedules and provide the agency with that information. In such a situation, the volunteer tutor could log on to the information system and input the information, which would then be immediately available to staff and others who might need it. Should that schedule change, the volunteer tutor can make the change without the necessity of visiting or phoning the agency.

Tools to Support the Training of Volunteers

CCVA's (2008) Human Resources competency also includes a performance expectation that volunteer administrators will be able to "Design and implement orientation and training to meet the needs of volunteers and staff supervisors." (p. 5). According to Fisher and Cole (1993) the primary reason for orientation activities is:

> *to provide information about the organization and to initiate the volunteer into its culture . . . Topics typically include the organization's philosophy, history, and traditions; the importance of its mission; how it is organized and funded; how it operates; various opportunities for volunteer involvement; and how volunteers and paid staff cooperate to achieve the organization's mission. No orientation is complete without an introduction to the organization's rules and procedures or its system of accountability.* (p. 101)

There are several ways in which information technology tools can be used to support orientation and training functions. One of these is the creation of video clips, recordings, or interactive modules of orientation information that is somewhat static in nature or remains unchanged for long periods of time. A good example of such a topic might be the organization's history, philosophy, or traditions. Organizations may consider hiring a professional to produce recordings or video clips or make them in-house using readily available software applications which do not require expert skills. Interactive modules usually require outside assistance from a course designer or firm with experience in this type of development. Once the topics are available as recordings, video clips, or course modules they can then be provided to volunteers through the information system using hyperlinks which, when clicked, will take the volunteer directly to the recording or video clip. It is important to note that the use of video clips, recordings, and course modules is intended to augment and support recommended orientation activities and not to replace them entirely.

A good illustration is available from the 4-H Youth Development Program. In 2007, 4-H programs in Pennsylvania began using the 4-H Volunteer e-Learning Course, a series of four interactive orientation modules developed through the joint efforts of several land grant universities (4-H Volunteer e-Learning Course, 2011). The modules, titled *About 4-H, Getting Started in 4-H, Youth Development*, and *Leadership and Teaching* each run less than thirty minutes in length and are available online. Use of these modules has relieved Pennsylvania 4-H staff members of the responsibility for personally presenting the content of the four modules repeatedly while still ensuring that volunteers receive the information. Volunteers have the opportunity to complete an evaluation at the conclusion of each module, and completed evaluations are forwarded to a designated staff member who is associated with the particular 4-H program in which the volunteer participates.

Although not suitable for all topics, certain types of in-service training for volunteers who have progressed beyond orientation can also be supported through the use of recordings and video clips as well as course modules. These should be carefully selected to ensure the content can be delivered appropriately using electronic means as opposed to a traditional classroom setting.

Another way in which an information system can support volunteer training activities relates to registering for those activities and keeping records documenting their completion. As McCurley and Lynch (2011) have noted, volunteers often do not place a high priority on maintaining records related to their volunteer activities, preferring instead to devote their time to actual service provisions. Although volunteers may participate in numerous orientation and training activities, maintaining documentation of that participation may be a burden for volunteers or fall to staff. Information systems can remove some of this burden from both volunteers and staff.

They can be used to announce, accept registrations for, record participation in, and compile evaluations of training activities. Systems which are used to support these aspects of volunteer training usually have a feature which allows staff to enter or post the details of the training activity and another which allows volunteers to view, register, and receive credit for attending the activity.

On the staff side, those who are responsible for announcing upcoming training activities enter the details of the activity, such as topic, description, date, time, instructor name, and location using an activity-scheduling feature within the information system. This feature can allow them to include any number of additional details, such as prerequisites, target audience, or maximum number of participants. Once an activity has been entered by staff, the system then makes that information available to the appropriate volunteers, based on the volunteer roles assigned to them and recorded in the system. This can be done through an upcoming activity notice which is visible as soon as a volunteer logs into the system. It lists all training activities which have been scheduled and allows the volunteer to click on certain words within the training announcement to obtain more details. Most conveniently, the activity feature can include a "Register" or "Enroll" button which, when clicked, allows the volunteer to instantly register for that activity. There is no need for the volunteer to enter any information, since the system already contains all of the volunteer's contact information and other records. This can eliminate the need for filling out paper registration forms or phoning in registrations. Once the volunteer has clicked the registration button, his or her name is automatically added to the roster for the training session. The roster can be viewed by the instructor, the manager of volunteers, and any other staff member authorized by the organization as well as designated volunteers. If a volunteer decides not to attend the training activity, he or she can log on and delete the registration. After the training session has been conducted, the instructor or another staff member can log into the system and mark the names of those who successfully completed the session. The system then documents that training completion in each volunteer's individual record. The system maintains a log of all completed training activities which the volunteer may review at any time. It provides training completion information to staff, in the form of both individual volunteer logs and aggregate numbers for reporting purposes. In some cases, the system may contain a feature which will prepare certificates for those volunteers who completed the training session. Such systems can be configured to include information on training completions in reports that may be required by funding sources, boards, government agencies, etc. They can also support the gathering of evaluation data from volunteers who participate in training activities. This feature will be discussed in detail in the next section.

Tools to Support the Retention of Volunteers

While volunteer recognition events and awards are valuable pieces of the fabric of retention, much of the work needed to retain volunteers relates to providing them with the organizational structure and the resources they need to efficiently conduct their volunteer work *every day*. According to Dolch and Sybert (2010), "Respecting a volunteer's time and effort through good organization, excellent communication, and continued support is both a recognition of their worth to the organization and also a strategy for sustaining the volunteer." (p. 298). This sentiment was echoed by Eisner, Grimm, Maynard, & Washburn (2009) when they suggested that volunteers should be recognized by " . . . an organizational culture that values them and through specific appreciation ceremonies and events" (p. 35).

Volunteer Feedback

Asking volunteers what they need to do their jobs and inviting their feedback on all aspects of the volunteer program as well as their own experiences is a signal to volunteers that they are an important component of the overall organization and are respected within the organizational culture. When managers have this type of information, they are better able to ensure that necessary resources are made available, address minor issues before they become major ones, and draw upon volunteer experiences to improve the overall program. CCVA's (2008) Human Resource competency includes a performance expectation that volunteer administrators will "Solicit and manage volunteer input and feedback" (p. 5). Information systems can support them in this task.

Asking volunteers to complete evaluations of the orientation and training sessions they have participated in is one way to begin to judge the relevance and effectiveness of orientation and training activities. Once volunteers have been on the job for a while, needs assessments can be used to gauge their overall satisfaction, the effectiveness of scheduling, adequacy of resources, the degree to which the training they received was effective, and numerous other items important to meeting both volunteer and organizational goals.

Surveys are frequently used as a means of obtaining volunteer feedback and information systems can be particularly useful tools for administering surveys. Although conducting traditional surveys which were printed, mailed, returned (hopefully) and then tabulated was often a time-consuming and costly process, online surveys offer opportunities to reduce both time and costs. When online survey instruments are utilized, the work of photocopying and distributing survey questionnaires—which often had to be done multiple times to achieve an adequate response rate, as well as printing mailing labels, then compiling results—can be diminished or eliminated, as can the costs for postage, paper, and copies. Organizations can use their information systems to place online surveys at the fingertips of volunteers, and offer them an easy and convenient opportunity to complete them, while eliminating the need for surveys to be mailed back to the organization. Whether the online surveys are developed in house or using one of the many commercially available online survey tools, they can be made available to volunteers through hyperlinks placed in the information system, and these links can be strategically placed to ensure that they are presented to the specific groups of volunteers for whom they are appropriate and timely. For example, an online survey can be used as an evaluation instrument for a recently completed training session, and the information system can ensure that only those volunteers who actually registered for and completed the training activity receive the link, and that the link is removed when the survey has been closed.

Volunteer needs assessment surveys can also be used to obtain feedback from volunteers regarding their experiences, needed resources, concerns, suggestions, and observations. Brudney (2005) recommends evaluation of volunteer programs and suggests that:

> *. . . the evaluation should attempt to gauge the satisfaction of volunteers and paid staff members with the program, as well as their perceptions concerning its impact on clients and the external environment. Continuing struggles with, for example, recruiting suitable volunteers, arresting high rates of volunteer burnout and turnover, relieving staff antagonisms, and reaching mutually agreeable placements point to flaws in program design that must be addressed* (p. 337).

Once they have been completed, the aggregated results of online surveys can be utilized by staff for program management purposes. They can also be used in the preparation of reports to boards or funders. The information system also provides a means of sharing survey results with volunteers.

Recordkeeping

Dolch and Sybert (2010) provided a compelling description of the role of data in relation to effective management of volunteer programs when they wrote:

> *Collecting and maintaining information or data about volunteers and their engagement with your organization and, subsequently, the analysis of the overall volunteer program are, of course, necessary components of an accountable, transparent, and well-managed volunteer program.* (p. 291).

Acknowledging both the need for data and the limited time that both staff and volunteers may have to devote to recording and managing it can pose a dilemma for volunteer organizations. Providing volunteers with an easy, convenient and reliable method of quantifying and recording their volunteer service activities and enabling them to review summaries of all they have done on an annual and/or historical basis is another way for organizations to show volunteers that they respect their time and have systems in place to support them. At the same time, providing staff members with ready access to that data, without adding to their workloads, enhances their ability to support and manage volunteers.

Information systems offer very effective tools for volunteer recordkeeping. The reporting requirements of one state's volunteer Master Gardener programs and the tools they used to meet them can illustrate one possible approach to facilitating volunteer recordkeeping. Master Gardener volunteers who have met mandatory training requirements provide a variety of horticulture and gardening-related services, including answering questions through garden hotlines; making presentations to groups; maintaining demonstration gardens; participating in civic beautification and conducting plant science and horticulture workshops. In addition, many Master Gardener programs require their volunteers to document their service activities and the number of people who have received those services through workshops, garden tours, calls to hotlines, etc. In 2010, Pennsylvania Master Gardeners got a little help with that task as a result of the introduction of an online information system. The system included a feature which provided each Master Gardener with a Volunteer

Activity Log, which was used to record all of their volunteer service activities, and an Advanced Training Log, used to record all training activities in which they participated, even if those activities were sponsored by another organization. Master Gardeners were able to log on to the system from any location with an Internet connection and record volunteer activities using an online entry screen. The entry screen allowed them to check off many of the items that described their activities rather than typing them in. For example, the date of the activity could be entered simply by clicking on a calendar provided on the screen. Categories of approved Master Gardener activities, such as presenting a composting workshop or conducting a garden tour, were listed and could be selected with the click of a mouse. The number of people attending a presentation or workshop given by a Master Gardener, as well as their demographic information, such as gender or whether they were youth or adults, could be recorded by entering a number in the box for that item. Such detailed data about services provided by Master Gardener volunteers and the recipients of those services was required for reporting purposes and providing it was often considered bothersome by volunteers. Although the information system did not eliminate the requirement, it was designed to make meeting it as easy as possible and to aggregate the data so that it would be readily available for end-of-year reporting.

In addition to documenting the services they delivered, Master Gardeners used their logs to keep track of meetings and other events they attended. A feature which supported this task was the automatic posting of activities that were sponsored by the Master Gardener Program to the logs of individual Master Gardeners who attended them. The information system included a feature similar to one described earlier in this chapter, which allowed staff to post upcoming activities such as meetings, training sessions, and symposiums that would be displayed each time a volunteer logged on. Volunteers could then register for those activities by clicking a "Register" button. After these activities occurred, they were automatically posted to the log of each Master Gardener volunteer who attended. This was especially useful for monthly Master Gardener meetings. Not only did it provide a convenient way for volunteers to register, it allowed the staff member or volunteer who was conducting the meeting to know in advance the number of volunteers who were planning to attend so that he/she could prepare sufficient materials and handouts. Training sessions which were posted to the system were handled in the same manner, allowing volunteers the convenience of easily registering for a training session and then having it automatically posted to their Advanced Training Logs when it was completed. The system also included a feature which allowed volunteers to enter data on training sessions they attended which were sponsored by other organizations, thereby ensuring that their Advanced Training Logs accurately reflected all of the training they had received. A reporting feature provided volunteers with cumulative records of all of their activities and training completions for the year, as well as historical records for all of their years as Master Gardeners.

The detailed data that was logged by each Master Gardener not only became part of his or her individual record, but was also available for use by staff in managing both local and statewide programs. The system aggregated the logs of volunteers in each Master Gardener group throughout the state and placed that information into the format required for final reports for each program as well as for the state as a whole.

Tools Which Can be Used in Support of Communications

According to Grossman and Furano (2002), "another critical element of an effective program's infrastructure is good communication, both internal and external" (p. 12). Information Systems can be used to facilitate communication between staff and volunteers, among volunteers, and among staff who may be located at remote locations. This section focuses on selected information system features which can be used to enhance communication within a volunteer program.

The first of these is a feature which allows staff or designated volunteers to post a notice or "alert" which appears each time a volunteer logs into the system. Alerts can be particularly useful when there is an urgent need, a deadline approaching, or a special circumstance. For example, a Master Gardener program might post an alert asking for volunteers to help clean up storm damage to a demonstration garden following a hurricane. A community agency could post an alert encouraging volunteer participation in an upcoming budget meeting at city hall. Alerts about upcoming events, pending legislation, or any item about which volunteers should be notified can be posted.

Contacting individual volunteers can be facilitated as well. Because information systems record contact information such as telephone number, e-mail address, and street address for each volunteer, staff members and/or volunteer coordinators can utilize that information to quickly send an e-mail message to an individual or group of volunteers or to print mailing labels.

Another feature allows hyperlinks to newsletters, blogs, or other social media to be visible whenever a volunteer logs in. Posting links to newsletters, with an option to print them out, can be a convenient and cost-effective alternative to traditional paper newsletters. According to Lee and Catagnus (1999):

> *The beauty of electronic newsletters goes beyond cost savings. For printed editions, it is customary either to wait until enough news accumulates to warrant the mailing or to add items of minor importance just to fill the pages. Online, you can send news when it is newsworthy. Even a short item can be communicated instantly.* (p. 49)

The literature has recently begun to include references to social media and its applicability to volunteer programs. Eisner et al. (2009) stated, "New technologies allow nonprofits to communicate with volunteers inexpensively and to build social networks that connect volunteers with one another and the nonprofit" (p. 36). According to McCurley and Lynch (2011) "Social networking sites are the current object of intense exploration by Volunteer Program Managers" (p. 306). The potential of social media in relation to volunteer programs is a topic yet to be fully investigated.

Agencies might also consider the use of online scheduling which enables volunteers to see which time slots are available and sign-up for those that are open. This feature can also be adapted for use in signing-up volunteers for campaigns or other initiatives. Online calendars are another opportunity to give volunteers access to program information.

Tools for Evaluating and Reporting

The CCVA (2008) lists Accountability as one of five core competencies for volunteer administrators and describes it as "The ability to collect relevant data and to engage in meaningful monitoring, evaluation and reporting to stakeholders." (p. 5). As described in the previous sections of this chapter, organizations are able to use their information systems to gather, share, organize, and manage a wide variety of types of information, from volunteers' phone numbers, training sessions completed, number of hours they have volunteered, their satisfaction with their volunteer experiences, and much more. Having such information available can help organizations become well positioned to put it to use in support of program evaluation and revision, reporting, and volunteer and staff recognition activities.

For example, a report for an adult literacy agency might show the names of volunteer tutors, the subjects and levels at which they provided tutoring, progress made by their students, and the total number of hours they tutored in a given time period. In addition to presenting this information for each tutor, the report can also aggregate it to show the total number of hours of volunteer tutoring for all volunteers, the percentage who tutored in math, English, or writing, and the percentage who tutored at each level. When reports such as these are available at any time, not just at the end of a month, quarter, or program year, the information they provide can be combined with other types of information to develop a more complete picture of both volunteer engagement and overall program operations.

Reports can also be used to support activities such as re-certification and recognition of volunteers. For example, the Master Gardeners discussed earlier in this chapter are required to complete a minimum of eight hours of advanced training and twenty hours of volunteer service annually to maintain their certifications. Because all of the necessary data is already recorded within the information system, staff can verify the progress of volunteers in meeting these requirements at any time by viewing a report listing each volunteer and the number or hours of training and/or service he or she has completed. The report can also provide information regarding the topics of training completed, and the types of volunteer work provided. Reports can be formatted to reflect a period of time, such as a calendar year, program year, or lifetime totals for each Master Gardener. Such reports can be helpful to staff when determining eligibility for pins, certificates, and service awards as well as in making volunteer assignments. Reports can also be used to maintain records of awards and other types of recognition given to volunteers, such as a 5-year pin, "hours of service" award, etc. Because the information system maintains a record on each individual volunteer, all of this information becomes a part of that record, providing a history of the volunteer's activities and service to the organization. In addition to being useful to staff, such records can become a source of pride for volunteers.

The information system can be used to assist staff in producing reports for grantors and other types of funders, as well as for donors and for volunteers themselves. Organizations that need to place dollar values on the volunteer services provided through them can use the information system to determine the total number of volunteer hours and multiply it by an established rate, such as the value of volunteer time calculated by Independent Sector, which is described as:

> *The value of volunteer time is based on the average hourly earnings of all production and nonsupervisory workers on private nonfarm payrolls (as determined by the Bureau of Labor Statistics). Independent Sector takes this figure and increases it by 12 % to estimate for fringe benefits.* (*Value of Volunteer Time,* 2011)

It is important to note that the quality of the reports produced by an information system is directly related to the quality of data entered into the system. Organizations that have established sound procedures and expectations for staff and volunteer recordkeeping can expect to see that reflected in the accuracy of the reports drawn from an information system. Organizations without such procedures and expectations are likely to have less accurate reports.

Challenges to Using Information Systems

While advances in information technology have prepared information systems to serve as valuable tools for volunteer programs, not all volunteer programs are prepared for information systems. Organizational obstacles to using information systems exist and warrant careful consideration. This is not to say that such challenges cannot be overcome, but to underscore the importance of identifying them and developing plans to address them.

Paramount among these challenges is the possibility that staff, volunteers, board members, and others within a volunteer organization may not have sufficient knowledge regarding information systems. They, like many of their counterparts in business, government, and indeed the public at large, may not be fully aware of the information system tools which are available, the ways in which they can be used, their applicability to the organization's needs, or the costs involved. Decisions made without such knowledge can be costly both in monetary terms as well as in staff and volunteer frustration and loss of efficiency. Developing the necessary organizational knowledge prior to attempting to select and implement an information system is a very important course of action. Other potential challenges may include any or all of these items:

- Organizations may lack adequate funds to purchase or develop the type of information system required to meet the needs of both staff and volunteers.
- Demands on staff are so heavy that they are unable to invest the time and effort necessary to provide input into processes for selecting or developing an information system.
- The culture of the organization may be resistant to change.
- Staff members and/or volunteers may not have current information technology skills or possess minimal information technology competencies.
- Although some staff members may welcome an information system, others may be intimidated by the prospects of a new system and be resistant.
- The organization may not be using sound management practices.
- There may be concerns that use of an information system may place existing practices in an unfavorable light.

Establishing Foundations for Information Systems

Just as there are obstacles, there are also elements which can be put into place to begin to establish a foundation for information system implementation within volunteer organizations. Chief among these is the assemblage of a knowledge base. Organizations that do not have Information Technology (IT) departments or staff members with demonstrated competencies and current expertise in information systems will need to build their knowledge bases. The process of assembling that knowledge can include a variety of activities, including those listed below:

- Seek out volunteers within the organization who have solid IT or high levels of IT expertise who may be willing to advise and consult. If none are available, actively recruit volunteers who have this type of skills and knowledge.
- Consider retaining the services of professionals with the necessary expertise such as private consultants, firms, or universities.
- Contact several other volunteer organizations that have information systems and learn from their experiences. If possible, observe the use of their systems by staff and volunteers. Investigate thoroughly.
- Ask for recommendations from other volunteer organizations.
- Conduct a staff needs assessment and seek staff input
- Conduct a volunteer needs assessment and seek volunteer input
- Become well versed in the issues surrounding privacy and confidentiality of information that will be handled by the new system as well as any applicable legislation and or regulations such as the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act and, for organizations working with children, the Child Online Privacy and Protection Act.
- Learn about potential threats to the security of the information system and the methods for protecting it.
- Review and compare a range of commercially available software packages
- If a good fit cannot be found with a commercially available application, consider engaging the services of an individual or company to develop a customized application.
- Assess the organization to determine if sound infrastructure, effective management practices, and qualified staff are in place. As Microsoft Founder Bill Gates has been quoted as saying, "The first rule of any technology used in a business is that automation applied to an efficient operation will magnify the efficiency. The second is that automation applied to an inefficient operation will magnify the inefficiency" (Gates, 2011).
- Carefully consider the costs. A good information system, like any good tool, has a price, and the organization's budget must be able to pay that price as well as support ongoing operating costs.

Conclusion

Information systems offer many tools which are particularly suited to supporting and accomplishing the activities and tasks routinely undertaken by both staff and volunteers. Given the power of these tools and the substantial and increasing demands placed on volunteer organizations, they cannot and should not be overlooked. Hard-working volunteers and overworked staff are often the norm in non-profit organizations, government agencies, schools, hospitals, and other institutions which seek to serve the greater good. Wherever possible, they should be provided with the tools that can support them in doing their important work in the most effective and efficient manner. This is not to say that an information system is the right tool for every organization, but it is certainly one worthy of careful consideration.

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DIGITAL J

Executive and Managerial Coaching in Nonprofits

Critical Leadership Development

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Volunteer managers operate within a complex, diverse, and ever-changing landscape. Globalization, technological advances, and the continuing off-loading of government services to the not-for-profit sector create new challenges for the volunteer manager. Increasing demands for professionalism and accountability by the volunteer manager puts their work under more scrutiny, and rightly so. All of these factors have resulted in ongoing and meaningful efforts to train and credential managers of volunteers.

Postsecondary institutions are now offering degrees in Nonprofit Management, and national and international bodies are providing important opportunities for professional development for volunteer managers. However, these efforts to develop volunteer managers throughout their careers are only able to go so far. The new climate has created a new need: the need for access to timely, personalized support in realtime that goes beyond the traditional efforts typically used to develop leaders.

Managerial coaching by an external coach is a timely and appropriate addition to the range of leadership development options available to the volunteer manager. The purpose of this chapter is to introduce and describe the process of external coaching as it applies to volunteer managers.

Defining Managerial Coaching

The word *coaching* has been used by many in many different contexts. Coaching is a leadership development process that can have far reaching and long-term implications on the effectiveness of a volunteer manager. Specifically coaching refers to "a process of a one-on-one relationship between a professional coach and a coachee (coachee) for the purpose of enhancing the coachee's behavioral change through self-awareness and learning, and thus ultimately for the success of individual and organization." (Joo, 2005 p. 468)

Volunteer managers have access to various forms of helping relationships aside from what we have defined as coaching here. It is important to distinguish managerial coaching from other forms of leadership development. These include performance management and advising, which are typically undertaken by a supervisor, along with career counseling, and mentoring. While these types of relationships are important to the volunteer manager over the course of their careers, they are not the same as managerial coaching. They typically serve a distinct purpose, and are undertaken by individuals other than trained managerial coaches who are external to the organization.

Managerial and coachee coaching is a rapidly growing area of practice, with individuals who act as coaches coming from very diverse fields including human resources, management consulting, industrial/organizational psychology, and psychotherapy. The widespread adoption of coachee coaching by management consulting firms began in the 1990s (Feldman & Lankau, 2005) with a focus on helping middle- and senior-level managers become more effective in their roles as leaders. According to the International Coaching Federation (IICF), there are an estimated 10,000–15,000 coaches worldwide (Bennett, 2006).

Managerial coaching is a relatively new, but well-established area of practice for a range of professionals. The International Coaching Federation has developed standards of practice, ethical guidelines and a credentialing process for coaches. Involved in this is the offering of intensive training and practice, with curricula developed based on what are considered the key competencies and skills required of coaches. Coaching itself is now a well-established leadership development tool. Until recently, however, the adoption of coaching in the not-for-profit sector is somewhat more limited than in the for-profit sector.

Other Forms of Leadership Development

As noted above, there are several different forms of leadership development. Managers of volunteers, like all individuals in leadership roles, can benefit from coaching, and also from training, proactive performance management, internal coaching, and mentorship. While it is beyond the scope of the present chapter to go into significant detail, it is important to distinguish the other forms of training and development from coaching, since they each serve different purposes.

The primary purpose of *training* is to help either improve or increase skills or competencies. For example, the volunteer manager who would like to improve his or her ability to interview can take advantage of courses and programs offered internally or externally in order to learn the different types of interview questions and their usefulness. The outcome of such development is an increase in the ability to interview effectively to improve selection decisions.

Proactive performance management can be considered, among other things, as another form of leadership development. The purpose of such *internal* coaching as part of strategic performance management is to help the manager of volunteers align their efforts to the overall goals and mission of the organization. Through regular and ongoing feedback, the manager of volunteers is more likely to succeed in supporting the short- and long-term plans of the organization.

Mentorship is another way managers of volunteers develop and learn. The dictionary defines a mentor as a trusted counselor or guide (http://mw1.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/mentor). There is some disagreement about what distinguishes a mentor from a supervisor or coach. A mentor is often a more senior individual who the volunteer manager looks up to for work and organization-related advice. The mentor can be internal or external to the organization and need not be the individual's current supervisor. Ideally the mentor is someone chosen by the individual who values and respects what the mentor has to offer them. In some larger organizations, mentoring relationships have been formalized and facilitated by the organization. Generally, however, the more directly involved the volunteer manager is in selecting their own mentor, the more effective the relationship. Mentoring relationships are often longer-term and the outcomes can be harder to quantify. In some cases, the relationship spans an individual's entire career.

As we have seen above, external coaching by a trained coach is also a type of leadership development. Kilburg (1996) defines it as

> *. . . a [one-on-one] helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority and responsibility in an organization and a consultant who uses a wide variety of behavioral techniques and methods to help the client achieve a mutually identified set of goals to improve the effectiveness of the client's organization within a formally defined coaching agreement.* (p. 67)

External coaching goes beyond what the internal forms of coaching are able to offer and accomplish. First, coaches that are external to the organization offer a degree of confidentiality that is not often possible internally. Second, external coaches also offer a third-party perspective on issues that have often been ongoing and difficult to resolve internally. Third, coaches have unique training, experience, skills and abilities related to the process of coaching that individuals in training and supervisory roles may not.

It is worth noting here that there is also a distinction to be made between what a management *consultant* and a managerial *coach* can offer the manager of volunteers. In addition to providing management coaching, management consultants also may provide one of three things: 1) specific expertise and advice based on their own professional experience and training; 2) project management or process expertise related to major organizational change; and 3) increased capacity for the client by undertaking tasks that an employee could undertake under different circumstances (Meneghetti, 2010). Although many external coaches are competent in both areas and have practices that include business coaching, the skill sets required are relatively different. The dedicated managerial coach has expertise and training in the *process* of helping managers become more effective within their organizational contexts through encouraging reflection, problem solving, and behavior change.

When External Coaching Can be Useful

There are a variety of reasons individuals and organizations seek out the services of a coach. In a recent review article, Feldman and Lankau (2005) summarized the literature about recipients of coachee coaching (from here forward referred to as coachees) and noted that they fall into three categories. The first category is the previously successful individual who, for a variety of reasons, is finding it difficult to meet the current role requirements. The second category is the managers who have been targeted as potential future senior leaders in a succession plan, who require some development in order to fulfill that potential. The third category is professionals who are in entrepreneurial ventures and need to extend their competencies beyond their technical proficiencies.

Volunteer Managers may similarly find themselves in particular circumstances, or at certain points in their careers, when the assistance of an external coach could be particularly meaningful. We know from the research literature on coaching (e.g.: Bougae, 2005; Dunn, 2004; Wales, 2003) that coachees notice an increased ability to solve problems, more self-confidence in their leadership abilities, and increased self-awareness. Below are some circumstances in which external coaching may be a useful tool.

Organizational Change

Organizational change is now commonplace in the organizations that employ volunteer managers. Structural reorganization, downsizing, or changes in the mandate of the organization are all examples of such change. When the nature of change is relatively extreme, or when the impact of the change is broad-ranging, the volunteer manager may find it useful to engage the services of an external coach. The coach can help the manager strategize and plan, and help mobilize the existing internal and external resources of the manager so that they are more effective in responding to the change.

Role Expansion

When an experienced volunteer manager is asked to take on a bigger role, an external coach can be very useful. The expansion of the role can be formal, through a job redesign process initiated by the board or through the Human Resources department, or it can be informal through subtle organizational shifts in priorities. Sometimes the expansion of the role results when the manager of volunteers takes on a new position in a larger, more complex organization. Regardless of the catalyst for a redefinition of the job, such a circumstance usually means a change in priorities, or a shift in the competencies required by the volunteer manager. Although strategic performance management by a supervisor is key in this situation, sometimes it is not sufficient to help the volunteer manager make the necessary adjustments. An external coach can help the individual recognize and build upon strengths and successes in a way that speeds up the process of development considerably.

Organization Culture Issues

Less-than-healthy organizational climates can develop over time, as employees in not for profit organizations struggle to do more for their clients and stakeholders with fewer resources. Since reliance on volunteers can increase when resources are scarce, volunteer managers operating in such a climate often feel the pressure of competing interests and needs very strongly. In such a climate, there truly is a domino effect, where the stress and resulting dysfunctional behavior becomes somewhat contagious. An organization can achieve a great deal of far-reaching longer-term benefit by investing in the services of an external coach in such circumstances. We know from the research that clients believe one of the key benefits of coaching is to help the coachee manage stress more effectively.

In summary, whenever a manager of volunteers is being asked to work within a new organization structure, deal with expanding responsibilities, or work within a challenging corporate climate, the services of a managerial coach may be worth serious consideration. It may also be helpful to ask, "Is the issue which needs to be addressed about *what* is being done or *how* it is being done?" In general, although there are exceptions, managerial coaching addresses *how* things are accomplished effectively by the manager, whereas other forms of leadership development are more effective at addressing *what* is being done.

A Case Example

Karen, the director of a nonprofit organization, knew she needed a coach several years ago when several things in her life collided. She suddenly lost her job and found herself reconsidering her career path. She found herself at a major crossroad in her life and was not sure which way to turn. A family member referred her to a coach. She participated in six sessions over the course of 5 months, doing work in between sessions. "I had to realize that this coach wasn't there for me to cry on her shoulder. She was there to make me move forward, not look backwards." Her coach helped her in several ways. First the coach encouraged her to look at what was in her power to change. Karen came to see that she had been reluctant to do anything without the approval of the significant others in her life, even at work. Second, her coach helped her visualize and describe how she wanted to live and what she needed in her work. Third, she helped Karen identify strengths and talents she had not realized she possessed. In the end, Karen credits her work with her coach with her entry into the nonprofit sector where she has been working ever since. Karen realized the power of her coaching when her son wrote her a letter about one of his mother's accomplishments, saying "You didn't do this as the wife of, the mother of, or the daughter of . . . . you did it as yourself."

Coaching Competencies

What makes someone effective as a managerial coach? The International Coaching Federation (ICF) publishes a list of core competencies required by coaches. They are noted below. (Adapted from International Coach Federation website www.coachfederation.org) (International Coach Federation, 2010). A professional coach has the following competencies:

1. *An established* ***work ethic*** *related to managing confidentiality and conflicts of interest.* Especially when the organization hires the coach, the coach should address such issues at the start of the coaching arrangement.
2. *The ability to* ***establish a coaching contract*** *with defined goals and which allows for goal-revisions and additions.* A professional coach does not generally choose the topic for the client, or coach around a topic that only the coach deems important.
3. *The ability to* ***establish the trust and intimacy*** *with the client that is required for an effective client-coach partnership.* The professional coach is able to work towards goals, but never at the expense of the development of trust.
4. *The ability to* ***establish a "coaching presence."*** This involves being confident, as well as present, curious, and flexible. The professional coach is able to avoid self-interest and does not spend time attending to their own view of the situation.
5. *The ability to* ***listen actively,*** *without judgment, which allows the coach to understand the meaning and essence of what is being said.* The professional coach is able to avoid a focus on showing how much they know and looking for opportunities to share that.
6. *The ability to* ***ask powerful questions*** *that move the client forward.* Professional coaches do not typically ask rhetorical questions.
7. *The ability to* ***communicate effectively****, including being clear, direct and articulate in making observations and providing feedback.* The professional coach does not generally use a meandering or convoluted style.
8. *The ability to* ***integrate and accurately evaluate multiple sources of information*** *to help the client gain awareness.* The professional coach does not take the easiest route to a solution without considering all the sources of information first.
9. *The ability to* ***create "field work" opportunities*** *with the client that allow for generalization and application of learning from the coaching context.* The professional coach avoids providing between-session tasks that are not related to helping meet the client's goals.
10. *The ability to* ***develop and maintain and effective coaching plan*** *with the client.* The professional coach helps develop goals that will move the client forward.
11. *The ability to* ***manage progress and accountability*** *so that the focus stays on what is important to the client.* The professional coach does not use tools or structures simply because they are familiar and easy for the coach.

Selection of a Managerial/Coached Coach

There are several important guidelines as you consider hiring an effective external coach.

1. *Be clear about whether you need the services of a managerial consultant or management coach.* There are different skill sets that make for an effective managerial consultant and an effective management coach. As noted previously, while it is possible for some management consultants to have the ability to also be effective coaches, some do not. The strict "expert" stance often taken by some managerial consultants often is ineffective in creating sustainable behavior change in managers. Similarly, some management coaches do not have the competencies required to provide expert management advice, should that be what you require.
2. *Ensure that the individuals being considered have coach-specific-training.* As noted previously, managerial coaches have a broad range of backgrounds, education and experience. However, the most effective coaches have recognized the need for very specific skills and abilities related to the process of behavior change in individuals and have sought out and completed such training. Coaches should be able to explain the training they have that makes them effective as managerial coaches. For example, the International Coaching Federation confers coaching credentials to trained coaches, and has very stringent standards for such credentials. Asking for a credential such as the Professional Certified Coach (PCC), or Master Certified Coach (MCC) or its equivalent is one way to ensure you hire a competent coach. Psychologists who work in organizations and with managers also often have the training required to help individuals change, so looking for a registered psychologist who does coaching is another good strategy.
3. *Create a process that allows the manager of volunteers to be involved in selecting their coach.* It is wise to allow the manager to select their coach from one or two options, when possible, as opposed to making the selection for them. Aside from basic coaching competencies, sometimes the additional question of "fit" or "style" can make the difference between an effective coaching experience and an ineffective one.
4. *Screen coaches for evidence of having the coaching competencies noted above.*

Limits and Boundaries of Coaching

A chapter that covers the topic of coaching would not be complete without a consideration of the limitations of coaching as a helping tool. There are situations where the work that happens in the context of a coaching contract begins to uncover serious clinical mental health concerns. Managerial coaches without other credentials (such as a registered psychologist who does coaching might have) are not in a position to address all of the issues and challenges that they become aware of in the course of their work. Examples of such issues include substance abuse or dependence disorders such as alcoholism; a range of mood disorders such as depression or Bipolar

Disorder; anxiety disorders such as phobias or post-traumatic stress disorder; and a range of personality disorders such as Borderline Personality Disorder or Narcissistic Personality Disorder. Each of these mental health challenges has great potential to directly impact the ability of any manager to effectively do their jobs. The trained coaching professional realizes the limitations to their competencies and makes appropriate referrals to other professionals as necessary. Similarly, the professional manager of volunteers who personally recognizes the possibility that other mental health issues could be at play for them should address these concerns with a competent mental health professional outside the coaching relationship. In some cases, such intervention may need to take precedence over the coaching arrangement. In other cases, psychotherapy can occur in parallel with coaching.

The Experience of Being Coached

If you are considering engaging the services of a coach for yourself or someone else, it is helpful to know what to expect. The experience of being coached is a unique and potentially life-changing experience for many. It can be a difficult thing to describe to a manager of volunteers what a "coach" is and how a coach might be helpful.

A recent groundbreaking research study (Meneghetti, 2008) helped with this ability to understand what it is like to be coached. The research asked the broad question "How do managers and coachees experience the process of being coached?" The results of this research show that the coachee experiences seven essential elements as they undergo coaching: (a) Embarking on the Coaching Relationship, (b) Co-creating the Coaching Relationship, (c) Learning to be Coached, (d) Healing Ruptures, (e) Valuing What the Coach Offers, (f) Experiencing the Impact, and (g) Deciding on the Future of the Relationship.

What to Expect

The research noted above used a phenomenological method to understand how coachees experience the process of being coached. The study provided the first rich Canadian description of the experience of being coached available in academic literature. Six coachees employed in six different organizations representing various organization-types, participated in an in-depth one-on-one interview. The participants in this research were male and female leaders that were referred by one of four Certified Coaches who were currently still being coached, or very recently completed coaching. They all viewed the coaching as having been successful. While it is beyond the scope of this chapter to review all 29 of the subthemes, several stand out as useful in this context. They will be highlighted below in order to provide you with a sense of how a typical successful coaching relationship might proceed.

Responding to a Catalyst

As noted previously, there is a range of reasons people seek out the services of a coach. Clients all described responding to a catalyst which caused them to seek out coaching. Regardless of the reason, each client spoke about the importance of a marker that made coaching a priority in their lives.

Trusting Intuition and Others in Coach Selection

Clients were specifically asked about the process they used to select their coach. Most notable about this aspect of the experience was its seeming lack of importance once the relationship had been established and was proceeding well. In essence, the clients trusted their intuition and the recommendation of others in selecting the coach. Most clients proceeded with only a very general awareness of the coach's actual credentials. This suggests that involving the coachee in coach selection may not be as critical as we initially believed.

Trusting

Part of the co-creation of the coaching relationship was the sense of coming to trust the coach in general. Some clients developed trust over a longer period of time than others, but all talked about how critical it was. Some clients talked about this trust as a feeling that the coach was on their side. Other clients talked about the building of trust as an interactive process. Surprisingly for some clients, development of trust was almost instantaneous, occurring on their first meeting. It should be a considered concerning if a coachee has not established a sense of trust in their coach within a reasonable period of time.

Guardedness about Confidentiality

Since the organization employs and pays for the coach, the coachee sometimes said they felt an initial guardedness about the extent of the confidentiality of the coaching sessions, although not in every case. This apprehension or concern initially felt by some is slowly replaced by a sense of trust. Coming to trust confidentiality came from recognition that, for the most part, there is very little worth hiding.

Planned and Spontaneous Objectives

As a first step, the coachee and coach established the parameters of the coaching arrangement, agreed on how they will work together, and on the high-level objectives for the coaching. However, this objective-setting developed a life of its own over time, as new issues emerged, and new challenges were faced, and the coachee developed a better sense of the potential benefits of the coaching experience. A more free-flowing, flexible coaching arrangement was seen as beneficial since it allowed the coach to be open to the coachee's particular needs. This suggests that, while objective setting at the beginning of a coaching arrangement is critical, so is the ability to add and remove goals that fit with the overall objective of the coaching.

Discovering Own Way and Own Answers

Clients learned to understand that the coach was not there to provide expertise, answers, or direct advice. Eventually they came see this as a key feature of coaching, which was ultimately more effective in helping them change and grow. Thus, it is normal for a coachee to grapple a little with the lack of direct advice-giving in a coaching relationship.

Recognition of Personal Responsibility and the Time Commitment

There was a mildly unsettling period of time during which the coachee learned what it meant to be coached. During this time, the coachee came to develop a personal responsibility for the outcomes of the coaching, recognizing that when they derived little from a particular session, it was usually because the coachee has not put the required energy and intention into it. Coachees also came to recognize early on that being an effective coachee is a time commitment that requires energy and hard work, but does pay off greatly.

Selecting and Experiencing the Coaching Medium

When provided a choice, many coachees selected the telephone as the primary medium for their coaching sessions. The coachee became accustomed to, and sometimes came to value, the use of the telephone, which was most often seen as convenient and effective. Some coaches found that the use of the telephone actually facilitated the work that needed to be done during coaching. Others liked that the phone makes it easier to focus on him/herself, rather than the coach or other outside influences. Regardless, the coach was always seen as more than just a voice at the other end of the line. Coachees should be clear about their expectations for in-person versus telephone based coaching. It appears that phone-based coaching is perceived as effective by clients, although some may still prefer in-person meetings.

Healing Ruptures: Courageous Disagreement

At certain points in the coaching experience, coachees described a rupture in the relationship or the process of coaching that resulted from disagreeing with the coach's perspective. The particulars of this disagreement varied greatly, and included disagreement with an observation or area of feedback, with a comment made by the coach, and with the actual behavior of the coach. In some cases, clients described a sense of power-differential with their coach, with the coach having a little bit more of it. This made the ability to confront their coaches more difficult in some cases. This suggests that when a coachee finds themselves in a situation where they disagree with the coach's point of view, it may help if they address this issue directly with the coach.

Recognizing Choice and Intentions

As a result of their coaching, clients readily and gladly came to recognize that there were always choices that could be made between alternatives, even when at first this did not seem to be the case. Part of this was the recognition that being aware of one's intentions made those choices more obvious. This recognition was very freeing, and greatly affected the coachee's approach to their work and other situations. It should be expected that the coachee will get better at making decisions once coaching has taken place.

Engaging New Perspectives

Part of the impact of coaching on the clients was the opportunity to engage with and consider new alternative perspectives on the areas they were struggling with.

Influencing Many Life Domains

Coachees all talked about the sense that the coaching they were receiving had directly and indirectly affected many aspects of their life, including their home lives. The areas of impact noted above were so fundamental that they touched relationships of all kinds, including those with their spouses or significant others. Coachees should expect that other non-work aspects of their live will be affected by coaching.

Contemplation of the Future of the Coaching Relationship

An aspect of the experience of being coached was the recognition that a choice needed to be made about ending or continuing the coaching relationship. They occurred at different stages for different clients, and was viewed on a continuum. Some saw the need for coaching as dwindling, but thought it could resurface. Others viewed coaching as an ongoing or indefinite relationship. Coachees and their employing organizations may wish to consider this issue ahead of time so that all parties involved understand what options actually exist based on the resources available.

Conclusion

External coaching by a trained coach can have a far-reaching and long term impact on the manager of volunteers and those they work with. Coachees in Milena Meneghetti's groundbreaking study identified seven key outcomes they believed were the result of their successful coaching experiences. In every case, coachee's strongly felt that coaching helped them build clarity, see things from a different perspective, reduce stress, recognize their unique self-worth, recognize that they had a choice in how they responded to work demands and issues, improve skills and abilities related to their work, and improve their functioning in other life domains in addition to work. These outcomes have the potential to truly enhance the ability of the manager of volunteers to do their challenging, rewarding jobs more effectively.

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PART III

Results and Evaluation

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CHAPTER 15

Evaluating the Volunteer Program

Contexts and Models

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The importance of volunteers and the effects of their donated services on the prospects of clients, organizations, society, and the volunteers themselves have become important matters of discussion and measurement. With resources in short supply and funders continually stressing organizational accountability for grants, contracts, and other financial support and the results achieved from these initiatives, the nature of evaluation of volunteer programs has changed over recent decades. Whereas, previously, counting the number of volunteers and the number of hours they contribute to an agency over a given period (such as a year) may have been considered sufficient "evaluation," organizations have turned to more elaborate methods to assess and demonstrate the contributions of their volunteers. The implications for the field of volunteer administration are evident: Safrit (2010) shows that conducting evaluations has become an accepted (and expected) competency of volunteer resource managers (also known as volunteer administrators).

Volunteer administrators and their host organizations need to be concerned about evaluating volunteer programs to satisfy the information needs of various constituencies. These constituencies or so-called stakeholders are persons or groups who have a stake in, or a claim on, the program, whether perceived or actual. For example, as one of the most prominent stakeholders, funders are no longer content merely with an organization having volunteers onboard but wish to know the results or outcomes or even the long-term impact of their involvement. Another important set of stakeholders, board members are interested in whether all organizational resources, including volunteers, have been put to good, if not best, use. Similarly, a third stakeholder group, organizational leadership, is eager to derive the most benefit from the volunteer program. At a more operational level, managers would like to make sure that volunteers are helping their departments, and the organization, achieve programmatic goals. For their part, volunteers may derive motivation from learning about the value of their efforts and the results they help to bring about for organizations and their clients.

Satisfying all of these stakeholders through the same evaluation of the volunteer program is not easy, and perhaps not even feasible. Accordingly, in this chapter we present an evaluation framework for assisting the volunteer resource manager with understanding and conducting different types of evaluation based on stakeholder involvement. Based on the evaluation literature, we then describe how volunteering might be valued by host organizations, volunteers themselves, and agency clients. We then present a logic model framework to guide the evaluation of a volunteer program. We begin by considering the meaning and purpose of evaluation.

Defining Evaluation

Evaluation entails an assessment or judgment of the value or worth of an endeavor or initiative (Carman & Fredericks, 2008; McDavid & Hawthorne, 2006; Wholey, Hatry, & Newcomer, 2004). Fitzpatrick, Sanders, and Worthen (2004) argue that the purpose of evaluation is to "render judgments about the value of whatever is being evaluated." These assessments or judgments of value can be put to different uses, but the central purpose is to determine "the significance, the merit or worth" of something of interest (Scriven, 1991). We adopt Scriven's definition for our goal of providing a framework for the evaluation of volunteer programs. By conducting an evaluation of volunteer participation and contribution, the evaluator attempts to assess the worth or value of volunteer efforts for various stakeholders.

Measuring volunteer value can be undertaken to meet the evaluation needs of various stakeholders. As other researchers have noted, clients, organizations, volunteers themselves, and the community are the recognized beneficiaries of volunteer contribution (Brown, 1999; Handy & Srinivasan, 2004; Quarter, Mook, & Richmond, 2003). We argue that the needs of stakeholders must dictate to evaluators the purpose(s) of evaluation, and the kinds of methods to be used for measuring volunteer value. Volunteer resource managers charged with conducting, or assisting, an evaluation of the volunteer program should be aware of the influence of these various constituencies in the evaluation.

Role of Stakeholders in Evaluation

Some evaluation scholars attribute great importance to stakeholders in defining the purpose of the evaluation and setting evaluation goals (Berk & Rossi, 1990; Fitzpatrick et al., 2004; Patton, 1997; Rossi, Lipsey, & Freeman, 2004; Rutman, 1984). Indeed, stakeholders may hold varying degrees of interest in knowing the value or effectiveness of volunteering for society, a particular organization, or a specific program. Therefore, before the evaluation begins, the volunteer resource manager (as evaluator) should determine the stakeholders most concerned about the evaluation and establish communication with them to identify their goals for this endeavor (Rossi et al., 2004). Of course, ready communication with stakeholders will almost certainly prove useful to the volunteer program for other purposes as well, such as promotion, support, outreach, etc. Involving interested stakeholders in the evaluation builds support for the evaluation process and commitment to the results. Patton (1997) contends that individuals, rather than organizations, use evaluation information. Thus, evaluation information should be targeted to specific persons or groups of identifiable persons or stakeholders, rather than to what was traditionally identified as the general "audience" for evaluation; He considers audiences rather amorphous and anonymous (Patton, 1997)

Rossi et al. (2004) provide a comprehensive listing of potential stakeholders in the evaluation process, including policymakers and decision makers, program sponsors, evaluation sponsors, target participants, program managers, program staff, program competitors, contextual stakeholders, and the evaluation and research community. They argue that these groups and individuals most often pay attention to evaluation. We refine this listing of stakeholders for the volunteer resource manager in the evaluation framework we present below.

Patton (1997) is similarly concerned about the utility of evaluation for the stakeholders. His focus is on the practical use of evaluation results. In one study, he found that among stakeholders, 78% of responding decision makers and 90% of responding evaluators felt that the evaluation had an impact on the program (Patton, 1997). Through consultation prior to undertaking the evaluation, the volunteer resource manager can facilitate this positive practical effect by learning about the purpose of the evaluation from the primary intended user(s) of the findings (Patton, 1997; Bingham & Felbinger, 2002). Thus, identifying specific stakeholder groups and understanding their goals for the evaluation are important to the evaluator for increasing potential application of the findings.

Unfortunately, though, when evaluators attempt to serve too many audiences (stakeholders), they rarely manage to serve all of them well (Horst, Nay, Scanlon & Wholey, 1974). Horst et al. (1974) encourage program evaluators to identify those officials or managers who have a direct influence on program decisions and to design the evaluation goals based on their points of view. This approach is supported by Patton's (1997) recommendations to identify the group of primary users and to focus on their intended use of the evaluation. Such an approach improves the prospects for the evaluation results to be utilized by program managers. When involved early in the process of designing the evaluation study, program managers feel ownership of the evaluation process and findings and are more likely to use them for program improvement (Patton, 1997; Posavac & Carey, 1992). Even so, the evaluation might, alternatively, be tailored to the meet the information needs of other stakeholders of the volunteer program, such as funders, organizational leadership, or the broader society. Accordingly, the model we propose below for volunteer resource managers calls for the involvement of primary stakeholders early in the evaluation process.

A further advantage of involving stakeholders in the evaluation is that their participation can help to determine whether a volunteer program has reached a stage of maturity where it is ready to be evaluated; such an effort is sometimes termed an "evaluability" assessment (McDavid & Hawthorne, 2006; Rutman, 1984; Wholey et al., 2004). Undertaking a full-blown impact evaluation of a program that is too new, unstable, or resource-poor to achieve results is a waste of precious organizational time and energy; effective implementation of the program must occur first.

Patton (1997) argues that the evaluator can facilitate the program's readiness for evaluation by involving intended users in generating meaningful evaluation questions. This initial scrutiny and discussion among stakeholders and the evaluator can be very useful in reinforcing the need to support implementation and ongoing administration of the volunteer program, so that it would then be more capable of achieving its end goals. At that point, an evaluation of impact would be more appropriate.

Purposes of Evaluation

Following Rutman (1984), we want to understand the role of purpose in designing an evaluation of a volunteer program. Evaluation purpose shapes the evaluation design and helps to focus the results. The purpose of the evaluation is defined in consultation with program stakeholders, such as funders, board members, organizational leadership, managers, program evaluators, clients, and the volunteers themselves, each of whom may have different information needs. The volunteer resource manager as evaluator needs to work with relevant stakeholders to clarify the purpose, to design the evaluation process, and to help the stakeholders utilize the findings to their benefit (Patton, 1997; Patton & Patrizi, 2005; Posavac & Carey, 1992; Rossi et al., 2004). The evaluation literature suggests that evaluators need to pay attention to stakeholders' perceptions and beliefs about the program so that they understand the stakeholder's purpose and formulate a specific evaluation question(s) aimed toward the need of the consumer for certain information.

Identification of stakeholders, then, is the first step to elucidate goals and define the purpose of the evaluation. However, the determination of relevant stakeholders is often out of the hands of the volunteer resource manager. Funders may demand an evaluation of program impact as a condition of their financial allocation; board members may request an audit of volunteer activities; organizational leadership may solicit an analysis of the costs and benefits of volunteer involvement; operational managers may want to learn how to deploy volunteers more productively. More diffuse stakeholders may exert their preferences for the evaluation as well. For example, policymakers, the media, or the public (through individual citizen inquiries or through other stakeholders acting on their behalf) may inquire as to the benefit to the larger community of the activities of volunteers or the agency as a whole. In many nonprofit organizations, the volunteer administrator is charged with preparing a periodic evaluation (e.g., annually) of the volunteer program. This effort should take into account the information needs of the central stakeholders. Rehnborg, Barker, and Pocock (2006) encourage organizations first to clarify their purpose(s) for placing a value on volunteer efforts, and then to choose the appropriate evaluation method.

Evaluation literature suggests that evaluation of volunteers, like evaluation of other phenomena, should be conducted for the purpose defined by users of evaluation findings, and with approaches and techniques shaped by this purpose. Talmage (1982) defines three major purposes of evaluation information:

1. Meeting a political function
2. Assisting decision makers responsible for a policy or a program
3. Making judgments about the worth of the program

Her function-based approach shows considerable overlap among the functions. Rutman (1984) develops the purpose-based approach to program evaluation further. He also defines three purposes for evaluation: accountability, management, and knowledge. These three purposes are distinct and help to identify evaluation information users such as policymakers and organizations, managers, and the research community. Drawing on Chelimsky's (1997) definition of evaluation purposes, which follows Rutman's classification with some variation,[1] Rossi et al. (2004) elaborate the list of users of the three types of evaluation. All of these approaches are very similar conceptually, suggesting political, knowledge, and organizational purposes for evaluation. We elaborate these purposes next.

Political Purpose

Following the evaluation purposes described by Talmage (1982), Rutman (1984), Chelimsky (1997), and Rossi et al. (2004), the first purpose for undertaking an evaluation is political. From this perspective, the external audience for evaluation of volunteer effort is society at large and political decision makers. These stakeholders want to know, for example, how to create and refine policies toward volunteering, how volunteer programs benefit society, and whether such policy instruments as a tax subsidy to the nonprofit sector are justified by the results of its activities.

Society at large evaluates volunteer involvement based on value judgments concerning volunteering as a social phenomenon. If volunteering is recognized as an inherent end goal in the society, the conclusion follows that "the more volunteers the better." Yet, the value produced by volunteers for the benefit of the society is hard to measure in economic terms because it is neither bought nor sold in the marketplace. To the contrary, it is given, which renders its price beyond economic or monetary value. Goods produced by volunteers surpass market price for comparable goods because these goods are infused with value added, such as good intentions; they are given wholeheartedly, which makes them "priceless." They are in sharp contrast to goods and services sold in the market for the purpose of gaining profit. At the societal level, then, learning about the aggregate volume and value of volunteering for society, and how to stimulate them, are important evaluation purposes.

Knowledge Purpose

According to Rutman (1984), a second purpose for conducting an evaluation of volunteers is the generation of basic knowledge about the value of volunteer contributions. This general knowledge is produced by those who study the phenomenon and seek to understand, explain, and predict its future development. The knowledge produced may not be of immediate use, but it contributes to better understanding of

[1] Chelimsky (1997) and Rossi et al. (2004) identify the same three major purposes for evaluation as Rutman (1984), but they use different terminology to describe them. For example, Rutman defines one purpose for evaluation as managerial, and Chelimsky and Rossi et al. define the same purpose as program improvement. In Rutman, the last purpose of evaluation that is not mentioned in our discussion is defined as the covert purpose. Rossi et al. also identify the same purpose as hidden agendas.

volunteering and its role in personal life, the community, society at large, and the economy.

Economic approaches to valuing volunteers can be considered knowledge-related because they add to our knowledge of volunteering from a novel viewpoint. Yet, Graff (2005) and Smith and Ellis (2003) advise researchers to be cautious about relying exclusively on economic measurement, such as dollar valuation, to assess volunteer contributions. Graff recommends the use of a more complex and complete approach that involves the identification of outcomes of volunteer work, calculation of the full costs of achieving those outcomes, and a consideration of whether the investment in volunteers is a productive use of resources. She maintains that if members of the community are informed about the true social value that volunteers create, they are more willing to support the mission of an organization.

Organizational and Managerial Purpose

Talmage (1982) identifies assisting policy and program decision makers, guiding changes and innovations in a program, and informing managers about the worth of a program as possible functions of evaluation. This purpose converges with the managerial purpose for evaluation defined by Rutman (1984) and Rossi et al. (2004), which serves those needs of the organization. For example, Hotchkiss, Fottler, and Unruh (2009) in a study of the value of volunteers in hospitals find that more hours of volunteering positively correlates with significant cost savings and higher level of patients' satisfaction at the hospitals. This type of evaluation is helpful to agency insiders, including chief executives or directors, volunteer managers, program managers, and other staff, who may be interested in improving volunteer involvement and deployment, and the return on organizational investment in these important human resources. Rutman describes the management perspective on program evaluation as serving as a tool for making improved decisions about the design and delivery of programs and about the type and amount of resources that should be devoted to them.

From the organizational or management perspective, the measuring instruments for evaluating volunteer programs need to be adjusted or attuned to a set of managerial purposes. For example, it is not very useful for a manager to know the value of the aggregate hours contributed by volunteers, or the full-time equivalent labor force that volunteers constitute to make informed decisions about how to manage the program. Instead, managers need to know about such matters as how many volunteers are available, how many are needed for achieving departmental or organizational goals, how they are deployed, and the results that the volunteers help the organization achieve. This information helps them to plan strategically, and to set recruitment purposes and estimate expenses. Knowing the tasks performed by volunteers allows volunteer resource managers to develop their recruitment tactics based on information about the available and potential pool of volunteers; make decisions about deployment of volunteers to maximize their effectiveness; and balance involvement of paid staff with a volunteer workforce. Program managers are interested in identifying where and how volunteers can extend the capacity of paid staff and augment paid labor. Useful to this group is evaluation information pertaining to the effectiveness of volunteers in performing assigned tasks and in assisting departments and the organization toward goal achievement.

Purpose-Based Evaluation Framework for Valuing Volunteers

The evaluation literature provided useful insights into the purposes for conducting an evaluation. Building on this foundation, we have developed a framework for analyzing the purposes of evaluation of volunteer programs which incorporates the information needs of important stakeholder groups.

The purpose approach that we suggest helps to clarify evaluation needs by grouping multiple stakeholders into three major categories: society, organizations, and managers. At the societal level we define the following interests—society at large, policymakers, and researchers. At the general organizational level we define as stakeholders the following groups—the local community, agency board of directors, organizational decision makers, and funders. Finally, the third, managerial level is represented by program managers, volunteer coordinators, paid staff, and volunteers. We derived these categories of stakeholders by modifying earlier approaches of Talmage (1982), Rutman (1984), Chelimsky (1997), and Rossi et al. (2004) to defining the major evaluation purposes for various groups of stakeholders.

Exhibit 15.1 presents the continuum of evaluation purposes captured in the new framework from the most general and abstract, to the more applicable, and finally to the most practical. The figure suggests questions to guide the evaluation of volunteer value at the different levels. At the most general societal level, the relevant questions pertain to the value of volunteering for society and the attendant methodologies. At the organizational level, the questions are similar but more circumscribed. They concern, for example, the relative costs and benefits of volunteering to the organization. Finally, at the managerial level, the questions address the actual deployment of volunteers, their interactions with paid staff and clients, and issues of operational effectiveness. At this level, the interests of stakeholders guide evaluators to gather

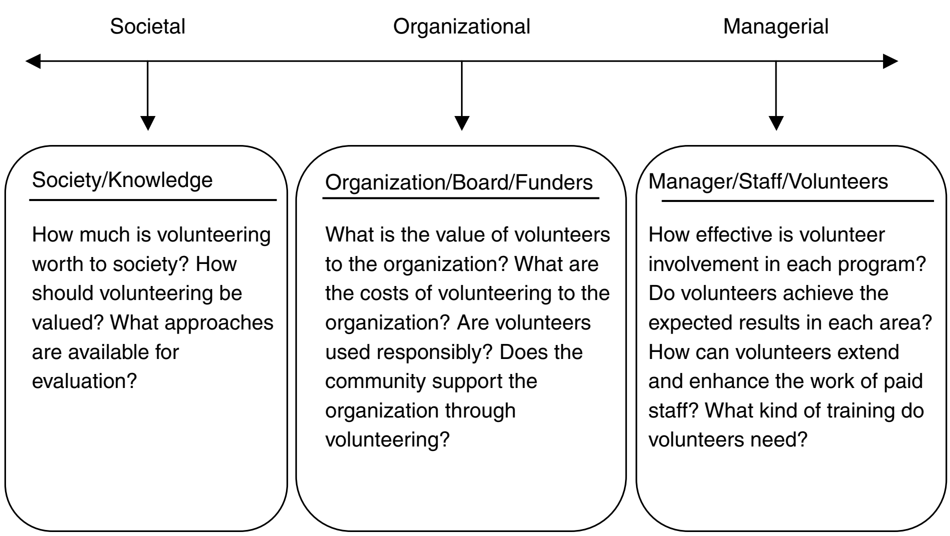

EXHIBIT 15.1 Continuum of Evaluation Purposes

EXHIBIT 15.2 Evaluation Framework

Evaluation Levels/ Approaches	Primary Stakeholders	Focus	Value/Purpose
Societal/ Knowledge	Society Legislators Political decision makers Researchers	Sector/Field	Worth (aggregate) Learning (knowledge)
Organizational	Organizational decision makers Board of directors	Organization	Accountability Stewardship
Managerial/Staff	Managers Volunteer resource managers Paid staff	Program	Deployment Effectiveness

program-specific, detailed information for the practical use of organizational managers.

Exhibit 15.2 elaborates the purpose-based evaluation framework. It depicts the different levels of evaluation, primary stakeholders, focus of analysis, and major value or purpose of the evaluation. At the societal level, the focus is on the nonprofit/voluntary sector or field, and the central purpose is an assessment of aggregate worth or the contribution to general knowledge. At the organizational level, the focus is centered on the host agency, with the purpose of accountability and stewardship for the volunteer program. Finally, at the managerial level, the focus is the volunteer program, and the purpose encompasses operational effectiveness. We describe the different levels more fully in the sections below.

Societal Interests

The first level of evaluation includes important general interests. We define this level as societal and knowledge-based. At this level such stakeholders as society at large, legislators, political decision makers, and researchers need evaluation information to assess public and economic usefulness of volunteering, and to understand the aggregate worth of volunteering as a social phenomenon. Researchers endeavor to produce knowledge about volunteering and its value, and to propose various methodologies and measures to advance this inquiry. Policymakers can potentially use such general information about volunteering to guide public policy. Answers to these questions help to assess the aggregate worth of volunteering and improve our understanding of this phenomenon and the nonprofit sector more generally.

Organizational Interests

The second level of evaluation is more specific. At this level we find organizations and boards of directors as primary stakeholders, as well as funders. Their interests include the assessment of the value of volunteering to an organization, the cost of agency investment in volunteers, and the contribution to the organizational mission yielded through volunteer labor. Volunteer value evaluation at this level is focused on the organization and its volunteers. Major concerns of primary stakeholders at this level are securing accountability, providing governance, controlling finances, and pursuing the organizational mission.

Managerial Interests

The third level of evaluation is tailored to the practical interests of program managers, volunteer coordinators, paid staff, and volunteers. Their ultimate purpose is to improve program implementation through the involvement of volunteers and the experience of these participants. Information about the current use of volunteers can assist these stakeholders in making decisions about deployment and effective involvement of lay citizens, the types of skills and knowledge required of volunteers to perform their tasks, the number of volunteers needed, the recruitment and retention rates of volunteers, etc.

The framework shown in Exhibit 15.2 is useful to define the evaluation purpose with regard to the various stakeholders. Although program goals tend to be vague and conflicting (Wholey, 1983), Poister (2003) argues that every program can be evaluated. When the purpose of the evaluation and the end-user have been defined, the evaluator can select and design the kind of measures to be used, the level of detail required, and the frequency of measuring and reporting to enhance the decision-making process (Poister, 2003). The proposed framework assists volunteer resource managers as evaluators in making these determinations.

Valuing Volunteering for Organizations, Volunteers, and Clients

As we have showed, the evaluation literature presents a persuasive case for the importance of identifying the purpose and goals for conducting an evaluation. Given these different purposes, the volunteer resource manager as evaluator may need to assess the value of volunteering for the organization, volunteers, and clients. We summarize relevant studies and methods below.

Value of Volunteering to the Host Organization

Measuring volunteer value is important to organizations for managerial, financial, and fundraising purposes. The most common method for valuing volunteer contributions is economic—an assessment of the dollar value of volunteer hours given to an organization. The Independent Sector (IS) organization suggested attributing the average hourly wage for civilian, nonagricultural, nonsupervisory workers to account for volunteer hours, increased by 12% to account for benefits. The IS average hourly volunteer compensation was calculated at $20.85 (in 2009). The total dollar value of volunteer time for 2009 is estimated at $169 billion to organizations, excluding informal volunteering (Independent Sector, 2011). The advantage of the IS approach is that it uses a widely cited and available statistic (the average hourly wage for civilian, nonagricultural, nonsupervisory workers in the United States). The disadvantage is that it does not distinguish among volunteers' variable tasks and their respective monetary values.

Several knowledgeable observers make a compelling argument for correcting the IS valuation method to take into account the variety of tasks performed by volunteers in the attribution of hourly dollar values to their labor (e.g., Andersen and Zimmerer, 2003; Brudney, 1990; Ellis, 1996; Gaskin, 2003). Brown (1999) suggested devoting attention to the nature of the tasks performed by volunteers and the equivalent compensation for the same (paid) work; she proposed basing these economic measures on the average compensation in the service sector, because volunteers were assumed to be mostly engaged in producing services rather than goods. By fixing the hourly dollar value at the level of social workers' wages, this approach lowered the average volunteer contribution value dramatically (from the IS [2011] estimation) to $9.87 per hour (in the late 1990s).

Handy and Srinivasan (2004) describe four approaches to valuing hours contributed by volunteers to the organization based on the opportunity cost and the replacement cost of volunteer time. The opportunity cost approach looks at the value of a volunteer hour from the perspective of a volunteer and what that hour is worth to this person. The replacement cost method evaluates the value of volunteers from the perspective of the organization, as if the agency had to pay market wage rates when purchasing such a service. Handy and Srinivasan describe the opportunity cost evaluation method based on the average wages foregone for volunteers who are employed ($16.42) and hypothetical wages for those who are unemployed ($12.58) donating their time in hospitals, the organizations investigated in their study. This approach, however, does not consider the fact that volunteers often perform very different tasks from those on their regular jobs.

The second opportunity cost approach is based on the perceived value of leisure time as assessed by the volunteers themselves. Handy and Srinivasan (2004) call this approach the L opportunity cost. The L opportunity cost produces a lower estimation of hourly value contributed to the hospitals by volunteers, in line with the volunteers' own assessment of their leisure time. The inconsistency of the L opportunity cost method lies in its reliance on the subjective evaluation of leisure time by volunteers.

The replacement cost approach assumes that the value of a volunteer hour is equal to that of a staff hour when volunteers perform the same tasks that paid staff would have conducted. In the hospital volunteering study Handy and Srinivasan describe this approach as unrealistic because of the hospitals' fiscal constraints. They contend that the staff would not have provided services delivered by volunteers in the absence of volunteers under conditions of fiscal stringency. Another variation of the replacement cost method is proposed by Ross (1994), who suggests the industry wage application method, which takes the hourly wage in that sector (e.g., the average hospital wage as equal to $19.69) and adjusts it for benefits. Following his approach, the adjusted hourly value of volunteering for the hospital is calculated at $23.23.

Several studies discuss whether organizations would choose to pay employees to provide the same services if volunteers were not available and/or treat the general topic of the possible interchangeability of paid staff and volunteers (Bowman, 2009; Handy & Mook, 2010; Handy, Mook, & Quarter, 2008; Simmons & Emanuele, 2010). Examining volunteers as fair substitutes for paid labor in Canadian organizations, Handy et al. (2008) find that the organizations are more likely to use volunteers and staff interchangeably under conditions that both volunteers and employees have comparable skills and knowledge, and when volunteers are numerous due to such factors as fewer jobs in the (paid) labor market. Their study suggests that organizations may improve their efficiency by relying on volunteer labor.

Quarter et al. (2003) choose to use the replacement cost method in their estimation of volunteering value. They argue that this approach is appropriate because the replacement-cost framework allows calculating volunteer services at the value of similar services in the market. However, they admit, the debate continues whether volunteers substitute for paid labor or supplement paid labor (Brudney, 1990; Ferris, 1984). The replacement-cost approach also fits well with the labor division among volunteers and staff that is typical for some organizations (Handy and Srinivasan, 2004).

Gaskin (1999) also uses a replacement cost method to construct the Volunteer Investment and Value Audit (VIVA). VIVA takes into account the variety of tasks that volunteers perform by analyzing and measuring actual activities and matching them to paid work in the market, an approach introduced by Karn (1982–1983, 1983) in the early 1980s. Simultaneously, VIVA addresses the issues of benefit-cost and cost-effectiveness by examining the organizational inputs, defined as resources used to support volunteers, in relation to the outputs, defined as the pound (monetary) value of volunteer time. Dividing the output by the input allows calculation of the VIVA ratio, which states that for every pound invested in support of volunteers, X pounds in the value of their services are returned to the organization (Gaskin, 1999). The VIVA method also bases its assessment of volunteers' value to the organization by imputing the value of contributed hours.

Anderson and Zimmerer (2003) discuss five methods for valuing the hours contributed by volunteers using the average wage, comparable worth (similar to the replacement-cost method), the Independent Sector (2011) approach (described previously in this chapter), the living wage, and the minimum wage. Most of these methods can be classified either as opportunity-cost approaches or as replacement-cost approaches. Anderson and Zimmerer (2003) criticize the replacement-cost method for the implicit assumption that volunteers and paid employees are perfect substitutes. In addition, this method does not take into account the level of compensation for "volunteer substitutes:" it can be either on the entry level or the advanced level of compensation (Hopkins, 2000). The minimum wage method is easy to use, but it does not value volunteer activity respectfully (i.e., according to the work performed). Ellis (1996, 1999) contends that most volunteer assignments are above the minimum wage level, perhaps even higher than the median wage. In her view, this method does not reflect the value of volunteer expertise.

The living wage method is based on dollars required to subsist; it is closer to the cost of living approach (Anderson & Zimmerer, 2003). Much like the minimum wage approach, the cost of living method lacks any relationship to the nature of the particular tasks performed by volunteers. It inherently places a low value on volunteer service, as if the service is performed by an unskilled worker. Having recognized these many disadvantages of the minimum wage and the living wage methods, most practitioners prefer the average wage or similar methods adjusted to include benefits. For more specific assessments, local average wages can be used, a procedure that allows contextualizing the value of volunteering (Anderson & Zimmerer, 2003).

Ross (1994) proposes the computation of "person-years" to account for volunteer hours, a method that differs conceptually from the dollar-based approaches. This method suggests valuing volunteer time in terms of full-time, year-round positions or person-years, equivalent to dividing the total hours contributed by volunteers by the average annual hours worked by a full-time employee (Ross, 1994). This approach is well-known as the full-time-equivalent (FTE) method (the maximum number of hours for an FTE might be set at 52 weeks $\times$ 40 hours = 2,080 hours per year). This method makes no effort to differentiate the type of work performed by volunteers, or to estimate the dollar value of the volunteer time. It implies that volunteers provide for the extension of paid staff in an organization.

Goulbourne and Embuldeniya (2002) have developed several measures of volunteer contributions that can be used for presenting the effect of volunteers on enhanced organizational revenues and decreased expenses. They propose looking at the ratio of volunteers to paid staff; the ratio can inform funders, managers, the general public, and other stakeholders regarding how much of the organizational success can be attributed to volunteers' effort. Goulbourne and Embuldeniya (2002) also consider community involvement in the activities of a nonprofit organization as an important measure of success. This approach treats participation of volunteers as an inherently valued goal in itself. They measure the "community investment ratio" (CIR) by assessing the volunteer contribution, expressed as the dollar value of donated time, relative to the total dollar amount a particular funder has contributed or may contribute to the volunteer program or a specific event. This ratio allows comparing community involvement in various localities. Another economic measure they present is community support, calculated as "volunteer capital contribution" (VCC), which considers the amount of resources brought by volunteers—donations added to nonreimbursed out-of-pocket expenses of volunteers.

In their study of hospitals, for example, Hotchkiss et al. (2009) present empirical evidence that regardless of the cost of training and management, volunteers provided financial benefits exceeding costs. Irrespective of hospital size, many of the programs "reported that they had savings of more than a million dollars when they used volunteer service." With respect to generalization of results, the researchers acknowledge that hospitals often use medical students as volunteers, whose skills allow the administration to save on paid labor for particular services (Hotchkiss et al., 2009, p.125).

Handy and Srinivasan (2004) present a calculation of volunteer contribution based on the benefit-cost approach. All benefits accruing to hospitals (the unit of analysis in their study) and to volunteers are summed, and the costs of volunteering to the hospital and to volunteers themselves are subtracted. Thus, the authors arrive at an estimate of the net benefits of volunteering to the hospital, which they find to be very significant, and net benefits to the volunteers themselves, which they find to be negative. In their study the volunteer contributions are estimated on the basis of the hourly value of volunteer work.

Another study by Handy and Mook (2010) evaluates direct and indirect benefits and costs of volunteers to an organization. With respect to benefits, they argue that in times of crisis many organizations undergoing budget cuts would rely on volunteers more heavily. In addition, volunteers may help organizations connect with communities and receive recognition for the services they provide. Involving volunteers may also pose problems, however, such as conflict with labor unions, liability issues, or tension with the paid staff (Handy & Mook, 2010). Thus, from the organizational perspective, valuing volunteers entails an assessment of benefits and costs.

Using a noneconomic methodology, Hager and Brudney (2005) introduce a summary measure of "net benefits" of a volunteer program to an organization. This approach combines benefits and challenges realized by a volunteer program into a single barometer of (net) benefits to the organization. The method asks volunteer program managers to rate the benefits received by an organization from volunteer participation and the challenges encountered. "Net benefits" are calculated as the difference between the benefits and the challenges. This approach has certain advantages: It allows identifying the benefits and problems emanating from volunteer participation, balancing the benefits against the problems in a single measure, and calculating and comparing results across volunteer programs and host organizations.

In many studies, volunteers are viewed as producers of outputs and outcomes as well as beneficiaries. Multiple studies suggest that volunteers consider participation in nonprofit organization activity as personally beneficial to them (Brudney, 1990; Ellis, 1999; Handy & Mook, 2010; Handy & Srinivasan, 2004; Quarter et al., 2003). In the next section, we consider suggested methods for calculating the benefits that accrue to volunteers as a result of participation.

Value of Volunteering to the Volunteers

Many researchers and practitioners conceive of volunteers as providers of services as well as beneficiaries of participation. To measure the value accruing to volunteers themselves, Brown (1999) suggests two alternative methods. One method proposes calculating benefits in terms of opportunity cost. This approach assumes that volunteers benefited by gaining satisfaction measured in monetary terms in the amount of wages that they agree to forgo minus taxes (25%) and fringe benefits (i.e., the material gains that volunteers willingly give up to volunteer). The second way is to measure out-of-work volunteer time according to valuation given to this time by volunteers themselves. Based on other research, the value of free time is measured at the rate of half the employment wage. In addition, Brown argues that volunteers' hourly value depends on the motivation to volunteer. When volunteers agree to endure as much stress while producing donated services as they would experience on their jobs, the level of motivation is higher. Hence, the volunteer hour must be measured closer to the amount of the hourly wage (six-sevenths of a regular hourly wage). In such cases, the portion of the wage, properly adjusted for fringe benefits and taxes, is the measure of the volunteers' cost of volunteering. Pro bono volunteering is an example of such services. When the volunteering environment is less stressful and more pleasant, the level of motivation is lower. In this instance, the economic value (or cost to the volunteer) can be measured at half the rate of the regular hourly wage.

Handy and Srinivasan (2004) measure benefits to volunteers by means of a survey. Survey questions include attitude scales asking for ratings from 1 to 5 for specific benefits gained through volunteering, such as new skills, social contacts, references for employment, and job and career opportunities. Most volunteers rated these benefits as high—4 or 5 on the respective scales. Handy and Srinivasan use willingness to pay to acquire such benefits as a measure of the monetary value of the volunteering experience in the hospital: In their study, the average volunteer professed a willingness to pay \$179.24 (2004) to attain these benefits. As Handy and Srinivasan recognize, this measurement requests a very subjective assessment and, hence, has limited reliability and generalizability. Handy and Mook (2010) discuss other non-economic benefits to volunteers, such as increasing social status and knowledge (especially from service on agency boards of directors) and the "warm glow" emanating from volunteering.

In order to evaluate the benefits that volunteers receive from participation, Quarter et al. (2003) use a different approach based on identifying and pricing a "surrogate" (i.e., proxy or comparison) in the private marketplace. For example, gains to volunteers include such non-material benefits as the development of personal leadership skills. Quarter et al. propose as a surrogate measure the cost for a student to learn these same skills in a university course. (They estimated the cost of an appropriate course at \$500 based on college courses that taught similar skills.) The surrogate methodology allows approximating the value of the benefit received by volunteers from their participation. Total benefits to volunteers are assessed by multiplying the percentage of volunteers who report receiving the benefit by the economic value of the benefit calculated according to the surrogate method. Quarter et al. suggest that the surrogate methodology can be extended to other benefits that might be gained by volunteers; depending on the program, volunteers might obtain skills in counseling, first aid, and so on. To arrive at net benefit estimation for volunteers, the cost of any training provided by the organization would be subtracted from the total amount of benefits received by these participants.

Although these methods are useful, the organization and the volunteers are not usually considered the main beneficiaries of volunteer activity by those who donate funds, and by those who assess the effectiveness of volunteer programs and nonprofit organizations. The primary beneficiaries are most often considered the clients of the organization. The next section discusses the issue of measuring benefits to clients.

Value of Volunteering to Clients

Because clients typically receive services provided by volunteers at no cost to them, it can be especially difficult to evaluate benefits to this group. Instead of asking how much money clients would be willing to pay for the service that they receive for free, Murray (1994) asked how needy clients would trade off the in-kind services provided to them against a hypothetical gift of "cold hard cash" (equivalent valuation method). Murray used this approach to measure the in-kind goods value to recipients of social security services such as Food Stamps and Temporary Assistance for Needy Families (TANF) benefits against the offered cash. Murray argued that welfare recipients were ready to trade such in-kind benefits for a smaller amount of cash, which equaled the value of in-kind transfer to 73% of the cash value. Economists call the difference between in-kind goods value and the amount of cash preferred by the recipients "deadweight loss," because this difference produces no utility and satisfies no preferences. Economists maintain that this loss accounts for the desire of policymakers to change recipients' behavior. Following Murray's findings, Brown (1999) suggests that the value of services to clients should be approximated through wage-based estimates of the market value of volunteer-produced services adjusted for the inefficiency of the in-kind resource transfer (i.e., at approximately 73% of the in-kind service market value).

In their model, Quarter et al. (2003) define direct client benefits as a primary output. They maintain that since recipients of the services do not pay for them, the market lacks a signal to help identify the value of the output. Therefore, they advise attributing a surrogate value to the output by finding and pricing a comparable service in the market; the method is analogous to the procedure described above to estimate the value of benefits received by volunteers. Quarter et al. conclude that the value of a volunteer service to a client is defined by the price for the comparable service or good in the market. For example, if the intended outcome for clients is independent living for the elderly, a surrogate measure is the cost of a nursing home.

In their study, Handy and Srinivasan (2004) define the value of volunteer services to enhance the quality of care to hospital patients (clients) as nonmaterial. They argue that volunteers are able to provide many soft, or intangible, services that are essential to the comfort of patients. Volunteers also reduce the workload of paid staff by taking on certain tasks and leaving staff members more free to concentrate on other tasks (Brudney, 1990). By providing help to patients and supporting paid staff, volunteers enhance the quality of care, which is an important component of health care, although difficult to measure in monetary terms (Handy & Srinivasan, 2004). Handy and Srinivasan offer a nonmonetary measurement of quality of care by volunteers, which we refer to as impact rather than output. We discuss this innovative measurement below.

Other benefits that clients of health care organizations receive from volunteer services have been documented by Hotchkiss et al. (2009) in their study of Florida hospitals. They find that higher volunteer hours in patient care areas strongly correlate with patient satisfaction, indicating that "hospitals with a significant volunteer component are likely to provide positive patient experiences." (Hotchkiss et al., 2009, p.126).

As we have seen, economic evaluation of volunteer contributions continues to be a major interest of researchers. The various economic approaches yield great insight into the value of volunteer effort, yet they do not capture the gamut of volunteers' contributions and the value they generate, or the ultimate impacts of their activity. Graff (2005) calls on researchers to be cautious about relying solely on economic measurement to assess volunteer value. She maintains that the dollar valuation method underestimates the actual value of volunteer work (Graff, 2005).

A panel discussion on the *e-Volunteerism* Web site (Fryar, Mook, Brummel, & Jalandoni, 2003) demonstrates a range of views on the value of economic measurement of volunteer contributions. Fryar begins by stating that "the most enduring and controversial question within the field of volunteerism is the one that relates to the 'value' of volunteers and the hours they contribute." Brummel suggests that focusing on the monetary value of volunteering is harmful in the long run because, in his view, a narrow "economic focus" distracts from social valuation of volunteering and trivializes volunteer impact. Other participants in this discussion find it useful to conduct and present an economic valuation in combination with alternative indicators of volunteer value (Mook, Jalandoni). Jalandoni takes a middle position that "[b]oth the quantitative as well as qualitative, anecdotal, and societal value of volunteering are important depending on what you need to use them for." As Graff (2005) advises, a more complex and complete approach would involve the identification of outcomes or results of volunteer work, calculation of the full costs of achieving those outcomes, and finally evaluation of whether it is a worthwhile investment of resources.

As in other areas of social life, evaluation of the impact of volunteering is a challenging task that is rarely measurable by using quantitative tools alone. Impact refers to the effects or results of an activity, program, or initiative in the larger community or society. As Safrit (2010) writes, "Thus, impact may be considered the *ultimate effects and changes* that a volunteer-based program has brought about upon those involved with the program (i.e., its stakeholders), including the program's targeted clientele and their surrounding neighborhoods and communities, as well as the volunteer organization itself and its paid and volunteer staff" (p. 321, emphasis in original). The following section discusses attempts to measure the impact of volunteer activity.

Impact Measurement

Here we return to an innovative noneconomic approach that Handy and Srinivasan (2004) suggest for measuring the impact of volunteers in their study of the hospital services provided by volunteers. To do so, they identify the lack of overlap in roles between paid professionals and volunteers in the hospital setting, and document the division of labor between paid professionals and volunteers. Interviews with volunteer managers identified enhanced quality of patient care as the most important contribution of volunteers. In order to identify volunteers' impact on this dimension, Handy and Srinivasan asked the managers to rank 26 quality programs offered by hospitals that were described in the literature. To measure the quality of care, the survey asked managers, paid staff, and volunteers to rate the impact of volunteer services in each of these domains on a scale of 1 to 10. On average, managers rated volunteers' impact on quality of care as 9.0, staff members rated it as 8.43, and volunteers as 8.7. The converging values supported the validity of measurement. Because this evaluation method is based on stakeholders' assessment of the impact of volunteer services, it is often referred to as a "stakeholder approach." It allows measuring the impact of volunteer effort directed to achieve a specific inherently valued goal such as quality of patient care.

Quarter et al. (2003) present a new approach to impact measurement for volunteers and nonprofit organizations: social accounting. They suggest giving recognition to volunteers by measuring the social impact of volunteer services, and including this value in the accounting statement of an organization. Quarter et al. propose using the Expanded Value Added Statement (EVAS) to include the contribution of volunteers to the total value added produced by the organization. Three types of outcomes identified by the Community Return on Investment model are incorporated in the EVAS. For the EVAS statement, Quarter et al. include and measure three types of outputs:

1. Primary outputs. The value of direct services of an organization to clients
2. Secondary outputs. The value of indirect outputs that accrue to the organization's members (staff and volunteers) and customers (e.g., skills development)

3. Tertiary outputs. The value of indirect outputs that accrue to those other than the organization's members and clients (e.g., consultations provided to other cooperatives)

Primary outputs to clients can be evaluated according to the surrogate valuation methods described above. Benefits that accrue to volunteers are classified as secondary outputs. Quarter et al. (2003) suggest including these outputs in the EVAS as hours contributed plus out-of-pocket expenses not reimbursed. In order to value the hours of volunteers, Quarter et al. again use the replacement-cost approach based on the price of equivalent paid labor. Tertiary benefits to third parties are calculated by attributing the market value to the services the third party received for free from the organization, again using the surrogate method. The summation of all three outputs yields the value added by volunteering to the organization.

An important part of the EVAS is the idea of distribution of the value added among stakeholders. Primary services go to clients, secondary benefits to participants (staff and volunteers), and tertiary to the community. Calculation of the value to the first two of these groups of stakeholders is more straightforward; estimation of volunteer value to the community requires greater ingenuity. Quarter et al. (2003) suggest using several approaches to measure the impact of volunteers:

1. *Surrogate valuation.* The comparable service can be found in the market, and the price for this service will be a surrogate value of the unpriced volunteer service.
2. *Survey technique.* Worth to clients is measured by compiling the list of either prices or consumer items and asking the respondents to situate the service in relation to others on the list.
3. *Avoidance cost.* Calculated as the cost of undoing the damage. For example, the loss of or damage to outdoor recreational facilities that are publicly available has been assessed by the fees needed to replace the facilities (Crutchfield, 1962).
4. *Attribution.* Assigning a weight to various factors that influence results. This is achieved by means of using comparison groups, and longitudinal studies that help to collect information about change. Often it is impossible to determine precisely the causal effects, but information increases understanding and knowledge.
5. *Stakeholder input.* Stakeholders are defined and systematically asked in open meetings, interviews, confidential focus groups, and surveys about their views on the desirability of the service and its impact on clients.

Cahn and Rowe (1992) offer a conceptually different view on valuing volunteer time for the larger community. They propose the time dollar value as an instrument for valuing volunteers' contribution, based on the idea of reciprocity. The time dollar method holds that when a person volunteers an hour of his or her time to help another person, his or her time-dollar bank is credited one hour. The time-dollar account may accumulate multiple hours, which indicates that the owner is entitled to receive an equivalent amount (in hours) of services or goods from other people, or to receive in-kind compensation, such as reduced tuition cost in college. The value of a contributed hour is not differentiated by the type of services provided; all hours count the same regardless of the qualifications of the service providers and the content of the service itself. The philosophical foundation for this method is equality of good intentions, and not the differentiated effort or service value. Accumulated credit hours would pay for provision of reciprocal assistance, but will not allow measuring the impact, even though the impact may be socially and economically significant (e.g., increased literacy). Cahn and Rowe's (1992) time-dollar method requires very accurate recording and crediting of volunteer hours contributed and a well-defined group of people or "members" who participate, such as residents in a community, neighborhood, co-op, or college dormitory. For these authors, the "impact" of volunteer activity is community participation fostered through reciprocity.

Poister (2003) offers practical tips for public and nonprofit organizations on how to conduct evaluations that measure outputs and outcomes. He elaborates the "logic model" approach, which helps to specify the resources, activities, and outputs of a program or organization, and the outcomes (initial, intermediate and long-term) it is meant to achieve. The logic model begins with a careful preliminary analysis of the goals of the organization or program and the conceptual framework for their attainment; in this approach, outcomes are the expected results conforming to the goals. When the goals are clear, and the expected results in the short-term and in the long-term periods are specified, the task of a manager is to define the performance measures. Performance measures typically include measures of output, efficiency, productivity, service quality, effectiveness, cost-effectiveness, and customer satisfaction. Application of this comprehensive approach would assist the volunteer resource manager as evaluator to capture the multidimensional nature of the outcomes and the long-term impact created with the active help of volunteers. We turn to that topic now.

Logic Models

Logic models are often used as a framework for evaluation. A logic model depicts graphically a causal interpretation of how a program operates and is thought to achieve its intended results. The logic model is usually presented as a figure or diagram that shows connections between the important elements of a program. Organizational or program goals or objectives drive the logic model so that it is first necessary to agree on what the program is attempting to achieve—a useful process that can require significant discussion and consultation among stakeholders and program and organizational staff. As discussed above, the views of important stakeholders must be taken into account in this determination. However, the more specific the goal(s) of a program or initiative, the more straightforward will be the ensuing evaluation task.

The first of the elements in the logic model is the inputs or "resources" invested in the program, including monetary, personnel, equipment, technological, etc. Program managers and leaders are charged with converting these resources into program "activities," such as services provided by the organization to clients or outreach efforts. The first tangible, measurable results of program activities are labeled "outputs," which indicate the work the program has performed. Depending on the goal(s) of the program, outputs may include the number of sessions conducted with clients, the number of visits to clients, the number of promotional activities carried out by the program, and so forth.

Some evaluations go no farther than examination of the interconnections between program resources, activities, and outputs. Because these elements are largely under the control of the organization, it is of considerable interest to some stakeholders (although not all) to fix the evaluation on them. As we described briefly above, an evaluability assessment concentrates on the resources allocated to the program to determine whether they are sufficient to achieve the results intended. Such a perspective is critical not only to the organization—so that decision makers may understand any limitations of resources uncovered and hopefully address the situation—but also to the type of evaluation that may ultimately be conducted. Unless resources are in place to make the achievement of program effects for clients conceivable, undertaking more ambitious forms of evaluation (e.g., assessment of impact) makes little sense. Other forms of evaluation center on the conversion process of program inputs, to activities, to outputs. Because these forms look primarily on the operation of the program rather than its results, they are typically termed "process evaluations."

By way of example, consider a program that enlists volunteers and paid staff in mentoring middle school students, with the goal of improving school attendance and academic performance. The inputs or resources allocated to the program might consist of a single, full-time paid staff person and a large number of part-time volunteers, and some amount of budgetary resources. In addition to the key mentoring activities provided by volunteers, other activities undertaken by the program may consist of recruitment, orientation, placement, learning, supervision, and assessment of the volunteers. Outputs may encompass the number of matches of volunteer mentors and student mentees, the number of meetings between the mentors and mentees, the types of activities that they pursue in these relationships, and the amount of time devoted to them.

An evaluability assessment would concentrate on the question of whether the resources allocated to the program—paid, volunteer, budgetary, and otherwise—were sufficient to operate the program. It would consider the relationship between the inputs available to the program in light of the extent of interest in the program (as reflected, for example, in the number of students seeking a mentor) as well as the program features that must be in place to offer mentees a quality experience. Such an assessment would scrutinize the balance between program resources on the one hand and program demands on the other in terms of the volume of prospective mentees and the activities necessary for their welfare. A process evaluation would consider the inter-relationship among resources, activities, and outputs. It might ask, for example, whether: the resources allocated to the program were used most efficiently; the training offered to mentors was of high quality; the operations of the program were sufficient to generate, orient, and place qualified volunteers with mentors; and paid staff and volunteers were organized and coordinated in a way to achieve most outputs (e.g., mentor-mentee matches). Although these elements do not pertain to program outcomes—the changes or results realized by clients (here, middle school students)—the questions (and answers) are of interest to certain stakeholders, particularly program managers, organizational decision makers, and the volunteer mentors.

Outcomes can be understood as the effects of a program on its targeted clientele, especially changes anticipated and desired by the sponsoring organization. As opposed to the other elements of the logic model considered thus far, outcomes are not under the control of the program or organization. Rather, they represent changes or effects to be realized in the external environment or audience of clients and communities. They are more ambitious both to achieve and to measure. Outcomes are related to the overall long-term impact of a program, but they have a more specific, short-term focus on immediate changes or results for clients (Safrit, 2010). Even so, as Poister (2003), McDavid and Hawthorne (2006), Wholey et al. (2004), and others point out, outcomes are normally categorized as initial, intermediate, and long-term. If the evaluator has done her or his job correctly, the outcomes will correspond to the objectives of the program, i.e., they will measure the achievement of the goals that are sought for the program in the client population or community.

Returning to the example of a volunteer mentor program guided by goals of improving school attendance and performance of middle-school students, we might conceive of initial outcomes centering on the mentor-mentee relationship. For example, does the client (student) appreciate the mentor and attend to the suggestions of the mentor? With respect to intermediate range outcomes, we might look for more behavioral indicators (measures) of the positive effects of mentoring: Do the student mentees participate in school activities, such as recognized groups or associations? Do they devote more time to their studies? Finally, in the longer term, the outcome measures might comprise attendance and grades: Do the students show improvement in school attendance and grade reports? By contrast, the intended impact of the program might be a change in school culture to incorporate greater emphasis on student learning, participation, and achievement. Although the initial, intermediate, and longer-term program outcomes would contribute to this impact, the impact is much more broad, far-reaching, and difficult both to attain and measure.

Summative Evaluations

Evaluations that attempt to link program resources and activities to outcomes (or impact) are usually termed "summative" evaluations, perhaps because they attempt to sum up the end results or achievements of a program or initiative. To prepare a summative evaluation, the volunteer resource manager as evaluator must obtain data from or about the intended client group regarding outcomes (as well as background factors concerning the clients). The data collection effort should not be minimized: Developing the necessary measurement strategy and instruments can be quite time-consuming and require significant background in measurement. Direct measurements from clients are frequently sought in evaluations, such as interviews, focus groups, and surveys; supplementing such information with other data sources is highly desirable. Access to organizational records, for example, can be very valuable.

In the example of the volunteer mentoring program, the relevant data might emanate from independent surveys of the middle school students and the volunteer mentors; it might also prove possible to conduct some in-depth interviews. In addition, official school records pertaining to student attendance and grades would be highly valuable additions to the store of data to evaluate the effects on the target population. Preparation of the data collection instruments will be guided by the need to obtain outcome information.

Summative evaluations incorporate a research design component. The topic of research design is both vast and technical, and we shall provide only a brief introduction here. A research design specifies the methodology, or set of steps or procedures utilized, to test anticipated causal relationships or hypotheses so that the results can be accepted as valid (Meier, Brudney, & Bohte, 2012). In our now-familiar example of the volunteer mentoring program, the hypotheses are that the program will improve student attendance and grade reports. The research design must detail how we can arrive at valid or credible conclusions concerning these hypotheses. To do so, in general, the research design will call for a comparison or benchmark to evaluate whether or not the program has succeeded in making an improvement in the outcome measures. Typically, the bases for comparison are either in reference to data collected at a point earlier in time for the same group of subjects, or with respect to information collected from a control or comparison group chosen to be as similar as possible to the program group, or both.

Thus, in our example, the research design might call for a collection of outcome data on student attendance and grade reports for those in the mentor program over time—ideally, data collected before the students were involved in the program and then again after their involvement. Comparison of these two sets of measures can be used to detect improvement (over time) in the outcome measures of attendance and grade reports. Alternatively, the research design might specify collecting and comparing data on the outcomes for the group of students in the mentor program (experimental or treatment group) versus a comparable group of students who do not have mentors but who are otherwise similar to the mentored students (control or comparison group). This comparison, too, would allow the evaluator to identify improvement, in this case between the two groups of students (i.e., mentor program versus control group). Either form of comparison, over-time measurement or access to a control group, allows test of the hypotheses that the mentor program led to improved student performance in the outcome variables of school attendance and grade reports. Testing these comparisons based on data will require some familiarity with basic statistics (Meier et al., 2012).

Note that the logic model approach allows the volunteer resource manager as evaluator to assess the achievement of outcomes in a volunteer program or nonprofit organization without reference to their economic cost or valuation. This observation is important, especially in light of the differing opinions presented above in regard to the value of economic information for an evaluation of a program that includes a significant volunteer component. Based on the logic model framework, the volunteer resource manager can use the findings from the outcome evaluation to demonstrate that the program helps the organization to achieve worthwhile objectives. In addition to program managers, clients, and volunteers, other stakeholders, such as the pubic, funders, and organizational leaders and board members, would likely be interested in evaluation results that showed, for example, that a volunteer mentor program had achieved desirable outcomes, such as improvements in the attendance of middle school students and their grade reports. Accordingly, the volunteer resource manager can use this information to press for greater recognition and support of the volunteer program.

It is quite possible, moreover, to supplement the results of the outcome evaluation with economic valuation of the volunteer program and its results. Such an enhancement can prove even more persuasive for the volunteer resource manager in making the case for the program to relevant stakeholders. If some form of cost/benefit analysis of the volunteer program were necessary or desired, for example, the methods elaborated on economic valuation in the sections above can be put to good use. On the cost side, through maintaining records and files, organizations can usually estimate the expenses incurred by a department, program, or initiative. On the benefit side, although the positive effects of program or organizational activity are much more elusive to comprehend and measure, this chapter has presented methodologies for economic valuation of volunteer participation for organizations, clients, and the volunteers themselves, as well as some approaches to impact assessment. Based on these methods the volunteer resource manager as evaluator can venture considerably beyond the question of whether improvements have been achieved in the client population to incorporate a sophisticated analysis of the associated economic costs to the organization and benefits to various stakeholder groups.

Conclusion

Effective evaluation combines the rigor of the best methodological techniques with the realities of organizational context. It represents a rich blend of science and politics. The volunteer resource manager as evaluator requires some fluency in both domains. The evaluator seeks to provide methodologically valid answers to the questions that she or he believes the relevant stakeholders have posed for the program or the organization.

The earlier portions of the chapter are devoted to the organizational context. They point out that no single evaluation is likely to meet the information needs of the myriad stakeholders to a volunteer program, including funders, agency leadership, board of directors, program managers and other staff, volunteers, clients, and even public decision makers, citizens, and the media. Thus, choices will have to be made concerning evaluation purposes and stakeholders.

The volunteer resource manager as evaluator need not, and should not, guess or make assumptions about the stakeholders crucial to the evaluation process, their information needs, and overall purposes. Instead, she or he should be much more proactive in inquiring about the purposes of the evaluation and the stakeholders most invested in it. The volunteer resource manager should involve these groups in formulating the purposes for the evaluation, the questions to be answered by it, and the corresponding evaluation methodologies. This consultation should continue to encompass issues of measurement. If, as is frequently the case, the evaluation is to assess program results, then relevant stakeholders should participate in identifying the crucial measures of outcomes and impact to be used in the study. For the volunteer resource manager as evaluator, turning their (stakeholders') measures into our measures for an evaluation team helps to secure buy-in to the study and its results.

The consultation process is useful, too, to ferret out hidden agendas (i.e., situations in which certain stakeholders hold pre-determined views of the worth of a program, initiative, or organization that they seek only to reinforce, and not disturb, through evaluation). Such ritualistic evaluations are enervating to organizational actors and resources and fail to advance knowledge. Bringing the relevant stakeholders on board prior to the evaluation can be effectual in identifying such covert purposes and, it is hoped, committing those involved to a genuine openness to the evaluation questions and confidence in the results. These efforts require sensitivity to the organizational environment and central actors on the part of the volunteer resource manager as well as political savvy.

Also needed for conducting evaluations are skills in methodological techniques, and the later sections of the chapter have provided an introduction to them. Most of these procedures turn on the ability of the volunteer resource manager as evaluator to incorporate into the analysis economic valuation of volunteer-based services for the organization, clients, and the volunteers themselves. Not all approaches are oriented to economic valuation, though. The logic model framework depicts the volunteer program as a causal sequence linking inputs to the program, the activities it carries out, and the outputs it generates, with program outcomes and impact (i.e., measures of the goals sought by the program. The logic model need not use economic measures), but it does require some knowledge of research design and statistical analysis. Thus, the volunteer resource manager as evaluator requires some background in the relevant techniques.

This chapter has focused on the role of stakeholders in the evaluation process. Yet meeting the needs and demands of stakeholders for information is only part of the evaluation task. We encourage volunteer resource managers to conceive of evaluation more generally for their own purposes as bringing data to bear on questions about volunteer involvement that can increase its value to the organization and grab the attention of key decision makers. For example, where are the organizational opportunities to extend volunteer efforts? How can volunteers be used more productively? In what new initiatives might volunteers make a valuable contribution? Astute volunteer resource managers likely think about such questions. When they begin to use the tools of evaluation to address them more systematically, they will find that their answers gain more force and acceptance.

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CHAPTER 16

Evaluating Impact of Volunteer Programs

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This chapter introduces and defines the closely related concepts of evaluation, impact and accountability, especially as applied to volunteer programs. The author discusses four fundamental questions that guide the development and implementation of an impact evaluation and subsequent accountability of a volunteer program.

Evaluation in Volunteer Programs

The concept of evaluation as applied to volunteer programs is not new. As early as 1968, Creech suggested a set of criteria for evaluating a volunteer program and concluded, "Evaluation, then, includes listening to our critics, to the people around us, to experts, to scientists, to volunteers so that we may get the whole truth [about our programs]" (p.2). This approach to evaluation was well ahead of its time since up until the past decade, when authors within our profession either only addressed the evaluation of holistic volunteer programs superficially (e.g., Brudney, 1999; Naylor, 1976; O'Connell, 1976; Stenzel & Feeney, 1968; Wilson, 1979) or not at all (e.g., Naylor, 1973; Wilson, 1981). Even in the first edition of this text, fewer than four total pages of text were dedicated to the topic of evaluation within chapters dedicated to other traditional volunteer program management topics, including recruiting and retaining volunteers (Bradner, 1995), training volunteers (Lulewicz, 1995), supervising volunteers (Brudney, 1995; Stepputat, 1995), improving paid staff and volunteer relations (Macduff, 1995), monitoring the operations of employee volunteer programs (Seel, 1995), involving board members (Graff, 1995), and determining a volunteer program's success (Stepputat, 1995).

However, for volunteer programs operating in contemporary society, evaluation is a critical, if not *the most* critical, component of managing an overall volunteer program and subsequently documenting the impacts and ultimate value of the program to the target clientele it is designed to serve as well as the larger society in which it operates. As early as 1982, Austin et al. concluded that "Only through evaluation can [nonprofit] agencies make their programs credible to funding agencies and government authorities" (p. 10). In 1994, Korngold and Voudouris suggested the evaluation of impact on the larger community as one phase of evaluating an employee volunteer program.

The critical role of volunteer program impact evaluation in holistic volunteer management became very apparent during the final decade of the twentieth century, and continues today (Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration, 2008; Merrill & Safrit, 2000; Safrit & Schmiesing, 2005; Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem, & Gliem, 2005). While most volunteer managers understand and believe in evaluation, they most often have focused their efforts on evaluating the performance of individual volunteers and their contributions to the total program and/or organization. In this sense, evaluation has served an important managerial function in human resource development, the results of which are usually known only to the volunteer and volunteer manager. As Morley, Vinson, and Hatry (2001) noted:

> *Nonprofit organizations are more often familiar with monitoring and reporting such information as: the number of clients served; the quantity of services, programs, or activities provided; the number of volunteers or volunteer hours contributed; and the amount of donations received. These are important data, but they do not help nonprofit managers or constituents understand how well they are helping their clients.* (p. 5)

However, as nonprofit organizations began to face simultaneous situations of stagnant or decreasing public funding and increasing demand for stronger accountability of how limited funds were being used, volunteer program impact evaluation moved from a human resource management context to an organizational development and survival context. The volunteer administration profession began to recognize the shifting attitudes toward evaluation, and in the early 1980's the former Association for Volunteer Administration (AVA) defined a new competency fundamental to the profession as "the ability to monitor and evaluate total program results . . . [and] demonstrate the ability to document program results" (as cited in Fisher & Cole, 1993, pp. 187, 188). Administrators and managers of volunteer-based programs were increasingly called on to measure, document, and dollarize the impact of their programs on clientele served and not just the performance of individual volunteers and the activities they contribute (Safrit & Schmiesing, 2002; Safrit, Schmiesing, King, Villard, & Wells, 2003; Schmiesing & Safrit, 2007). This intensive demand for greater accountability initially arose from program funders (public and private) but quickly escalated to include government, the taxpaying public, and even the volunteers themselves. As early as 1993, Taylor and Sumariwalla noted:

> *Increasing competition for tax as well as contributed dollars and scarce resources prompt donors and funders to ask once again: What good did the donation produce? What difference did the foundation grant or United Way allocation make in the lives of those affected by the service funded?* (p. 95)

According to Safrit (2010, p. 316), "The pressure on nonprofit organizations to evaluate the impact of volunteer-based programs has not abated during the first decade of the new [21st] century, and if anything has grown stronger." With regards to overall volunteer management, evaluation continues to play an important role in the human resource management of individual volunteers; most volunteer managers are very familiar and comfortable with this aspect of evaluation in volunteer programs. However, today's volunteer managers are less knowledgeable, skilled, and comfortable with the concept of impact evaluation as only the first (if important) step in measuring, documenting, and communicating the effects of a volunteer program immediately on the target clientele served by the organization's volunteers, and ultimately on the surrounding community.

A Symbiotic Relationship: Evaluation, Impact, and Accountability

In the overwhelming majority of both nonformal workshops and formal courses I have taught, participants will inevitably use three terms almost interchangeably in our discussions of evaluating volunteer programs. The three concepts are symbiotically linked and synergistically critical to contemporary volunteer programs, yet they are not synonymous. The three terms are evaluation, impact, and accountability.

Evaluation

Very simply stated, evaluation means measurement. We "evaluate" in all aspects of our daily lives, whether it involves measuring (evaluating) the outside temperature to determine if we need to wear a coat to work, measuring (evaluating) the current balance in our checking account to see if we can afford to buy a new piece of technology, or measuring (evaluating) the fiscal climate in our workplace to decide if it is a good time to ask our supervisor for a salary increase. However, for volunteer programs, "evaluation involves measuring a targeted program's inputs, processes, and outcomes so as to assess the program's efficiency of operations and/or effectiveness in impacting the program's targeted clientele group" (Safrit, 2010, p. 318).

The duel focus of this definition on a volunteer program's efficiency and effectiveness is supported by contemporary evaluation literature. Daponte (2008) defined evaluation as being "done to examine whether a program or policy causes a change; assists with continuous programmatic improvement and introspection" (p. 157). Royse, Thyer, and Padgett (2010) focused on evaluation as "a form of appraisal . . . that examines the processes or outcomes of an organization that exists to fulfill some social need" (p. 12). These definitions each recognize the important role of evaluation in monitoring the operational aspects of a volunteer program (i.e., inputs and processes) yet ultimately emphasize the program's ultimate purpose of engaging volunteers to help bring about positive changes in the lives of the program's targeted audience (i.e., outcomes). These positive changes are called impacts.

Impact

Contrary to popular belief, volunteer programs do not exist for the primary purpose of engaging volunteers merely to give the volunteers something to do or for supplying an organization with unpaid staff to help expand its mission and purpose. Rather, volunteer programs ultimately seek to bring about positive impacts in the lives of the targeted clientele the volunteers are trained to support either directly (through direct service to individual clients) or indirectly (through direct service to the service-providing organization). The latter statement does nothing to discount or demean the critical involvement of volunteers, but instead challenges a volunteer manager to continually focus and refocus the engagement of volunteers on the ultimate mission of the sponsoring organization and the outcomes it seeks to bring about. In other words, it forces volunteer managers to identify and focus on the volunteer program's desired impacts.

According to Safrit (2010):

> *Impact may be considered the ultimate effects and changes that a volunteer-based program has brought about upon those involved with the program (i.e., its stakeholders), including the program's targeted clientele and their surrounding neighborhoods and communities, as well as the volunteer organization itself and its paid and volunteer staff.* (p. 319)

This inclusionary definition of impact focuses primarily on the organization's *raison-d'être*, and secondarily on the organization itself and its volunteers. Thus, it parallels and compliments nicely the earlier definition of evaluation as being targeted first toward the volunteer program's targeted clientele, and secondly on internal processes and operations. Subsequently, volunteer managers must constantly measure the ultimate outcomes of volunteer programs, or stated more formally, evaluate the volunteer program's impacts. However, merely evaluating a volunteer program's impacts is not in itself a guarantee for the program's continued success and/or survival; however positive, the knowledge gained by evaluating a volunteer program's impacts are practically meaningless unless they are strategically communicated to key leaders and decision makers connected to the sponsoring organization.

Accountability

Accountability within volunteer programs involves the strategic communication of the most important impacts of a volunteer program, identified through an evaluation process, to targeted program stakeholders, both internal and external to the organization. Internal stakeholders would include paid staff, organizational administrators, board members, volunteers, and the clientele served; external stakeholders include funders and donors, professional peers, government agencies and other legitimizers, and the larger community in which the organization operates.

Boone (1985) was the first author to describe the critical role of accountability in educational programs and organizations, and the previous definition is based largely on that of Boone, Safrit, and Jones (2002). Unfortunately, volunteer managers are sometimes hesitant to share program impacts even when they have identified them through an effective evaluation; they often consider such strong accountability as being boastful or too aggressive. However, accountability is the third and final concept critically linking the previous concepts of evaluation and impact to a volunteer program's or organization's continued survival. Volunteer managers must accept the professional responsibility in our contemporary impact-focused society to proactively plan for targeted accountability, identifying specific key stakeholders and deciding what specific program impacts each stakeholder type wants to know. This targeted approach to volunteer program accountability will be discussed in more detail later in this chapter.

Four Fundamental Questions in Any Volunteer Program Impact Evaluation

Evaluation is a relatively young concept within the educational world; Ralph Tyler (1949) is often credited with coining the actual term itself, *evaluation*, to refer to the alignment between measurement and testing with educational objectives. And there is no dearth in the literature of various approaches and models for program evaluation. Some models are more conceptual and focus on the various processes involved in evaluation (e.g., Fetterman, 1996; Kirkpatrick, 1959; Rossi & Freeman, 1993; Stufflebeam, 1987) while others are more pragmatic in their focus (e.g., Combs & Faletta, 2000; Holden & Zimmerman, 2009; Patton, 2008). However, for volunteer managers with myriad professional responsibilities in addition to but including volunteer program evaluation, I suggest the following four fundamental questions that should guide any planned evaluation of a volunteer-based program.

Question 1: Why Do I Need to Evaluate the Volunteer Program?

Not every volunteer program needs to be evaluated. This may at first appear to be a heretical statement coming from the author of a chapter about volunteer program evaluation, and theoretically it is. Pragmatically, however, it is not. Many volunteer programs are short term by design, or are planned to be implemented one-time only. In contrast, some volunteer programs are inherent with the daily operations of a volunteer organization, or are so embedded within the organization's mission that they are invisible to all but organizational staff and administrators. Within these contexts, a volunteer manager must decide whether the evaluation of such a program warrants the required expenditure of time and human and materials resources. Furthermore, one cannot (notice that I did not say, *may* not) evaluate any volunteer program for which there are no measurable program objectives. This aspect of Question 1 brings us again to the previous discussion of volunteer program impacts: What is it that the volunteer program seeks to accomplish within its targeted clientele? What ultimate impact is the volunteers' engagement designed to facilitate or accomplish?

Any and all volunteer program impact evaluations must be based on the measurable program objectives targeted to the program's clientele (Safrit, 2010). Such measurable program objectives are much more detailed than the program's mere goal, and define key aspects of the program's design, operations, and ultimate outcomes. A measurable program objective must include each of the following five critical elements:

1. What is the specific group or who are the specific individuals that the volunteer program is targeted to serve (i.e., the program's clientele)?
2. What specific program activities will be used to interact with the targeted clientele group (i.e., the intervention that involves volunteers)?

3. What specific change is the intervention designed to bring about within the targeted clientele group (i.e., program outcome or impact)?
4. What level of change or success does the program seek to achieve?
5. How will the intervention's success be evaluated?

As an example, too often I encounter the volunteer types of volunteer program objectives:

- "We will recruit at least 50 new teen volunteers to help with the new Prevent Youth Obesity Now Program."
- "At least 100 individuals will participate in the volunteer-delivered Career Fundamentals Program."
- "Organizational volunteers will contribute a minimum of 1,000 total volunteer hours mentoring adults who cannot read and/or write."

Now consider their correctly written measurable program objectives and components:

- "As a result of the teen volunteer staffed Prevent Youth Obesity Now summer day camp, at least 50% of the participating 200 overweight youth will adopt and maintain at least one new proper nutrition practice, as reported by their parents in a six-month follow-up mailed questionnaire." (Target audience: 200 overweight youth. Planned intervention: teen volunteer staffed summer day camp. Desired change among target audience: adoption of at least one new proper nutrition practice. Desired level of success: 50% of participating youth. How success will be evaluated: 6-month post-camp questionnaire mailed to participants' parents.)
- "At least 50% of currently unemployed participants in the six-week Career Fundamentals Program taught by volunteers will be able to describe one new workplace skill they learned as a result of the program, as measured by a volunteer-delivered interview during the final Program session." (Target audience: unemployed individuals. Planned intervention: volunteer taught workshop session. Desired change among target audience: learning new workplace skills. Desired level of success: 50% of participants. How success will be evaluated: exit interview conducted by a volunteer.)
- "At least 30% of the adults participating in the six-week literacy volunteer mentoring program will improve their reading skills by ten percentile points as measured by a standardized reading test administered at the first and final sessions." (Target audience: illiterate adults. Planned intervention: volunteer mentoring program. Desired change among target audience: improved reading skills. Desired level of success: 30% of participants. How success will be evaluated: standardized reading tests.)

A final aspect of Question 1 involves the use of "logic" models in evaluating volunteer programs so called because they seek to outline and follow the logical development and implementation of a program or intervention from its conception through to its targeted long-term impact. Logic models are not new to volunteer programs (Honer, 1982; Safrit & Merrill, 1998, 2005) and apply four standard components to program development and impact evaluation (Bennett & Rockwell, 1994; Frechtling, 2007; W.K. Kellogg Foundation, 2000):

1. *Inputs.* Actual and in-kind resources and contributions devoted to the project
2. *Activities.* All activities and events conducted or undertaken so as to achieve the program's identified goal
3. *Outputs.* Immediate, short term services, events, and products that document the implementation of the project
4. *Outcomes.* The desired long-term changes achieved as a result of the project

Unfortunately, space does not allow for an in-depth discussion of the use of logic models in evaluating volunteer program impacts. However, Exhibit 16.1 illustrates the application of logic modeling in a volunteer-delivered program designed to decrease overweight and/or obesity among teens. Note the strong correlation between the program's measurable program objectives and the Outcomes component for the volunteer program.

EXHIBIT 16.1 Sample Logic Model for a Volunteer Program Focused on Decreasing Teen Obesity

Inputs	Activities	Outputs	Outcomes
$350 in nutrition curricula purchased $750 for use of the day camp facility (in-kind) 10 members of the program advisory committee 12 adult volunteers working with the program	Program coordinator devoted 3 workweeks (120 hours) to planning and implementing the program Three 2-hour meetings conducted of the program advisory committee Three 3-hour volunteer training sessions conducted	At least 30 teens who are clinically obese will participate in the 3-day, 21-hour program At least 10 adult volunteers will serve during the actual day camp Program advisory committee members will volunteer to teach program topics to participants during the day camp	At least 80% of teen participants will increase their knowledge of proper nutrition and/or the importance of exercise along with diet as evaluated using a pre/post-test survey At least 70% of teen participants will demonstrate new skills in preparing healthy snacks and meals as evaluated by direct observation by program volunteers At least 50% of teen participants will aspire to eat more nutritious meals and to exercise daily as indicated by a post-test survey

Source:

Question 2: How Will I Collect the Required Impact Evaluation Data?

Once targeted impacts have been identified for a volunteer program, thus answering Question 1 as to why the program is to be evaluated, a volunteer manager must next decide on actual methods to be used to collect the evaluation data. If measurable program objectives have been developed, then Question 2 is easily answered. However, oftentimes the evaluation component of a measurable program objective is the final one to be decided, simply because the other four components tend to naturally preempt it during the conceptual development of a volunteer program evaluation. Furthermore, data collection methods may largely be defined and/or constrained based on the type of program intervention and/or the numbers and type of target audience (i.e., data collection methods will naturally differ between one-on-one and mass-audience-delivered volunteer programs, adult and youth audiences, etc.).

Basically, two types of data (and thus data collection methods) exist: qualitative and quantitative. Thomas (2003) provides a very fundamental description of both:

> *The simplest way to distinguish between qualitative and quantitative may be to say that qualitative methods involve a researcher describing kinds of characteristics of people and events without comparing events in terms of measurements or amounts. Quantitative methods, on the other hand, focus attention on measurements and amounts (more and less, larger and smaller, often and seldom, similar and different) of the characteristics displayed by the people and events that the researcher studies.* (p. 1)

And, both types of data are important in documenting impact of volunteer programs. According to Safrit (2010):

> *Within non-academic contexts (including volunteer programs), quantitative methods are most commonly used in program evaluations. Quantitative methods allow the evaluator to describe and compare phenomena and observations in numeric terms. Their predominance may largely be due to the increasing demand for "number-based evidence" as accountability within nonprofit programs and organizations. However, qualitative methods may also be used very effectively in volunteer program impact evaluations. Qualitative methods focus upon using words to describe evaluation participants' reactions, beliefs, attitudes, and feelings and are often used to put a "human touch" on impersonal number scores and statistics.* (p. 333)

The discussion is not necessarily qualitative-versus-quantitative; rather, a volunteer manager needs to once again consider critical factors affecting the program's impact evaluation such as the purpose of the evaluation; possible time constraints; human and material (including financial) resources available; to whom the evaluation is targeted; etc.

There is a wide array of qualitative methods available for a volunteer manager to utilize in evaluating impacts of a volunteer program (Bamberger, Rugh, & Mabry, 2006; Dean, 1994; Krueger & Casey, 2000; Miles & Huberman, 1994; Thomas, 2003; Wells, Safrit, Schmiesing, & Villard, 2000), including (but not limited to) case studies, ethnographs, content analysis, participant observation, and experienced narratives. Of these, however, Spaulding (2008) suggested that the case study approach using participant interviews and focus groups to collect data is by far the most common qualitative method used with volunteer programs. Again, space limitations do not allow for an in-depth discussion of these methods. (For a more in-depth discussion of using case studies with volunteer programs, see Safrit, 2010.) However, the author suggests that qualitative methods are most appropriate in evaluating volunteer programs that are targeted to a relatively small group of clientele, for whom a few, focused practice or behavioral skills and/or changes are the desired program impact. Qualitative evaluation methods required considerably more time and human resources to conduct properly, and data should be collected by well-trained individuals who conduct individual interviews and/or focus groups. Qualitative methods are most effective when the desired targeted accountability is focused on personal/human interest and affective/emotional impacts of the volunteer program.

However, when volunteer programs are designed to reach large numbers of targeted clientele and seek to impact their knowledge and/or attitudes, quantitative methods are probably more appropriate for the volunteer program impact evaluation. Unfortunately, in today's society demanding increased accountability, volunteer organizations are called on all too often to reach ever-increasing numbers of targeted clients with stagnant or decreasing resources, and then to dollarize the program's impacts on clients. Quantitative methods are also easier to analyze and summarize, and are best when it is important or necessary to translate measured program impacts into dollar amounts that are required by funders and legitimizers.

Consequently, quantitative evaluation methods are overwhelmingly the most prevalent approach to collecting volunteer program impact data, and the most common quantitative method used are survey designs using questionnaires to collect data. According to Safrit (2010):

> *Translated into volunteer program terms . . . conducting a survey to evaluate [volunteer] program impact involves: identifying the volunteer program of interest; identifying all program clientele who have participated in the program and selecting participants for the evaluation; developing a survey instrument (questionnaire) to collect data; collecting the data; and analyzing the data so as to reach conclusions about program impact.* (pp. 336–337)

When using surveys to evaluate volunteer program impacts, there are important considerations to be made by the volunteer manager regarding participant selection, instrumentation, and data collection and analysis procedures (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2008). Safrit (2010) provides an in-depth discussion of each consideration that space limitations prohibit in this chapter. However, the prevalence today of personal computers, data analysis software programs designed for non-statisticians, "survey-design-for-dummies" type texts, and very affordable do-it-yourself web-based questionnaire companies all make it much easier for a volunteer manager with only a fundamental background in quantitative evaluation methods to plan, design, and conduct a valid and reliable survey design quantitative evaluation of a volunteer program using a face-to-face, mailed, e-mailed, or web-based questionnaire to collect impact data from targeted clientele.

The author must point out that in some situations, neither qualitative nor quantitative methods alone are adequate to collect the type of data necessary to document impacts of large volunteer programs with multiple measurable program objectives targeted to a diverse program clientele. In such situations, the volunteer manager may best decide to use some qualitative approaches together with some quantitative approaches, or rather, a mixed methods approach (Creswell, 1994). According to Safrit (2010):

> *The most common type of mixed method approach to impact evaluations of volunteer programs involves a "two-phase design" in which the evaluator first uses qualitative methods in a first phase to identify and describe key themes describing a volunteer program's impacts upon clientele, and subsequently quantitative methods to be able to quantify and compare the intensity and pervasiveness of the impacts among the clientele.* (p. 340)

Question 3: Who Wants (or Needs) to Know What About the Evaluation Findings?

In response to Question 3, most volunteer managers would quickly answer, "I want everyone to know everything about all of our volunteer programs." However, the stark reality is that different stakeholders will want (and need) to know different aspects of any volunteer program evaluation. Some stakeholders are extremely busy, and only have minimal time to review a volunteer program evaluation report. Others will have a very focused interest in the program, especially if they have contributed materials and/or resources and are therefore most interested in the bottom line. Volunteers themselves, on the other hand, may be less concerned about the financial aspects of the program in which they volunteer, and may be more concerned about exactly what difference they have made in the lives of the clientele they have served.

To help volunteer managers answer this question in an objective and realistic manner, Safrit (2010) developed a program accountability matrix (Exhibit 16.2). In the matrix, specific types of internal and external volunteer program stakeholders are listed in the far left column, and the standard types of evaluation data based on logic modeling (i.e., inputs, activities, outputs, and outcomes) are listed across the top of the matrix. According to the author:

> *To use the Matrix, the [volunteer manager] simply answers the following question for each type of evaluation information, for each type of stakeholder: "If time and resources are limited, does this stakeholder really want to know this type of evaluation information?" If the answer is "yes," then the VRM simply places a mark [X] in the cell where the specific stakeholder and evaluation information intercept; if the answer is "no," then the cell is left empty. The caveat for developing an effective Accountability Matrix is that the [volunteer manager]* must be brutally honest and frank in responding to the question for each stakeholder group and each type of evaluation information*; s/he must recognize and manage the previously described bias that everyone wants to know everything about a specific volunteer program.* (p. 342)

EXHIBIT 16.2 Sample Completed Program Accountability Matrix for a Volunteer Program Focused on Decreasing Teen Obesity

Type of Volunteer Program Stakeholder	**If time and resources are limited, does this stakeholder really want to know specifics about the volunteer program's . . .**			
	Inputs	**Activities**	**Outputs**	**Outcomes**
Internal Stakeholders				
Volunteer Manager	X	X	X	X
Program Director	X	X	X	X
Organization's Executive Director	X			X
Organization's Board of Directors				X
Program Volunteers		X	X	
Other Stakeholder? (Advisory Committee Members)	X			X
External Stakeholders				
Program Clientele			X	X
Program Funders			X	X
Program Collaborators				X
Community Leaders				X
Government Leaders (County Commissioners)			X	X
Other Stakeholders? (County Health Department)			X	X
TOTALS	4	3	7	11

Once the matrix is completed for the specified volunteer program, the volunteer manager simply looks at the column totals for each potential type of evaluation data. Those columns (i.e., data types) with the highest totals should therefore be the priorities for the volunteer manager to focus on in the impact evaluation, especially when time and resources are limited. This targeted approach to volunteer program accountability serves as a very useful tool in not only deciding to whom to communicate impacts at the end of a volunteer-based program, but in also deciding what needs to be evaluated about the volunteer program even before it is initiated.

MONETIZING IMPACTS Once targeted volunteer program impacts have been identified and evaluated, volunteer managers are often faced with a seemingly impossible challenge—converting measured volunteer program impacts into monetary values. Again, this challenge is a fiscal reality encountered ever more frequently today as a result of increased pressure (or demands) from funders, government agencies, and other legitimizers. However, it is made much easier by (1) having measurable program objectives identified for the volunteer program from its inception, (2) the use of logic modeling, and (3) having completed a realistic accountability matrix. And as Key (1994) noted, there may be existing sources of volunteer program benefits other than the impact evaluation's findings:

> *There are numerous potential sources of data for analysis of program benefits: 1. Existing records and statistics kept by the agency, legislative committees, or agency watchdogs . . .; 2. Feedback from the program's clients . . . obtained through a questionnaire or focus group; 3. Ratings by trained observers; 4. Experience of other governments or private or nonprofit organizations; and 5. Special data gathering.* (p. 470)

Furthermore, the idea that volunteer program outputs and outcomes (impacts) can be converted into monetary values is not new, since Karn proposed a system to do so as early as 1982. Most recently, Anderson and Zimmerman (2003) identified five methods that could be used to place a dollar estimate on volunteers' time:

1. Using an average wage of all wage earners in the geographical area served by the volunteer program
2. Using a wage earned by a professional who does paid work comparable to the service contributed by the volunteer
3. Using the standard average dollar value of an hour of a volunteer's time that is calculated and published annually by the Independent Sector (2010)
4. Using the living wage that the United States federal government calculates as that needed for an individual to maintain a standard of living above the current poverty level
5. Using the local or state minimum wage that any employer must pay an employee as dictated by law

Exhibit 16.3 illustrates how the volunteer manager for a volunteer-based teen obesity program calculated estimated dollar amounts for the logic model components of the program.

COMPARING COSTS AND BENEFITS IN VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS Once program inputs, activities, outputs, and outcomes (impacts) have all been translated into dollar amounts, a volunteer manager may take the program's impact evaluation to a final and highest level of accountability by borrowing one or more of three powerful statistics from the field of applied economics: cost savings analysis (CSA), benefit-cost analysis (BCA), and/or return on investment (ROI).

CSA is the estimated dollar value of any potential volunteer program costs that were not required to be spent as a direct result of volunteer involvement in the program. In the teen obesity program example (Exhibit 16.3), volunteers saved the program and sponsoring organization an estimated $8,602. BCA is the calculated estimated ratio comparing the net benefits of the volunteer program to the total costs of conducting the program (Key, 1994; Moore, 1978; Royse et al., 2010). A BCA of 1 (written as 1:1) indicates that the value of the volunteer program's benefits equaled the value of the program's total costs, whereas a BCA of 2 (written as 2:1) indicates that for each $1.00 in program costs, $2.00 were realized in program benefits. For the

EXHIBIT 16.3 Examples of Converting Metrics in a Volunteer Program Focused on Decreasing Teen Obesity into Dollar Amounts

Inputs	Activities	Outputs	Outcomes
\$350 (in nutrition curricula purchased) \$750 (use of the day camp facility; in kind) \$3,600 (total costs of day camp supplies, meals, snacks, equipment, etc.)	\$1,800 (volunteer manager's salary devoted to program; 3 workweeks = 120 hours for planning and implementing the program @ \$15.00/hr. salary rate) \$414 (volunteer manager's work benefits calculated as 23% of salary) \$1,170 (program advisory committee members' time; three 2-hour meetings conducted for 10 members @ \$6.50/hr. minimum wage[1]) \$4,095 (cost of volunteers' time for training; three 3-hour volunteer training sessions for 21 volunteers @ \$6.50/hr. minimum wage[1]) \$1,404 (costs of participating 36 obese teens parents' costs to transport participants to day camp; 2 hrs./day @ 3 days @ 36 parents @ \$6.50/hr. minimum wage[1])	\$2,320.50 (21 adult volunteers contributed 357 total hours during the actual day camp @ \$6.50/hr. minimum wage[1]) \$266.50 (eight program advisory committee members volunteered 41 total hours to teach program topics during the day camp @ \$6.50/hr. minimum wage[1])	84% ($n = 30$) of teen participants increased their knowledge of proper nutrition and/or the importance of exercise along with diet as evaluated using a pre-/posttest survey 75% ($n = 27$) of teen participants demonstrated new skills in preparing healthy snacks and meals as evaluated by direct observation by program volunteers 54% ($n = 19$) of teen participants aspired to eat more nutritious meals and to exercise daily as indicated by a posttest survey
Total Estimated Program Costs		**Total Estimated Program Benefits**	
\$4,700	\$8,883	\$2,587	If, as a result of the program, a mere 10% of obese teens who demonstrated new skills in preparing healthy snacks and meals ($n = 3$) had to make one fewer visit to a doctor each year for the next 5 years, at an average doctors' visit cost of \$120, then the program would have saved a minimum of \$1,800 in medical costs.

(*continued*)

EXHIBIT 16.3 (*Continued*)

Total Estimated Program Costs		Total Estimated Program Benefits	
			If, as a result of the program, a mere 10% of obese teens who aspired to eat more nutritious meals and exercise regularly ($n = 2$) did not develop Type II diabetes, at a cost to society of $2.5 million as estimated by the State Dept. of Health Services, then the program would have saved a minimum of $5.0 million.
$13,583		$5,002,587	
Estimated CSA: $8,602 **Estimated BCA: 368:1** **Estimated ROI: 3,673%**			

[1] *Note:* This $6.50 figure is used by the author for illustrative purposes only. As of July 24, 2009, the official U.S. federal hourly minimum wage was increased to $7.25.

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teen obesity program, the total costs were estimated at $13,583 and total program benefits were estimated at $5,002,587, resulting in an astounding BCA of 368:1; that is, for every $1.00 spent on the obesity program, an estimated $368 was generated in program benefits.

The ultimate impact accountability statistic that a volunteer manager may calculate is ROI for a volunteer program. According to Key (1994), ROI "is the discount rate that would make the present value of the [volunteer] project equal to zero" (p. 461). ROI is the percentage resulting from subtracting a program's total costs from its total benefits, dividing that figure by the total costs, and multiplying that figure by 100 (J. J. Phillips, 2003; P. P. Phillips, 2002; P. P. Phillips & J. J. Phillips, 2005). Thus, in the obesity program example, the ROI is $4,989,004 (i.e., $5,002,587 in total benefits minus $13,583 in total costs) divided by the total costs of $13,583, and finally multiplied by 100, resulting in 3,673%. Thus, for every $1.00 invested in the volunteer delivered program, a net monetary value of $3,673 was generated that benefited the total community.

Question 4: How Do I Communicate the Evaluation Findings?

This fourth and final question may appear to be the easiest to answer, but still requires thoughtful consideration by a volunteer manager. Going back to the discussion of the program accountability matrix, specific volunteer program stakeholders may require very specific types of evaluation findings reports, and unfortunately, one size may not fit all! Some may desire a thorough and comprehensive final report describing the volunteer program in detail and all program impacts measured; others may simply wish to see an executive summary of key program impacts related directly to their program involvement. Hendricks (1994) concluded:

> *If a tree falls in the forest and no one hears it, does it make a sound? If an evaluation report falls on someone's desk and no one reads it, does it make a splash? None whatsoever, yet we evaluators still rely too often on long tomes filled with jargon to "report" our evaluation results.* (p. 549)

Safrit (2010) identified three important aspects regarding the accountability function as related directly to Question 4 for a volunteer manager to consider in deciding how to communicate the findings of a volunteer program impact evaluation to targeted stakeholders. First, the volunteer manager must identify the specific recipient of the communication. This has, of course, been addressed by Question 3. Secondly, the volunteer manager must identify the specific message to be communicated. Again, this has been decided by answering Question 1. Together, both of these aspects have been identified more specifically in the completed program accountability matrix.

The third aspect of accountability, however, if for the volunteer manager to identify the specific format for the evaluation impact report, and the specific medium to be used to communicate the report. The most common format and medium used to communicate the findings of a volunteer program impact evaluation for accountability purposes is a written final report. Typical components of such a final report include an introduction to the volunteer program, a description of the methods used to evaluate the program's impacts, the evaluation findings, and a thorough discussion of the findings' implications for the targeted clientele served, the sponsoring organization, and the larger community (Royse et al., 2010).

However, other written report formats may better serve some targeted stakeholders. Executive summaries are short (i.e., 2 to 4 pages) annotated compilations of information contained in the larger final report, highlighting only the most important aspects of the volunteer program and its evaluation findings of particular interest to the executive summary's targeted audience. Even more concise are impact statements or fact sheets that present impact evaluation data and findings in tabular or visual formats, much like Exhibit 16.3 for the teen obesity program. And finally, in today's multimedia, 24/7 world, the volunteer manager should not overlook opportunities to communicate the impact evaluation findings of a volunteer program in any combination of written and visual formats that may be posted to the organization's web page or streamed onto the Internet. Whatever the reporting format, Patton's (2008, p. 509) recommendations for making the evaluation's accountability report as user-focused and user-friendly as possible should be considered carefully by a volunteer manager:

1. "Be intentional about reporting . . . know the purpose of the report and stay true to that purpose."
2. "Stay user-focused: Focus the report on the priorities of primary intended users."

   These first two recommendations have been addressed previously in this chapter, but they emphasize the importance of a volunteer manager:
   - Identifying specific target stakeholders for a volunteer program evaluation
   - Identifying which aspect of the logic model each stakeholder type will specifically want to know
   - Collecting appropriate data to support that aspect
   - Reporting the findings in a format desired by the stakeholder group
3. "Organize and present the findings so as to facilitate understanding and interpretation."

   This recommendation points to the prior discussion of the need for a volunteer manager to customize the actual report into a format preferred by a specific stakeholder group. Again, one style (and one format) does not fit all stakeholders. Most stakeholders will prefer a written report, but today's technological advances make multimedia options readily available as well.
4. "Avoid surprising primary stakeholders."

   No one likes a surprise, but of course, a positive surprise is more readily accepted than a negative surprise. Begin the accountability report of any volunteer program with the most positive and important impact evaluation findings, and then address "areas for improvement" or "findings of some concern." However, as an evaluator, a volunteer manager has an ethical responsibility to communicate all appropriate evaluation findings, and not to exclude any findings that may make the volunteer manager or program administrator uncomfortable.
5. "Prepare users to engage with and learn from 'negative' findings."

   If necessary, present any negative findings one-on-one with key stakeholders, asking them for their reactions, insights, and/or opinions, before surprising them in a large group, formal session or meeting. Then incorporate this input into the final version of the impact evaluation report.

6. "Distinguish dissemination from use."

   Sharing the findings of a volunteer program impact evaluation with key stakeholders is a critical component of the accountability responsibility of a volunteer manager. However, the goal should be to move stakeholders beyond a mere discussion of what went well and what went wrong, to a higher level of discussion, one that focuses the impact evaluation findings on strengthening the volunteer program in ways and areas that better serve the clientele the program is designed to target—and that better fulfill the organization's mission and purpose.

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His U.S. Navy service (Airman Recruit to Captain) included 32 years of active and inactive duty as a surface warfare officer, public affairs specialist, duty on numerous senior flag staffs, and several tours of duty on the staff of the Secretary of the Navy and the Chief of Naval Operations. His civilian career includes senior management positions with both private and public sector organizations, including serving as chief of staff for a senior member of Congress and as director of Satellite Learning Services for the U.S. Chamber of Commerce in Washington.

Jacksonville University recently named Connors a "Distinguished Dolphin," recognizing the "tremendous impact" these alumni have brought to our community and nation" (Proclamation by Jacksonville Mayor John Peyton, 2 Feb. 2010).

For over 30 years Connors has maintained an unsurpassed publication record in the field of not-for-profit management, a field that he helped advance and define in his break through *Nonprofit Organization Handbook* (McGraw-Hill, 1980). The first and second editions of the *Nonprofit Organization Handbook* compiled in one volume the fundamental management information needed by NPO leaders.

The Nonprofit Management Handbook: Operating Policies and Procedures (John Wiley & Sons, 1993), was the first major handbook in this field to incorporate quality and continuous improvement principles and best practices for nonprofits. The second edition of *The Nonprofit Handbook: Management* (John Wiley & Sons, 1997) adapted national quality criteria for nonprofits, establishing the means for nonprofit organizations to measure performance against national standards. The second edition introduced the excellence equation for self-renewing organizations—the first such measure for public service, not-for-profit organizations. The third edition of *The Nonprofit Handbook: Management* (John Wiley & Sons, 2003) profiled the change-directed values of the Self-Renewing Organization (SRO), able to achieve and sustain excellence by understanding and exploiting the dynamic, interdependent relationship between effectiveness, efficiency, and organizational environment. The third edition adapted the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Award criteria for the SRO, providing guidelines by which nonprofit organizations can measure performance (excellence) against national standards.

The 1995 Wiley edition of *The Volunteer Management Handbook* was the first management handbook in the field of volunteer resource management. This second edition, Connors's eighth major nonprofit management handbook, represents a far more comprehensive design that includes the entire business model of volunteer resource management. Since publication of *The Nonprofit Organization Handbook* in 1980 to the present, the largest, most comprehensive management handbooks in print for nonprofit organizations have been those he prepared. He is also the author of two military histories of the Korean War.

Connors has designed and taught NPO management in higher education for over 30 years; most recently, he designed and taught a graduate/undergraduate course—Volunteer Management for Nonprofit Organizations—at the University of Florida.

"Strategic Professional Development Ahead for Volunteer Resource Managers" is the title of his latest professional journal article published in April 2010 (*International Journal of Volunteer Administration*, *27*[1]).

The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

About the Contributors

Kimberly Allen, PhD, North Carolina State University

Dr. Allen is an assistant professor and Extension Specialist at North Carolina State University where she teaches six courses in child, youth and family development and holds leadership on several statewide youth and family extension programs. Dr. Allen has over 12 years experience working with youth and their families as an early childhood educator, marriage and family therapist, parent educator, administrator, and faculty member. During her tenure, Dr. Allen has led numerous research projects that focused on curriculum and program development for underserved audiences and has presented invited lectures on the topics of adolescent sexuality, parenting for school success and relationship education at national conferences across the county. Dr. Allen serves on the executive board of the Southeast Council on Family Relations and provides leadership to the Healthy Relationship and Marriage Education project. Dr. Allen's Extension work at NCSU focuses on child and youth development, adolescent health, parenting, and relationship education.

Erin L. Barnhart, PhD Candidate, Effective Altruism, LLC

Ms. Barnhart has developed and delivered effective engagement tools, training, and resources for volunteers, volunteer resource managers, and organizations worldwide. The former Director of Volunteerism Initiatives for Idealist.org, she now serves as Principal/Founder of Effective Altruism, LLC and Managing Director of the Building Bridges Coalition (a consortium of individuals and organizations working collaboratively to promote and facilitate international volunteering). She also serves as Chair of the National Organizations Volunteerism Network (NOVN) and on the Editorial Board for the International Journal of Volunteer Administration (IJOVA), the Board of Directors for Volunteer Positive, and the Oregon Committee on Volunteerism. Ms. Barnhart is also an adjunct professor at both the University of Oregon and Portland State University. An AmeriCorps*NCCC alum, she holds an MPA and a Graduate Certificate in Not-for-Profit Management. She is also a doctoral candidate at Portland State University where she is completing her dissertation on international volunteer engagement.

Denise Sevick Bortree, PhD, Pennsylvania State University

Dr. Bortree is a Page Legacy Scholar and Senior Research Fellow, Arthur W. Page Center for Integrity in Public Communication at Pennsylvania State University, where she teaches public relations in the College of Communication. Her research interests include nonprofit communication, volunteerism, and environmental communication.

Jeffrey L. Brudney, PhD, Cleveland State University

Dr. Brudney is the Albert A. Levin Chair of Urban Studies and Public Service at Cleveland State University's Maxine Goodman Levin College of Urban Affairs. Dr. Brudney has published widely in public administration, the nonprofit sector, and volunteerism. He is the author of *Fostering Volunteer Programs in the Public Sector: Planning, Initiating, and Managing Voluntary Activities* (Jossey-Bass, 1990), for which he received the John Grenzebach Award for Outstanding Research in Philanthropy for Education. He is the co-author of *Applied Statistics for Public and Nonprofit Administration* (Thompson-Wadsworth, 2011), now in its eighth edition, which has been used for instruction in more than 120 colleges and universities. He edited the book *Emerging Areas of Volunteering*, which was distributed to all members of the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA).

Dr. Brudney has received several awards from major research associations in business administration, public administration, nonprofit and volunteer administration, and political science for mentoring, service, and scholarship. The Urban Institute calls him "the foremost research expert on volunteer management programs and community volunteer centers in the United States." In 2004, Dr. Brudney received the Harriet Naylor Distinguished Member Service Award from the Association for Volunteer Administration for "outstanding contribution to the Association through advocacy, research, publication, and/or program development and management." He has advised the Points of Light Foundation, the Corporation for National and Community Service, and other organizations. Dr. Brudney was one of two lead researchers on the first nationally representative study ever undertaken on the status, practices, and prospects of volunteer management in the United States, which culminated in the report, *Volunteer Management Capacity in America's Charities and Congregations* (Urban Institute).

Ginny Burns, CVA, Big Bend Hospice

Ginny Burns is the Volunteer Department Manager at Big Bend Hospice in Tallahassee, Florida where she has worked with volunteers for more than 10 years. With a team of five other volunteer coordinators, she oversees the service of 500 hospice volunteers in an eight-county area. In 2006 she earned the Certified in Volunteer Administration (CVA) credential and was named Volunteer Manager of the Year in Tallahassee. She has been a presenter of the Volunteer Management Training Series, a six-week course in Tallahassee, since 2006. Ginny has been a member of Big Bend Directors of Volunteers Association (DOVA) since 1996, served as secretary on the 2007 Executive Board, and is currently serving as co-president.

Debra C. Burrows, PhD, The Pennsylvania State University

Dr. Burrows is responsible for the design, development, and implementation of the Pennsylvania State University, College of Agricultural Sciences statewide volunteer and member information system for Cooperative Extension. She is a former member of the faculty at Lock Haven University, where she prepared undergraduate students to serve as volunteer adult literacy tutors and coordinated the Literacy Corps program. She is also a former director of the West Branch Technology Center where she led information system design projects for the Pennsylvania Department of Education, Bureau of Adult Basic and Literacy Education. Dr. Burrows has more than 20 years of experience with volunteer programs in both a professional capacity and as a volunteer herself.

Julie Anne Cross, PhD, Stratagem, Inc.

Dr. Cross is a performance strategist. For more than twenty years she has trained and coached leaders, managers, and teams in business, government, and nonprofit organizations, focusing on strategies for engaged performance. As the Impact Program Director for Stratagem, Inc., she consults with social entrepreneurs in leading volunteer performance management through Jumpstart-up, Inc.—Stratagem's nonprofit seed philanthropy affiliate focused on social enterprise development. As a board member of the World Trade Center, Atlanta, she advises in the strategic development of volunteer performance management.

With her PhD in training and performance improvement, Dr. Cross has focused development research on validated leadership and management competencies with change management. Hundreds have used her behavior profile, the Personal Impact Prism, to enhance their performance. Her evidence-based research has resulted in the Impact Wheel, a new model for leading performance management based on MBA competencies integrated with a process for driving effective change.

Harriett C. Edwards, EdD, North Carolina State University

Dr. Edwards is an assistant professor and Extension Specialist, Continuing Volunteer Education, in the Department of 4-H Youth Development and Family & Consumer Sciences at North Carolina State University, where she teaches graduate courses in volunteer development and management, provides leadership for volunteer engagement in a statewide system that annually engages more than 25,000 youth and adult volunteers, and serves as the state's 4-H military liaison. She is actively involved as a board member of the Association of Leaders in Volunteer Engagement (AL!VE), the NCSU Academy of Outstanding Faculty in Extension and Engagement, the International Journal of Volunteer Administration (IJOVA), and the North Carolina Association of Volunteer Administration (NCAVA). With more than 15 years of volunteer administration experience, Dr. Edwards has presented at numerous international, national, regional, and state conferences and events.

Justin Farinelli, BS, Second Lieutenant U.S. Army

Justin Farinelli is a Second Lieutenant in the United States Army and a Distinguished Military Graduate of the Army Officer Candidate School. Prior to his military service Mr. Farinelli was a Master Level Personal Trainer (NASM-CPT) and Team Leader at Gainesville Health & Fitness (Gainesville, Florida). Mr. Farinelli received his B.S. in business management, with honors, from Salisbury University in 2007. In addition to his involvement at Gainesville Health & Fitness, Mr. Farinelli served as an investigator in Dr. Martin Heesacker's Life Satisfaction and Excellence Lab at the University of Florida (UF). He also volunteered his time at the Alachua County Crisis Center as a crisis interventionist, responding to crisis phone calls as well as offering immediate response counseling services.

Lori Gotlieb, The Arthritis Society, Ontario Region

Ms. Gotlieb is a community and corporate volunteer resource specialist who has worked in the field of volunteer administration for over 15 years. Her experience includes managing volunteer programs and special events in a variety of sectors, including multi-service agencies, addictions, special needs, and homeless shelters. Lori has developed and taught to professionals and volunteers at the local, provincial, and international level and works in both volunteer management and special events, as well as with individuals and corporate/community groups. Ms. Gotlieb is currently working at The Arthritis Society, Ontario Region and is the Founder of Lori Gotlieb Consulting.

Ms. Gotlieb is the past president of the Toronto Association of Volunteer Administration, a content editor for the *International Journal of Volunteer Management*, and member and past chair of the Advisory Committee at Humber College, Fundamentals of Volunteer Management and the Enriched courses. She has been published both provincially and internationally in both print and electronic media and continues to focus her attention on developing strong leaders in volunteer management through her training and writing. She is also a founding member and past president of Alli's Journey, a foundation to raise funds for young people with cancer.

Linda Graff, BA, BSW, MA, Linda Graff And Associates, Inc.

Ms. Graff has been in the business of nonprofit management since 1980. She served as the executive director of the Volunteer Center in Hamilton, Canada, for nearly 10 years, and established her highly successful consulting company, Linda Graff And Associates Inc. in 1989. She has delivered workshops and keynote addresses over more than thirty years to tens of thousands of participants throughout North America, the United Kingdom, Europe, Asia, New Zealand, and Australia. This in-demand trainer is celebrated for her humorous, no-nonsense style that continuously pushes the conceptualization of volunteerism from merely a labor force to a vital component of human generosity and connectedness.

Ms. Graff has always focused on emerging trends and advanced topics in volunteerism and volunteer program management. She is a world-renowned specialist in the areas of policy development, risk management, screening, and futures forecasting, internationally acknowledged and awarded for her innovative thinking and large-picture vision. She has produced more than a dozen books and audio and video resources, and countless manuals and articles in the field of volunteer program management, including international best sellers on policy development (*By Definition*, 1997), screening employees and volunteers for positions of trust (*Beyond Police Checks,* 1999), risk management *(Better Safe . . . , 2003)* and her widely acclaimed compilation of best practices in volunteer program management *(Best of All . . . , 2005).*

Ms. Graff earned her degrees from McMaster University. She now concentrates on risk management consulting, helping nonprofit organizations and public systems identify and control risks and liabilities in volunteer involvement and service delivery.

Amy M. Harder, PhD, University of Florida

Dr. Harder has been a faculty member in the Department of Agricultural Education at the University of Florida since 2007. She has taught undergraduate and graduate courses related to extension education, including an online course in the development of volunteer leaders. Additionally, she focuses on programming and mentor development in her work as an extension specialist for UF/IFAS Extension. Prior to joining the University of Florida, Dr. Harder gained valuable experience working with a large volunteer group in her role as the 4-H youth development, leader development, and outreach agent for Colorado State University Extension in Boulder County, CO.

Martin Heesacker, PhD, University of Florida

Dr. Heesacker is a professor of psychology and director of the accredited doctoral training program in counseling psychology at the University of Florida (UF). He earned his PhD in 1983 from the University of Missouri. He has served as chair of UF's Department of Psychology, chair of the Association of Heads of Departments of Psychology, treasurer and executive board member of the Council of Graduate Departments of Psychology, and executive board member of the American Psychological Association's (APA's) Commission on Accreditation. Dr. Heesacker has been a faculty member in the Psychology Departments of Southern Illinois University, Carbondale and the Ohio State University.

Dr. Heesacker has been an editorial board member for the two major journals in counseling psychology. He has authored or co-authored 94 scholarly publications, 115 scholarly conference presentations, 36 of which were invited, and has supervised or co-supervised 25 doctoral dissertations. Dr. Heesacker received the Early Career Award in Counseling Psychology from the APA and a J. William Fulbright Scholarship to the Netherlands. He was elected to membership in Sigma Xi, The

Scientific Research Society, and to the Society of Experimental Social Psychology. He has been named a fellow in the Counseling Psychology and the Men and Masculinity Divisions of the APA. Dr. Heesacker has received a Davis Productivity Award from Florida TaxWatch, an Eli Lilly Foundation Teaching Fellowship, and two UF teaching awards. He received the Teacher of the Year award and later, the Outstanding Service Award from Psi Chi, UF's psychology honor society, as well as the Distinguished Faculty Award from the University of Florida's Blue Key Society. Most recently, he received a UF College of Liberal Arts and Sciences Teaching Award and was nominated for membership in UF's Academy of Teaching Scholars.

Brian P. Higley, PhD, The Building Blocks, LLC and the University of North Florida

Dr. Higley, recognized as a leader in the area of positive and permanent change, brings a unique mix of business, research, and psychological expertise to his leadership of Excellence Tree, LLC. He is a graduate of the University of Florida with a PhD in counseling psychology and Baldwin-Wallace College with a BS in psychology. While at the University of Florida, Dr. Higley received the Ted Landsman Award, for his excellence in the promotion of and research on human growth and development. While pursuing his degrees, Dr. Higley started two companies, helped to coordinate an online education program, managed a research team focused on improving healthcare outcomes, and co-founded a research team focused on assisting individuals and teams with team excellence, personal effectiveness, and job and life satisfaction. He has also received advanced training in leadership, management, negotiations, multi-theoretical approaches to personal and group change, and research methods.

Dr. Higley's corporate clients range from Fortune 500 companies to small, family-owned businesses within a wide range of industries including: accounting, advertising, banking and finance, business consulting, health and fitness, insurance, landscaping, law enforcement, manufacturing, mental health, service providers, and utilities. On an individual level, Dr. Higley has provided executive consultation for attorneys, business and team leaders, educators, entrepreneurs, hospitality service managers, and psychologists.

Dr. Higley has been recognized for his research and writing in interpersonal expertise (involving communication and team building), mission connection (involving strategic planning and execution), and self-mastery (involving motivation and self-management). His current work includes a focus on developing training experiences and online tools that result in long-term, meaningful change in organizations, teams, families, and individuals.

Stephen Hobbs, EdD, WELLth Learning Network

Dr. Hobbs is the creator and master navigator for the WELLth Learning Network. His graduated work experience lists senior manager in nonprofit and public organizations as well as CEO/CVO of three entrepreneurial companies. He currently serves as an author and infopreneur, corporate instructor and guide, university facilitator and mentor, and national and international thought-note speaker. His practice focuses on manager-leader excellence, organizational culture, and organization mapping. Also, he shares what he learns with participants at The Banff Centre (Leadership Development) and PhD Education learners (in Training & Performance Improvement) at Capella University. His many books, eBooks, articles, and social media platforms are available through his online company WELLthLearning.com.

Kristin Callazzo Hodgson, CAE, Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute

Ms. Hodgson is the director of member and customer services for the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute in Wayne, Pennsylvania. She has worked with nonprofit associations for almost 20 years and brings a variety of experience from managing at the local and national level. She has held senior management positions in associations and foundations managing and growing membership, marketing, chapters and volunteers, programs, and development efforts. As a Certified Association Executive (CAE) of the American Society of Association Executives (ASAE), she is a member and volunteer leader and has presented to the association management profession. Hodgson has served as a board member for Delaware Valley Society of Association Executives (now MASAE), and volunteers with ASAE on several committees including the ASAE Resource Writers Pool and Associations Now Cover Copy Panel. She is an active member of ASAE, MASAE, and has spoken locally and nationally on innovative membership and volunteer management strategies. She received a Bachelor of Arts from Washington College in Maryland.

Mary Kay Hood, MS, Hendricks Regional Health

Ms. Hood has been involved in volunteer management over twenty years within the zoo and health care field. She completed her BS degree in biology at Marian College, and a Master of Science in Management at Indiana Wesleyan University. She completed the Management of Volunteer Programs course offered at University of Indianapolis, as well as the Indiana Hospital and Health Association's Management Institute offered by the Executive Education Program, School of Public and Environmental Affairs at Indiana University. Hood served on the Nonprofit Training Center of United Way from 1993 to 2006, teaching many workshops and facilitating speaker arrangements for the Basic Volunteer Management series. She has presented at various national and international conferences. Hood served as president of the Central Indiana Association for Volunteer Administration (CIAVA) from 1993 to 1997 and the Indiana Society of Directors of Volunteer Services (ISDVS) from 2006 to 2008. She was also the recipient of the 1995 Outstanding Director of Volunteer Services Award and the 2002 United Way of Central Indiana Volunteer of the Year Award. With several published articles, she is also author of two books titled *The One Minute Answer to Volunteer Management Questions* (Underwater, 2002) and *The Volunteer Leader as Change Agent.*

Timothy Leonard Koehnen, PhD, University of Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro

Dr. Koehnen is an associate professor with *Agregação* at the University of Trás-os-Montes e Alto Douro School of Social and Human Sciences in Vila Real, Portugal, and has served as director and vice-director of Instruction for four years at the school, while also serving for eight years as the head of the undergraduate degree in management within the Department of Economics, Sociology and Management. During this period, he was a member of the steering committee for the International Master's Degree in Management of Rural Development. Koehnen teaches at the graduate and undergraduate levels in such courses as Economics, Society and Development, Management of Human Resources, Organizational Behavior, Cultural Management, Management of Local Development, and Local Development Organizations. As a research associate in the Centre for Transdisciplinary Development Study, the lines of his research include training and non-formal education, organizational culture and behavior, community volunteer organizations, and inter-organizational relations and communication.

Koehnen served as a volunteer in Peace Corps Brazil at a technical agricultural school and participated in a Special Olympics in Patos de Minas after he completed his undergraduate degree at the University of Minnesota. He received his Master's and PhD at the University of Illinois. As a father of seven, Koehnen assists his wife with the logistical support surrounding the extracurricular activities for his children while recognizing the good work of numerous community volunteers in religious, sports, cultural, and Cub Scout activities.

Muthusami Kumaran, PhD, University of Florida

Dr. Kumaran is Assistant Professor of Nonprofit Management and Community Organizations in the Department of Family, Youth & Community Sciences, University of Florida. His areas of teaching and research interest include: various aspects of nonprofit management, NGOs, and community development. Prior to his academic career, Dr. Kumaran worked for a nonprofit organization and a state government agency. He has served on the boards of various small, medium and large nonprofit organizations. He has published articles, book chapters and presented numerous research papers related to the nonprofit sector and NGOs.

Marilyn K. Lesmeister, PhD, Oregon State University

Dr. Lesmeister is an Assistant Professor at Oregon State University in the College of Health and Human Sciences. She provides leadership for volunteer development and civic engagement for the OSU Extension 4-H Youth Development Program. Areas of focus for her research, consulting, and educational have included volunteer development, risk management, youth/adult partnerships, decision-making boards and committees, youth philanthropy, and leadership development. She has applied adult learning principles in session at local, national and international levels. Dr. Lesmeister has enjoyed working with volunteers of all ages in Oregon, Florida, North Dakota and Wisconsin land grant university programs.

Nancy Macduff, MACE, Macduff/Bunt Associates

Nancy Macduff is an internationally recognized trainer, consultant, and author on volunteer management and administration. She served 14 years as executive director of a nonprofit agency and nine years as the coordinator of a government volunteer program. Nancy is currently the President of Macduff/Bunt Associates, a training and consulting firm, in Walla Walla, WA. She is also on the faculty at the Institute for Nonprofit Management, School of Public Administration at Portland State University teaching courses in the management of volunteer programs at the basic and advanced level. She also serves on the faculty of Spring Arbor University, in Spring Arbor, MI.

She is the author of nine books on volunteer management, chapters on various aspects of volunteer administration in three different college textbooks, and numerous juried journal and magazine articles on volunteerism. Nancy is senior editor and publisher of the free online newsletter, "Volunteer Today," www.volunteertoday.com. Nancy maintains a Twitter site for insights into managing volunteers, http://twitter.com/nlmacduff

Milena Meneghetti, MSc, CHRP, Registered Psychologist, Family Psychology Centre

Meneghetti is a therapist, life coach, and published author who has a private practice in Calgary, AB, Canada at the Family Psychology Centre. She is the author of *What Motivates People to Volunteer?* (1995), *Ethics and Values in the Non-profit Organization* (John Wiley & Sons, 1998 and 2000 editions), *Using Multi-source Feedback to Improve Performance* (1999), and the co-author of *Volunteer Staffing and Development in Volunteer Administration: Professional Practice* (Lexis Nexis, 2010), required reading for candidates seeking professional registration as volunteer managers.

Meneghetti has an MSc. in Applied Psychology from the University of Calgary, and is a registered provisional psychologist. She is also a Certified Human Resources Professional, and a member of the International and Calgary Coaching Associations. She sits on the Parent Advisory Committee to Family Support for Children with Disabilities (FSCD). She is a past chair of Professional Development and co-chair of Ethics of the Human Resources Institute of Alberta, and a past board chair and board member of the Calgary Red Cross Society.

Her Master's thesis resulted in the first-ever Canadian description of what it is like to be coached: *Managerial and Executive Coaching: A Phenomenological Inquiry of the Experience of Being Coached* (2007). The current chapter stems from this work.

As a therapist, Meneghetti's private practice focuses on helping patients with living their best life and fulfilling their personal potential.

Brian J. Mistler, PhD, Hobart and William Smith Colleges

Dr. Mistler is a business consultant, licensed psychologist, and coordinator of research at Hobart and William Smith Colleges' Center for Counseling and Student Wellness in upstate New York. Mistler received his PhD in counseling psychology from the University of Florida and masters in conflict resolution as a rotary scholar at the University of Bradford (U.K.). Mistler has published dozens of both scholarly and popular articles and serves on the executive board of the Association for the Advancement of Gestalt Therapy and the journal *Gestalt!*, and is active in the American Psychological Association and National Association of Student Personnel Administrators.

Meg Moore, MBA, University of Texas at Austin

Ms. Moore is an entrepreneur with a focus on nonprofit organizational strategy. She serves as a principal with Austin Strategic Planning and is currently pursuing a PhD from the School of Social Work at the University of Texas at Austin, examining the relationships between funders and the nonprofit organizations they support. Moore received her MBA from the McCombs School of Business at the University of Texas at Austin.

Throughout her career, she has balanced an interest in social benefit with a passion for rapidly evolving organizations. After graduating from Harvard-Radcliffe College, she began her career at Trilogy Software in Austin, where she caught start-up fever. Moore has co-founded four firms, and has advised several others through both the start-up and acquisition processes.

Moore has nineteen years of experience in the nonprofit sector. A published author, her work is used in executive education programs at the University of Texas to teach effective volunteer management. She is a current board member of Open Door Preschool and several advisory councils. She serves as a guest lecturer on board service and volunteer management at the University of Texas at Austin.

Tamara G. Nezhina, PhD, DePaul University

Dr. Nezhina has been doing research and publishing on volunteerism in the United States and abroad since 2004. Her studies on volunteer management and the institutionalization of NGOs in Kazakhstan have added to the body of knowledge on volunteerism and the effectiveness of NGOs internationally. Her other research interests are in the area of accountability and financial oversight in nonprofit organizations.

Joanna Pappas, Faith Ventures Investment Corporation

Joanna Pappas is vice president of Faith Ventures Investment Corporation and serves on the board of directors. She is a 2011 candidate for the University of Florida's Master of Arts in International Business and was awarded a Bachelor's of Science in Family, Youth and Community Sciences and a minor in International Development and Humanitarian Assistance in 2010. She previously attended Auburn University on a volleyball scholarship where she was the starting setter for two years.

Elizabeth Power, MEd, EPower & Associates, Inc.

The author is a Nashville, TN – based consultant whose firm helps clients learn, grow, and change. Her firm, EPower & Associates, Inc. provides services in evidence-informed adult learning, performance, and process improvement. In the nonprofit arena, she provides program replication services and technical support for implementing trauma-informed care and helping organizations develop trauma-informed responses. Her firm hosts the site www.traumainformedresponse.com, and is one of two organizations authorized to present Sidran Institute's flagship program in trauma-informed care, Risking Connection. EPower & Associates' presents this from the perspective of "lived experience" to audiences in multiple sectors. She is a graduate of Peabody School of Education at Vanderbilt University, and a frequently-sought-after speaker. Her firm has provided services in the field of trauma-informed care to a multi-year NIMH research grant, a SAMHSA Transformation to Trauma-Informed Care, and agencies serving child, adults, families, and communities. Power is the author of "How to Get Happier and Why You Should Try To" (2009) and "If Change Is All There Is, Choice is All You've Got" (1994).

Dale W. Pracht, PhD, University of Florida

Dr. Pracht has been a faculty member in the department of Family, Youth and Community Sciences at the University of Florida since 2007. He teaches undergraduate and graduate courses related to nonprofits and community-based youth organizations and works as a State 4-H Extension Specialist, community based organizational systems for community-based organizations. Dr. Pracht has worked with the Cooperative Extension Service for over 6 years as Assistant Professor for the University of Florida, assistant 4-H youth specialist for Kansas State University, and 4-H youth agent for Cowley County, Kansas. Dr. Pracht's focus areas include nonprofit and community based leadership, professional development, risk management, and volunteer administration. He provides content knowledge and curriculum development and training for Florida 4-H in the areas of leadership, citizenship, and service-learning. Dr. Pracht provides statewide leadership on the Organizational Strategies Focus Team and is the military liaison for the Military Club Project for Florida and Air Force Installations in Europe. He serves on the Board of Directors for the International FarmHouse Fraternity and serves as the research and evaluation chair for NAE4-HA and the Publication Board for The Journal of Youth Development. He has received the Achievement in Service Award for Outstanding Contributions to 4-H by the National Association of Extension 4-H Agents. Dr. Pracht has presented workshops, seminars and trainings for international, national, state, and local clientele.

Joan E. Pynes, PhD, University of South Florida

Dr. Pynes is a professor of Public Administration and Director of the Graduate Certificate in Nonprofit Management at the University of South Florida. She is the author of *Human Resources Management for Public and Nonprofit Organizations: A Strategic*

Approach (3rd edition) published in 2009 by Jossey-Bass, Inc. She is also the author of *Effective Nonprofit Management: Context and Environment* (M. E. Sharpe, 2011), as well as the author of numerous publications on public and nonprofit management.

Sarah Jane Rehnborg, CAVS, PhD, University of Texas

Dr. Rehnborg is a lecturer at the University of Texas' LBJ School of Public Affairs and serves as the associate director for planning and development for the University's RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service. Rehnborg teaches graduate level course work in volunteer administration, nonprofit board governance and other topics pertaining to the nonprofit sector. An active researcher, Rehnborg developed a statistically valid and reliable assessment tool examining volunteer and national service involvement; investigated the impact of service-immersion programs on identity development; created performance outcome measures for nonprofit organizations; explored capacity building issues; examined organizational support for volunteer initiatives; and other topics germane to community engagement and the nonprofit sector. A published author in the field, Rehnborg has contributed to both the scholarly and practical literature in the field.

Rehnborg is an experienced practitioner having initiated a volunteer services and community education program in a health care facility, and she served as resident of the Association for Volunteer Administration. An active consultant and trainer, Rehnborg's clients include the Points of Light Foundation, HandsOn Network, the Comptroller's Office of the State of Texas, Leadership Network and numerous state, local and national organizations. Rehnborg pioneered the Performance-Based Certification System in Volunteer Administration and is an active faculty member for the RGK Center's Executive Education programs. Rehnborg received her undergraduate degree from Denison University and her Masters and PhD from the University of Pittsburgh.

Pamela Rose, PhD, Oregon State University

Dr. Rose is an associate professor in the College of Health and Human Sciences at Oregon State University. She serves in a split position for the Oregon State University Extension Service, providing statewide leadership for the Oregon 4-H Family and Consumer Science & Expressive Arts programs and serving as the lead 4-H youth development educator for Marion County 4-H in Salem, Oregon. Her research and programmatic interests include positive youth development, youth engagement, volunteer leadership, and the professional/leadership development of youth development professionals. She has presented workshops and seminars on these topics at multiple state, regional, and national conferences. Dr. Rose has also taught undergraduate courses in positive youth development and leadership development at Oregon State University.

R. Dale Safrit, EdD, North Carolina State University

Professor Safrit is the director of graduate programs, and Extension specialist in the Department of 4-H Youth Development and Family & Consumer Sciences at North

Carolina State University, where he coordinates the Master's program in Family Life and Youth Development, provides leadership to staff development for 4-H Extension field faculty, and teaches graduate courses in youth development leadership. His applied research focuses upon continuing professional development for nonprofit staff and working with community youth development programs. He currently serves as the editor of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration*, and is co-author of the book, *Developing Programs in Adult Education: A Conceptual Programming Model* (2002, Waveland Press, Inc.) as well as author or co-author of more than 85 peer-reviewed articles in scholarly and professional journals. He has presented invited sessions at 12 International Conferences on Volunteerism, as well as in 41 of the 50 United States, four Canadian provinces, and 14 other countries.

Anne B. Schink, CVA, Consultant in Volunteer Management

Ms. Schink is a consultant to nonprofit organizations, public entities, and faith-based organizations providing training in volunteer management and services in large group facilitation and meeting management.

From 1995 to 2009, Anne was the program/training/disability officer at the Maine Commission for Community Service. During that time she worked directly with AmeriCorps program directors, staff, and members to strengthen programs through training and technical assistance. She organized conferences, training events, and small meetings. Anne also provided professional coaching support to program directors and staff on grants management, program design, goals, objectives, and evaluation. She supported programs to recruit, retain, and include individuals with disabilities in all parts of the AmeriCorps programs.

In 2007 Anne received the CVA designation from the Council on Certification in Volunteer Administration. For the past ten years she has served on the InforME Board which supports the State of Maine's development of state of the art e-government and e-commerce web-based services through www.maine.gov.

Anne previously worked as a large group facilitator in public policy, worked in a public policy consulting firm and real estate sales, and ran for the state legislature. Anne has been a volunteer leader through the League of Women Voters, serving ten years on the State Board of the League of Women Voters of Pennsylvania, the last four as state president. She served six years on the Board of Planned Parenthood of Southeastern Pennsylvania, chairing nominating, planning, and advocacy committees. For more than 25 years Anne has continued her work as a volunteer in a variety of local nonprofit organizations.

Ryan Schmiesing, PhD, Ohio Community Service Council

Dr. Schmiesing is the director of programs for the Ohio Community Service Council. In this role, he works collaboratively with community-based organizations to identify and support national service and volunteer programs to strengthen individuals, families, and communities. For thirteen years, Dr. Schmiesing worked for the Cooperative Extension Service on the county, state, and national level with his primary focus being on volunteer and program risk management, volunteer administration, and organizational management. Previously, he served as an assistant professor at The Ohio State University with his research and scholarly interests focusing on effective risk management strategies for youth organizations and volunteer administration competencies for Extension professionals and other nonprofit organizations. He has presented workshops and seminars on these and related topics across the United States and abroad. Dr. Schmiesing currently serves as the associate editor for the International Journal of Volunteer Administration.

Keith Seel, PhD, CVA, Mount Royal University

Dr. Seel is the director of the Institute for Nonprofit Studies at Mount Royal University. Through the Institute, Seel is engaged with other researchers in three broad research streams focused on Canada's nonprofit sector: governance of the sector, policy development and analysis, and sustainability issues.

Dr. Seel has been associated with the profession of volunteer administration since 1993 and has held board positions with the Association for Directors of Volunteer Resources and the Association for Volunteer Administration. He has been a volunteer board member for 30 years largely in the human services field. Currently he holds appointments to two provincial boards in Alberta focused on education and children.

Dr. Seel serves as Chair of the National Human Resources Council for the Nonprofit Sector which examines labor force issues particular to the nonprofit sector in Canada.

As an author, Dr. Seel has been widely published in books and journals. He co-authored the AVA *Statement of Ethics*. For John Wiley & Sons, he has also written on ethics and its impact on management, and the risks and opportunities associated with commercial ventures by nonprofit organizations, governance issues for boards of directors, and sustainable development for the charitable sector.

Judith A. M. Smith, DM, HandsOn Jacksonville, Inc.

Dr. Smith is the president and chief executive officer of HandsOn Jacksonville, Inc. A retired naval Commander, Dr. Smith serves on the board of directors for the Points of Light Institute, and has served as the president of the Florida Association of Volunteer Centers, now Florida Association of Volunteer Management. Her doctor of management degree is in organizational leadership, and she has served as adjunct faculty of the Graduate Business and Management School of the University of Phoenix. Dr. Smith has delivered workshops, seminars, conference presentations, and consulting sessions specific to nonprofit sector leadership, management, and governance for over 15 years.

Nicole LaMee Perez Stedman, PhD, University of Florida

Dr. Stedman is an associate professor of leadership in the Department of Agricultural Education and Communication at the University of Florida. Prior to appointment at UF, she spent four years as an assistant professor of leadership at Texas A&M

University. She obtained a BS in family, youth and community sciences, and an MS and PhD in agricultural education and communication from UF with a specialization in leadership development. Her doctoral research focused on the leadership of volunteers in the Cooperative Extension Service's 4-H Program area. She has taught Volunteer Leadership as a course at the undergraduate level. Her current position includes coordinating the university-wide leadership, minor leadership, and instructing courses at the undergraduate and graduate levels.

Bryan Terry, PhD, University of Florida

Dr. Terry is an assistant professor in the Department of Family, Youth and Community Sciences at the University of Florida. He serves as the state specialist in volunteer systems for 70 University of Florida faculty members in each of Florida's 67 counties and provides leadership to more than 16,000 volunteers involved in the Florida 4-H program. Additionally, he holds a research appointment and teaches Human Resource Management for Nonprofits for graduate and undergraduate students in the department.

Dr. Terry is a graduate of the University of Florida with a PhD in Extension Administration with a focus on organizational management. He has been recognized for his research and outreach programs. His current research focuses on the motivation and satisfaction of volunteers involved with the Florida 4-H program. Dr. Terry has authored and coauthored many scholarly articles and presented his research findings at numerous conferences.

Lawrence Ullian, EdD, CVA, Muskie School of Public Service, University of Southern Maine

Dr. Ullian is a senior research associate at the University of Southern Maine's Muskie School of Public Service, Cutler Institute for Health and Social Policy. He is currently a curriculum developer for face-to-face, online, and blended professional development programs aimed at human care, human services, and health care professionals. He has also led projects in the areas of public welfare, patient navigation, and public sector customer service. Dr. Ullian's academic preparations in adult education (EdD, Indiana University), public health (MS, University of Massachusetts) and psychology (BS, Boston State College), have resulted in an eclectic career that has also included training director positions in acute care and chronic care facilities, a consulting business, and researcher in continuing medical education. His experience and accomplishments in the field were recognized with the Certificate of Volunteer Administration (CVA) from the Council on Certification in Volunteer Administration.

Barbara K. Wentworth, MS, United Way of York County (Maine)

Ms. Wentworth serves as director of community impact at United Way of York County (Maine), a position to which she brings a rich work history that includes experience as a facilitator, trainer, researcher, grant writer, editor, executive director and supervisor of paid and volunteer staff. Her background includes many years developing and managing successful volunteer programs at a variety of nonprofits in the county, establishing a countywide volunteer center and building a peer-to-peer network for volunteer resource professionals.

In her current capacity with United Way of York County, Ms. Wentworth oversees the organization's community building and impact work, convening and facilitating stakeholders around issues of community concern, staffing the philanthropic community investment process and overseeing community-based work in the areas of early childhood and youth financial literacy.

A published author and trainer, Ms. Wentworth has written and presented on a range of topics including volunteer and nonprofit management, civic leadership and outcome measurement. Currently she serves as an editorial reviewer for the *International Journal of Volunteer Administration* and as a commissioner on the Maine Commission for Community Service. Ms. Wentworth holds a Bachelor's degree in sociology/social welfare and a Master's in management/organization development.

Cheryle N. Yallen, MS, CNY Enterprises

Ms. Yallen is president of CNY Enterprises, and an international trainer/consultant, bringing over twenty-five years of social service experience to the consulting field. This experience includes working with nonprofit organizations as a consultant, executive director, board member, and volunteer. An active member of the social service community, she currently consults with numerous organizations in addition to being the executive director of a private foundation. A current practitioner as well as consultant, she brings up-to-date solutions to today's challenges.

As a trainer, Ms. Yallen has conducted retreats and workshops on a wide range of topics including organizational development, volunteer management, fundraising, board development and strategic planning, to name a few. She is also a published author. Ms. Yallen holds a Bachelor's degree in psychology and a Master's in marketing communications. Ms. Yallen and CNY Enterprises advance nonprofit strategies for organizational success.

The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

About the Website

The companion website, new to this second edition, includes eighteen additional chapters as listed in the Table of Contents and the chapter outline at the end of the Preface.

Please visit www.wiley.com/go/volhandbook and enter “handbook2” to download the additional chapters.

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PART IV

Applied Management Practice

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DIGITAL K

Mission Fulfillment (Even During Challenging Times)*

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The purpose of this chapter is to focus on cutting-edge practices, tools and technologies for optimizing the performance of those whose labors directly benefit the mission of a nonprofit organization (NPO), volunteers and employees alike. The focus of this chapter is on (a) computer-based systems for tracking the degree to which and the frequency with which people achieve previously developed goals that are important to the mission and objectives of any particular NPO and (b) an overview of mission fulfillment best practices based on behavioral science.

*Parts of this chapter have been adapted from Brian Higley and Brian Mistler's 2008 "Mission Activation Article," [retrieved from www.excellencetree.com/journal/82/second-draft-mission-activation-article] Drs. Higley and Mistler had business interests in Excellence Tree at the time of submission. Mr. Farinelli was primarily responsible for the review that informs the section that compares the six computer-based management products.

The approach we have taken in this chapter is, first, to report the results of our survey of computer technology products that track goal achievement and are currently available on the market, and second, to focus in detail on science-based missions fulfillment best practices that we have developed as part of our work together. We believe this approach will give readers both the breadth of coverage of the available computer technologies they may desire as well as the level of detail they desire regarding science-based best practices.

Product Comparisons

As we mentioned, there are now several achievement-enhancing, computer-based tools available to nonprofit managers. What we report next are the results of our survey of all these products currently available on the market. The information has been gathered to offer a concise compilation of products available for pursuing mission activation. The products were gathered by entering keywords "goal," "success," "planner," "mission," "achievement," and "excellence" in a Google Internet search. We believe nonprofit managers and their staff members, when browsing for mission activation tools on the web, would typically use these keywords. Only one product that we identified through this process was eliminated from consideration. That was SuccessPro (www.actifi.com/). We eliminated it because it is described as a specialized tool for the financial industry and because its website provided no pricing or purchasing information. The challenges of obtaining this software, coupled with the fact that only a small subset of Handbook readers are likely to be involved with nonprofit financial institutions, argued against inclusion of SuccessPro.

To provide as comprehensive a report as possible, each product is introduced, using text retrieved from its website. Later, these products will be compared side-by-side on 11 relevant attributes. This information is offered for initial educational purposes only, and readers are encouraged to contact these companies directly as well as to do their own search to obtain the most up-to-date and accurate information possible. Company names and proprietary terms are used herein under fair-use policies for accurate reference only, and all copyright, trademark, service mark, and other rights remain the property of their respective owners. It should also be stated that the authors have not had the opportunity to test the products.

Achieve Planner

www.goalstoaction.com/

Achieve Planner is a productivity and goal achievement software system that helps you identify, set, plan, organize, track, and achieve your dreams and goals.

- Manage all your projects and tasks.
- Discover your mission, vision, and values for each life area.
- Set priorities so you can focus on what's most important.
- Define, organize, and manage your dreams and goals.

- Use weekly and daily planning to get your projects done.
- Break goals into smaller steps and create powerful action plans.
- Use metrics to track/view your progress with graphical reports.

Excellence Tree

http://excellencetree.com/

At the outset it should be stated clearly that all of the authors of this chapter are directly connected to and involved in Excellence Tree and not involved with any of the other reviewed products. Excellence Tree is a robust set of assessment, tracking, and training tools completely designed to help teams and organizations to execute their strategic plans. Based on over 10 years of experience and research, these tools help leaders achieve their professional goals via powerful mechanisms of:

- Developing "execution-friendly" plans—plans that are likely to get accomplished at a high level of quality
- Tracking how well all team members achieve their most important goals
- Quickly identifying team-wide and individual barriers to consistent goal achievement
- Developing effective solutions to goal-achievement barriers and efficiently implementing these solutions on a team-wide basis

Goal Pro 7.0

www.success.net/

Main features:

- Goal Categories
  - Categorize your goals by placing them under predefined or custom categories.
- Support Structure
  - Reduce larger goals down to a series of support goals to simplify achievement.
- Action Process
  - Guarantee action that leads to the achievement of your goals by scheduling one-time or recurring tasks. Perform the tasks and achieve your goals.
- Performance Tracking
  - Track results using performance-tracking tasks. Use performance-tracking tasks to keep track of number of cold calls made, weight loss, exercise, income and much, much more.
- Goal Images
  - Attach images to your goals to increase the visual impact.
- GoalPro Reports
  - Review your goals and maintain focus with GoalPro reports.
- GoalPro Graphs
  - Monitor your overall progress with GoalPro performance graphs.
- Daily Journal
  - Document your efforts with GoalPro's built-in daily journal.

Goal Tribe

www.goaltribe.com/

How it works:

1. Plan Your Goal
   Get step-by-step support to define your goal, action plan, timeline and motivation.
2. Get Allies
   Invite friends, people with similar goals, or life coaches to support you.
3. Get To-Do Lists by E-mail
   Never forget your plan! (Later widgets, social network apps and mobile may be added.)
4. Complete Actions and Build Your Score
   Make goal-achievement fun and motivational by turning it into a game!
5. Allies See Your Score and Support You!
   Your allies always see how well you're doing so they can send you congratulations or hold you accountable.
6. Stuck? Get Step-by-Step Help!
   Hit a setback? No problem! Feel the power of expert guidance, proven strategies and social support! (In development)

MyGoalManager.com

www.mygoalmanager.com/

MyGoalManager.com uses new innovative planning and organization tools along with the best of breed functionality found in Goal Tracking Software, Project Management Systems, Organization Practices, and Scheduling Tools.

It perfectly complements your mobile phone and e-mail to give you everything you need to be your most organized and productive. The system helps you implement best practices and, organizational and productivity techniques by using only the most efficient of today's tools.

The Magic Hundred

www.themagichundred.com/

The Magic Hundred product contains:

- A130-page workbook that will guide you step by step through the entire goal-setting to goal-getting process, insuring that no stone is left unturned in your journey towards success
- A Free 30 day trial of The Magic Hundred software program (designed and owned by a student of the Magic Hundred who loved it so much he designed the software to go with it) allowing you to list, grade, and track each of your Magic Hundred goals, monitor your daily action tasks, store motivational images and much, much more
- Twelve mp3 audio lessons that you can listen to whenever you want to and wherever you are to keep the principles at the top of your mind

- Teleseminars to explore greater depth and answer your questions about how to get more from the program
- A specially written e-mail message every single day for 100 days to help keep you on track and focused on achieving everything you set out to achieve.

Product Comparisons

What follows is a table that compares each of the six just-reviewed computer-based systems on an array of 11 attributes that we thought would be especially important to managers of nonprofit organizations. Ten of the 11 attributes are objective indicators. The remaining attribute, "Ease of Use," represents the authors' impression of the relative ability of a typical product user to navigate its functions successfully. However, this judgment was formed primarily from the products' marketing materials available to the authors at the time of preparation.

	Ease of Use[1]	Goal Achievement Tracking[2]	Accessibility[3]	Synchronizability[4]	Associate Account Interaction[5]	Authoritative User[6]	Alerts and Reminders[7]	Tutorials[8]	Cost[9]	Calendar[10]	PerformanceMetrics[11]
Achieve Planner	M	√		√			√	√	O	√	√
Excellence Tree	H	√	√		√	√	√	√	S		√
Goal Pro 7.0	H	√					√	√	O	√	
Goal Tribe	H	√	√		√†		√	√	F		√
MyGoalManager.com	M	√	√	√	√		√		S	√	√
The Magic Hundred	M	√						√	S		

Notes. †Sharing with all users, not limited to associates.

[1]Ease of Use—Rating (*H*igh, *M*edium, *L*ow) of how easily the average person is able to access and use the system as well as the availability of technical support.

[2]Goal Achievement Tracking—Does the system allow the user to record the completion of determined goals?

[3]Accessibility—Is the system accessible on several different computers?

[4]Synchronizability—Does the system allow its user to synchronize data with a third party application (such as Microsoft Outlook)?

[5]Associate Account Interaction — Does the system allow its user to view an associate's progress?

[6]Authoritative User—Does the system allow for a group of associated accounts to designate an authoritative user to perform administrative functions?

[7]Alerts and Reminders—Does the system provide alerts or reminders such as to-do lists or task deadline notifications?

[8]Tutorials—Are tutorials offered to aid in effective objective and goal development and task evolution?

[9]Cost—"S" Subscription-based use. "O" One-time fee. "F" Free use.

[10]Calendar—Does the system organize goal deadlines on a calendar?

[11]Performance Metrics—Does the system provide objective, performance-driven data?

Observations Regarding Computer-Based Management Systems

Inherent in computer-based systems are a couple of accessibility barriers. The first barrier is the need for a computer to access the system. Many allow for access on multiple computers through a web-based medium in an attempt to overcome this. Here, the time-tested paper planner has an advantage over its technology-driven successors in its ability to be accessed at anytime and anywhere it can be carried to. Secondly, the requirement to install, learn, and independently operate a mission activation system parallel to existing task-orientated systems presents another potential barrier to success for its users. Only two of the reviewed mission activation systems have the ability to synchronize with third party applications. This ability to synchronize with third party applications may reduce the pains of implementation and may encourage sustained use of the system.

Mission Fulfillment Best Practices Based on Behavioral Science

We will now shift the focus to a discussion of science-based best practices developed to help NPOs and other organizations overcome what we call "The Execution Crisis" by promoting what we call "mission activation." We will begin with our observations of what is happening with many teams and organizations across the nation and the world and the huge cost of this crisis to individuals, leaders, teams, and their missions.

The Execution Crisis

Many organizations, teams and individuals work very hard to develop mission and vision statements—yet almost everyone we speak with believes that they often do not seem to "live" these statements extremely well. Each year, a lot of valuable time and energy go into developing mission statements that will quickly be forgotten or ignored in the often frantic day-to-day activities that follow. In addition—here is the kicker—*most people know that they will not fulfill their mission statements even as they spend valuable time developing them*! Yet we continue to develop mission statements (both personal and professional) even as we recognize deep down that most of them will not be fulfilled very well. What is going on here—and how can we stop wasting valuable time, energy and money, developing statements that we know will not be fulfilled?

Motivation and Mission Statements

The first step is to find the underlying cause of the motivation for creating mission statements. This requires also discovering why the motivation for mission creation rarely translates into "mission fulfillment." Numerous scientific studies show that motivation is often associated with being aware of the rewards of doing something or the costs of failing to do it. The rewards of completing a mission statement are obvious and immediate; developing these statements represents a great way to become enthused over what team members would like to do in the future.

What is sometimes not as apparent (until it is too late) is the often-huge price of failing to live that mission statement. From wasted money and time to decreased morale and increased cynicism, the effects of being out of alignment with the team's missions are far-reaching. For example, many believe that today's economic situation is just one (major) example of the result of this misalignment. How can we stop wasting so many precious resources on unfulfilled mission statements? After years of research and countless conversations with colleagues, clients, and other experts in the field, we believe we may have come to a very important answer to this critical question. The reason why so many mission statements often wind up wasting valuable resources is that most missions are not "activated."

What is Mission Activation?

An activated mission statement (or vision/values statement, for that matter) is a statement that has been broken down into the key components that help ensure that day-to-day activity will be aligned with the statement—even during frantic and uncertain times (which are inevitable from time to time, as most people are well aware). Our experience and research over the past decade have revealed some very simple and powerful steps that people can take in order to ensure that their mission statements will stay activated throughout the entire year. We have personally seen these steps help teams and individuals of all kinds become strongly aligned with their missions—with powerful, long-lasting, incredibly fulfilling results.

How Can You Activate Your Nonprofit's Mission?

Below we list the six steps we find are needed to activate a mission. As we were identifying these components, we realized that activating a mission is a process, very similar to the process of growing a strong, solid, flexible tree. So, we came up with the term "Excellence Tree" to help get these steps across. A well-maintained Excellence Tree results in a strongly activated mission. Along with the mission activation steps listed next, we include thoughts on how each step is related to growing an Excellence Tree.

1. **"Check The Soil": Assess current levels of (and potential for) mission activation.** In order to activate a mission, it is often helpful first to get a sense of how many of the mission activation components listed below are working for (or against) teams and individuals. There are many ways to assess the soil, some more valid than others. We've found that the best way to assess current mission activation potential is by having team members take part in a confidential Execution Excellence Audit, shown next.

Execution Excellence Audit

Instructions

The following form will help you assess the Execution Excellence levels within your organization, team or group. Please fill out all 7 items as accurately as possible, remembering that "bad" or "painful" scores are actually significant opportunities for you to improve satisfaction, performance and efficiency.

1. IMPEDING PROGRESS: Estimate *approximately* what percent of the time projects are significantly delayed or completed below your personal standards because of poor execution of plans:

   Never 10% 25% 50% 75% 75%+

2. STOPPING PROGRESS COMPLETELY: Estimate *approximately* the percent of time that plans or visions are ***not implemented at all*** because of lack of execution:

   Never 10% 25% 50% 75% 75%+

3. WHERE PROBLEMS OCCUR: Estimate *approximately* what percent of the time execution problems usually occur ***within the following areas:***
   Leadership (in charge of strategy development)

   Never 10% 25% 50% 75% 75%+

   Management (in charge of organizing others to execute strategy)

   Never 10% 25% 50% 75% 75%+

   Employees (in charge of executing strategy)

   Never 10% 25% 50% 75% 75%+

   External Partners

   Never 10% 25% 50% 75% 75%+

   Outside Vendors
   Never 10% 25% 50% 75% 75%+

4. NUMBER OF PEOPLE: Estimate *approximately* ***how many people are involved in the execution problems*** referred to in Item #3: ________

5. MAJOR CAUSES OF PROBLEMS: Which factors are ***most frequently linked with execution problems*** (check all that apply)?

- ☐ Unplanned for "emergencies"
- ☐ Time availability for necessary activities
- ☐ Consistent clarity of expectations
- ☐ Cooperation/communication
- ☐ Motivation/morale
- ☐ Lack of accountability

- ☐ Political problems
- ☐ Other problem (please specify)

6. PROBLEM SUMMARY: Please review questions 1–5 above, then answer the following question: ***How serious is the negative impact resulting from poor execution*** of plans? (Check the most accurate response.)

- ☐ Devastating
- ☐ Quite serious
- ☐ An area of concern
- ☐ Somewhat serious
- ☐ Not at all serious

7. COST OF EXECUTION-RELATED PROBLEMS: Taking all of your answers into account, please do your best to ***estimate the total annual cost of execution problems*** (in the form of lost productivity, efficiency, and/or profit). Please estimate the answer to as many of these items as you can.

Percent of overall budget: ________%
Person hours/year: ________
Dollars/year: ________

IMPORTANT SUGGESTION: When you have completed this exercise, you may wish to copy your answers and keep them handy for future reference.

2. **"Plant Your Tree": Strongly align daily activity with the mission in clear ways.** Consistent clarification of the most important initiatives, strategies or visions related to the mission (what we at our firm call "primary objectives") is another strong step toward mission activation. Because it can be so easy to get confused about what to do during frenzied times (which are more and more frequent nowadays), mission activation demands that this clarification happen on a regular basis throughout the entire year. In fact, we've found that regular clarification and prioritization is a strong antidote to frenzied times—the more clear everyone is about how they can contribute to their missions in the most important ways, the less frenzied they are!

   It has been our experience that the planting of an Excellence Tree consists of four important phases. When these phases are properly addressed, the Excellence Tree has been firmly planted in the soil—in the form of specific goals and objectives that are "rooted" in the mission:

   - Identification of clear, "mission-aligned" primary objectives
   - Prioritization of these primary objectives
   - Creation and prioritization of "objective-aligned" SMART Goals
   - Distribution of these prioritized SMART Goals to the "right people"

   Living a mission statement requires an activated mission. Excellence Trees were designed to promote mission activation. Here are the four phases of

Mission Activation Step 2: "Planting an Excellence Tree"—the second step to consider when attempting to actually live a Mission Statement:

A. ***Identification of clear, "mission-aligned" primary objectives*** is the first phase of Planting the Tree. In order to see more mission activation, everyone needs to know (and agree to a certain extent) that objectives such as "Increase financial profits by 10% this quarter" or "Promote a culture of excellence and satisfaction throughout the team," or "Recruit and train the best people," etc. are the most important ways in which to spend time, money, and energy. An important effect of primary objective clarification is that clearly prioritized objectives often play a key role in helping teams stay motivated to live their mission. If people know why they are being asked to do something ("because it helps us accomplish primary objective #1—and because primary objective #1 helps the mission along in this way"), they tend to have a stronger commitment to doing what they are asked to do at a high level of quality. At our firm we call this process "mission connection," getting ourselves and others strongly connected with our mission by being able to answer all "why should I do this" questions with "because it helps our mission stay activated—and here's how . . . "
B. ***Prioritization of these primary objectives*** is another critical phase in the planting of an Excellence Tree. After identifying primary objectives, the following questions often need to be answered: "Which is the most important objective?" and "Which is the least important one—the objective that we can expect to spend less time on so we can concentrate on the most important one more?" These are tough questions to answer—we know from experience how easy it can be to say "ALL of them are equally important. Let's focus on all of them!" However, we have learned (the hard way) that failing to prioritize communicates to everyone that nothing is a priority, and this is a great way to "drown the Tree" in a tide of frenzied activity, quickly killing mission activation. If no one is very clear about what is most important, people are forced to simply guess what to do now and what to place on the back-burner when time or energy is short—or, even worse, burn themselves out pursuing goals that are not as important as other, more strongly aligned goals. This guesswork can lead to teams spending time and energy in places that are not as critical to the team's mission; clearly prioritized primary objectives can help teams to avoid this tremendously wasteful guessing game.
C. ***Creation and prioritization of "objective-aligned" SMART Goals*** to help teams to track primary objective progress in clear, measurable, consistent ways is the next phase in the Planting process. To avoid frenzied mindsets (and the often huge amounts of wasted time, energy, and money that are associated with them), we have found that it is critical to create and prioritize SMART Goals: Specific, Measurable, Agreed-upon, Realistic, Time-bound goals, which clarify the path toward fulfilling primary objectives. We have found three important issues related to this phase of planting a mission-aligned Excellence Tree:
   1. Addressing this phase in a quality way is an extremely powerful mechanism of clarifying the path toward mission activation.

2. Many people "know" about the power of SMART Goals, but rarely "do" SMART Goal development.
3. Many skip doing this because they are not fully aware of the truly devastating impact of failing to address this critical aspect of mission activation.

   Our team has found that failure to address this phase in a quality way is the number one reason why missions are so often left unactivated. If a mission seems as though it is not activated, odds are that a major part of the problem lies within this phase.

D. ***Distribution of these SMART Goals to the "right people"*** is the last phase involved in the Planting of an Excellence Tree. Who are the right people to give SMART Goals to? Is it best to give them to the smartest people, the most passionate people, the people with the most impressive titles? Our answer is simple, but powerful: Give SMART Goals to team members who are most likely to achieve these goals in quality ways. This probably sounds like common sense to most, but this is not common practice, in our experience!

   The high-performance teams that we have encountered know the value of giving specific SMART Goals to the right people as often as possible (regardless of titles, degrees, passion, etc.); people who are truly able to achieve their goals at a high level of quality on a regular basis on (or before) deadline. Jim Collins, in his classic book *Good to Great*, identifies "3 Circles" of greatness: Passion, Excellence, and Need. We often talk about distributing SMART Goals in a "3 Circle Way" based on how passionate someone is about achieving the goal, how much excellence (training and aptitude) a person has to achieve it, and how well aligned the goal is with the Mission (or the "Need" for the goal in relation to the mission). We have found that teams that do not pay attention to distributing their goals in ways that keep people within their 3 Circles as much as possible including tracking how well these goals are achieved to validate the 3 Circle nature of each goal tend to struggle with mission activation.

3. **"Identify & Pull Weeds": Identify barriers to mission activation and quickly create "SMART Solutions" to overcome them.** Weeds often grow near plants and can serve to compromise the growth of that plant by stealing nutrients from it. Similarly, barriers to SMART Goal achievement inevitably emerge after a team "plants" it goals. After developing and distributing mission-aligned SMART Goals to the right people, it is essential to quickly identify and address these barriers regularly and efficiently—before they steal too much time, energy, and money (three "nutrients" that are essential to Mission Activation). "SMART Solutions" are SMART Goals that help overcome barriers to achieving their originally-planted SMART Goals. SMART Solutions allow leaders to quickly pull Mission-strangling weeds rather than waiting until the end of the quarter—or, even worse, the year—to do so. Failure to identify these barriers and to develop and track SMART Solutions can quickly deactivate a Mission by draining valuable resources from the organization's Excellence Tree.
4. **"Prune Your Tree": Break mission-deactivating silos by tracking (and rewarding) consensus and cooperation.** The first three steps above usually help team members begin working toward a more activated mission on an individual level. However, team members also often depend on others to help them

complete many of their SMART Goals in quality ways. Unfortunately, "silos" often appear on the path to mission activation—individuals or groups that, for a variety of reasons, actually work against each other. An activated mission demands that these silos be consistently identified and broken down. We've found that there are three critical steps in the process of silo-busting:

1. Coming to a common definition of "quality"
2. Implementing processes that increase the probability that people will work together to deliver quality on a consistent basis
3. Consistently (not just a few times) clarifying how everyone benefits from others' successes

All of these steps help to "prune" silos from the organization's Excellence Tree. On the other hand, one of the best ways to actually strengthen silos is to encourage the belief that others' success is not in another's best interests—and many, many reward systems are set up to promote this silo-strengthening belief. This can lead to some very dark times on the journey toward mission activation, which brings us to our next component.

5. **"Provide Adequate Sunlight": Implement a mission activation-friendly reward system (a system that truly increases and maintains mission-aligned activity).** After working hard to align a team with its mission statement, we have found that all of this time and effort can go to waste without a consistently effective reward system. Effectively rewarding mission activation is an absolute must in high performance teams—both to encourage success and to retain talented and effective employees. To do this well, we believe it is necessary to return to the original (and so often misinterpreted) definition of a "reward": something that actually increases desired behaviors after it is given out. In today's world, too many "reward systems" are not living up to that definition!

   In fact, many reward systems actually reward behaviors that we would least like to see: low motivation, finger-pointing, confusion, frenzied activity, etc. How do we know these reward systems do this? The simple answer is because these behaviors are so common. We tell people all the time that one can tell what one's system rewards by watching what behaviors occur most frequently. Identifying and implementing effective rewards that are customized to influence every individual's behavior powerfully and on a regular basis is necessary for mission activation. We have found that when leaders are not seeing the mission-aligned behaviors that they desire in their team members, an ineffective reward system is often a major reason for this.
6. **"Create Gardeners": Train others to help plant the tree, pull weeds, prune, and provide their own sunlight to the Excellence Tree throughout the entire year.** Most people we know say that they have some people in their lives who seem "lazy" or "unmotivated"—no matter what they try to do to motivate them. Although it seems true that some people are simply not interested in mission activation, we've found that this all-to-common problem can more often be explained by the fact that so many people have never been trained in the art of personal effectiveness. Personally effective people are much more likely to be able to contribute to a mission in powerful and meaningful ways. We've found that training focused on the following skill sets often helps individuals to take accountability for their own mission activation levels:

1. ***Self-Mastery.*** The ability to strongly influence one's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors (including staying focused on what is most important, motivating oneself, and creating the time needed to get things done in quality ways).
2. ***Interpersonal Expertise.*** The ability to create uplifting, energizing relations with others (including communicating effectively with others, negotiating in win-win ways, and resolving conflict quickly and effectively).
3. ***Mission Connection.*** The ability to identify one's areas of passion and excellence and use these areas to positively impact mission activation (in themselves and others).

What is the Impact of an Activated Mission?

Mission activation takes time, energy, and attention—so why would busy people even want to consider doing this hard work (especially during these particularly tough times)? The short answer is that we have seen mission activation drastically change people's organizations and lives (including our own) in tremendously positive ways! On the other hand, we have all seen (and felt) the incredibly negative effects of organizations and individuals that do not live their mission statements. In fact, as we mentioned earlier, many believe that these tough times can at least partially be described as a culmination of many unactivated missions.

On the other hand, it has been our experience that the organizations, teams, and individuals who commit to mission activation not only achieve their objectives in more high-quality ways, they also report feeling better about their lives as a whole. Another interesting effect of mission activation: Many people associated with teams and individuals that have activated their mission statements tend to want stay with them for long periods of time. People decline incentives like larger paychecks to continue to experience mission-aligned cultures (what we sometimes refer to as a "Culture of Sanity") in a world that can sometimes seem very frenzied, unfair and cynical (and often very scary). Finally, mission activation also helps more people "get it," as our colleague John Spence (author of the organizational excellence book *Awesomely Simple*) says – or, truly to understand what it takes to be successful and fulfilled over the long haul.

What is the Cost of not Activating a Mission?

Very often, a nonactivated mission statement results in what we call "Frenzied Leadership," leadership (including self-leadership) that often creates confusion and anxiety. Nonactivated missions have other ramifications beyond Frenzied Leadership—including cynicism about the mission statement and the organization, team or individual that developed it.

If Mission Activation is so Great and the Costs of Not Activating are so High, Why are so Few Missions Actually Activated?

This is a great question—and one that is constantly on our minds as we interact with people each week who are pursuing their personal and professional goals. This question interested one of the authors (Brian Higley) so much that it was actually the topic of both his master's thesis and doctoral dissertation. What the research shows is that the difference between those who did things that they knew were good for them and those who simply "wished" they did these things came down to the five critical factors, which this chapter will discuss next.

Moving from Wishing to Doing: Five Keys to Activating Missions

Though it is often said that people fall into two categories, "wishers" and "doers," people are often surprised to hear our response, which is that this is almost always *un*true! That may seem counterintuitive at first, but one of the authors (Brian Higley) has conducted research on this topic and found some very interesting results, results that might be helpful to managing non-profit organizations and managing oneself.

The Excellence Tree team spent approximately two years researching the difference between wishing and doing. During our investigation, it became apparent that no one is either a doer or a wisher. During the course of almost every day, all people do some things they want to do and they also spend some time simply wishing they could do other things. Even if it is only eating when hungry or using the restroom when necessary, everyone does something on a regular basis. On the other hand, we did not encounter one person who did not have something that he or she wished had been done more often. Some wished they were more efficient at work or that they were better at engaging in leadership, and others wished they exercised more or spent more time with loved ones.

It quickly became apparent that, because people all do *and* wish from time to time, the trick is not to become a "doer." Instead, it may make more sense to (a) identify the factors that influence individuals to do the things they want to do more often, then (b) help people become more skilled at putting these factors to work for them (and others in their lives) on a daily basis. At the end of our two year-long study, we feel as though we were able to shed some light on how to do this. Below, we list five factors that strongly differentiate between wishing and doing, along with brief explanations:

1. **Perception of enough time to do what people wish to do.** People tend to attempt to do only what they believe they have time to do—and find all kinds of ways to avoid what they do not think they will have time to do. Ironically, many people report that they often find between 20 and 40 hours every week that they could have used to do more of what they wanted to do. Clearly, *perception* of time availability is not always *reality*. People normally have much more time to do what they wish, but only if they are willing to stop doing certain things that they really do not want to do as much! Doing fewer less important things increases people's perception of how much time they have. Doing levels go up as people's perception of how much time they have increases.
2. **Motivation to do what people wish to do.** Wishing without doing is often associated with an inability to perceive powerful pay-offs for doing certain things on a consistent basis. When individuals are trained in the art of internalizing more of their motivation, they often find themselves actually doing many more things than they used to only wish they could do. This is because internal motivation is the only kind of motivation that is completely under one's own control. If people depend completely on outside influences to motivate them, their doing is under the control of these sources. This often leaves people in a state of "wishing" that someone else would come to motivate them to "do" more.

If people are struggling to complete a goal or goals on time or at high levels of quality, it is worthwhile to think about how strongly related these goals are to one's most meaningful objectives in life. If they are not strongly related to outcomes the person truly values, it may be useful to think about methods of decreasing the frequency (e.g., do it monthly instead of weekly), decrease intensity (e.g., do it at half the effort) or increase goal duration (e.g., make the deadline later). Alternatively, people may wish to delegate or delete the goal completely. Can someone else execute this goal? Can one survive without pursuing the goal at all?

Once one has determined that the goal is worth pursuing, it might be useful to consider information regarding motivation. Drs. Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (1985) have found a link between intrinsic motivation and three factors: perceived competence, autonomy, and relatedness. The more one has of these three factors, the more likely one is to feel motivated to do something and do it regularly.

Here are some practical suggestions for increasing competence, autonomy and relatedness in relation to goals one has determined to be worth pursuing:

Competence. Set goals in a way that is challenging, yet not overwhelming. If one becomes overwhelmed, setting smaller goals may help a person experience more competence. When goals are too easy, people should modify them to become larger or more challenging. For example, if finishing one large task feels like it is too much, one may wish to modify the goal so that one finishes one tenth of the task each day until it is completed.

Autonomy. People should give themselves as many choices as possible. If one is feeling overly restricted to certain goals, one should goal-set in ways that provide more freedom. For example, if the goal is to run five miles every week, one can increase autonomy by broadening the goal to include running, biking or swimming every week. That change creates a choice, and thus greater autonomy, regarding one's weekly fitness goal.

Relatedness. People may wish to surround themselves with people who support pursuit of their goals. If one's goals connect a person to important others in his or her life, one is more likely to feel the motivation necessary to achieve them. People may wish to seek out others who will support their goals and/or who will pursue that goal, too. For example, to become a better leader, one may wish to recruit a group of people who are likely to be supportive in this endeavor.

3. **Accessibility to necessary materials and training.** Wishing differs from doing in the amount of access people have to relevant information and materials. Wishers have less access and doers have more. People who become more skilled at *attaining* these relevant informational and material resources become doers, whereas those who only wish they had them or wish someone else would provide them tend to remain wishers.

   People who perceive that they lack sufficient accessibility may wish to think about how to set the goal in a way that is sensitive to the resources one currently has available and/or set a goal to make access easier. For example, the goal "Complete an important project" could be broken down to "Place project-related materials close to my desk" and "Read one chapter a week on how to complete this project in high quality ways." This way, one will have more access to materials and information related to one's goals, making them more achievable.

4. **Enjoyment of the process (not just the outcome) of doing what we wish to do.** Doing is linked with a certain level of *enjoyment* of getting things done on the path to achievement. Wishing is associated with dreading having to do these things (and wishing that someone else already did them). Many people are surprised to find out that enjoyment is often more under their control than they realize. Most activities can be enjoyed more by putting enjoyment-enhancing mechanisms into play. For example, Dr. Mihaly Csikszentmihalyi's book *Flow: The Psychology of Optimal Experience* (1991) is an excellent resource for some ideas on how to enjoy activities more. There are many ways to increase enjoyment; different things work for different people.

   If enjoyment is lacking for any desired activity, one can do many things to increase enjoyment, including:

   - Dividing large goals into smaller ones
   - Listening to enjoyable music while pursuing goals
   - Pursuing goals in more enjoyable environments
   - Asking enjoyable others to pursue goals with you
   - Changing routines

   For example, the goal "Complete an important project" could be modified for enjoyment in this way: "Work on this important project for one hour a day in the park with my good friend John. If John is unavailable, listen to my favorite music while working." The more enjoyable components one adds to pursuing a goal, the more likely it is one will experience high-quality achievement and increased life satisfaction in general (which is a very nice additional perk).

5. **Social support for consistently doing what we wish to do.** The more one is encouraged by the important people in one's life to do what one wishes, the more people do. On the other hand, people tend to wish more and do less if important others are not supportive of one's doing. A key is to become aware of (a) the different types of social support, (b) how to recruit consistently one's favorite kinds of social support into one's life, while (c) minimizing time with those who do not provide favored types of social support.

   Increasing the amount of effective social support (and/or decreasing the amount of ineffective social support) experienced in relation to those goals involves a process normally consisting of two steps:

   - **Identifying which sorts of support that one wants for different sorts of goals** (and what sort of social interaction is unwanted as well). There are many types of social support, including actual physical/financial assistance, specific advice, emotional support and a feeling of being involved in a common mission with others.
   - **Asking people for the specific kinds of support that one wants for specific goals** (and to avoid social interactions that drain energy, which one could use for achievement). It may be helpful to ask for specific advice for one goal, emotional support for another and ask others to participate directly in another goal. On the other hand, it may be helpful to ask others to avoid doing so with other goals (and to minimize time with people who do not honor one's social support requests).

   For example, the goal "Complete an important project" can be modified for increased effective social support such as this: "Ask John for advice on how to complete my project, then complete the project using the portions of his advice that I deem helpful." Alternatively (if John regularly gives advice that is not helpful or that is energy draining in some way) one might set a Social Support goal such as this: "Work on my project weekly in an area where I am not likely to be interrupted."

The more effective types of social support utilized (and the more unhelpful social interactions are minimized), the more likely it is one will experience high-quality achievement (and in some cases, strengthened relationships with others).

Closing Thoughts on Mission Activation, Wishing and Doing

We have observed some stunning results associated with mission activation—from increased productivity and enhanced morale to decreased anxiety and lower levels of disengagement. Unfortunately, we have also found that very few mission statements actually are activated. The ramifications of this run broadly and deeply in organizations, in society and in individual lives. We have personally seen mission activation solve many of the largest organizational, social, and personal problems facing us at this critical point in all of our lives. Our hope is that this chapter will encourage more leaders of nonprofits and more individuals to consider mission activation as a strategy for organizational and personal success. In support of this objective, we will now conclude with an overview of some technologies that seek to boost mission activation.

Cutting Edge Mission Activation-Boosting Practices and Tools: An Example

The one specific example of cutting-edge achievement-enhancing practices and tools we will focus on is one we know very well, indeed: Excellence Tree. The first author pioneered this product, with the second and third authors regularly giving their input regarding its development, and the fourth author regularly using the product to optimize his performance. The focus of Excellence Tree is mission activation resulting from personal empowerment, which fosters motivation from inside the individuals comprising the team (and therefore operates in contrast to traditional compliance approaches, which are reliant on extrinsic motivation practices such as coercion, management, rewards for all tasks completed). Although compliance models can be somewhat effective in the short-term, they often produce resistance and noncompliance over the long haul. Excellence Tree's person-centered approach helps leaders overcome these barriers.

For example, one essential difference between the Excellence Tree approach and the more traditional compliance approaches is that in a compliance approach, professionals or "experts" develop objectives and goals *for* the users and measure the degree to which they achieve their goals. Excellence Tree goes about this process in a more "team-centered" way, including the co-creation of objectives and goals, and assisting each individual in prioritizing goals and tasks (supported by statistical feedback on the respective levels of achievement and each individual's barriers to achievement). Excellence Tree then encourages individuals to create their own solutions to any achievement-related barriers, rather than waiting on an expert manager to save them. Excellence Tree also recognizes the power of social support by providing its users with multiple opportunities to harness that power to maximize their results. The social capabilities built into Excellence Tree allow users to work toward joint objectives while providing them the ability to view individuals' progress and assist one another with barriers (and reap rewards for doing so). In sum, The Excellence Tree system was founded on psychological theory and empirical research on how to unleash individuals' potential to positively impact a team that they feel they have a stake in (rather than simply get them to comply with what a leader or manager wants them to do).

We now turn the discussion from the science behind Excellence Tree to what the system actually looks like. Excellence Tree is a robust set of assessment, tracking, and training tools completely designed to help teams and organizations to clarify and execute their strategic plans. Excellence Tree is comprised of three "Roots," with each Root addressing what we have found to be the most significant, recurring barriers to "Execution Excellence." Execution Excellence occurs when team members are collaborating to achieve their most important goals on (or before) deadline and with high levels of quality. In other words, Execution Excellence creates more mission activation.

Root 1. The WATER Assessment. The WATER Assessment helps leaders to assess their entire team's current execution strengths and deficits via a confidential, easy to use, web-based survey tool.

Root 2. The Mission Fulfillment System. The Mission Fulfillment System is a must for busy leaders who want to thoroughly monitor all of their employee's goal progress on a regular basis. The Mission Fulfillment System provides leaders with an online "Execution Excellence Dashboard" including the following four tabs:

- **General Progress Tab.** A quick and easy way to monitor how effectively plans are being executed over the course of a week, month, quarter, and/or year, the General Execution Excellence Tab gives a real-time look into overall levels of Execution Excellence in a matter of seconds.
- **Individual Progress Tab.** A summary of how well each individual on the system is executing their most critical goals, the Individual Execution Excellence Tab allows identification of who is getting individual goals achieved at a high level, and who could use an "execution boost."
- **Goal-Barrier Identification Tab.** A thorough analysis of the major barriers to everyone's collective progress, the Goal-Achievement Barrier Analysis Tab is based on decades of experience and research identifying the most common barriers to consistent high-quality goal achievement.
- **Solutions Tab.** A powerful mechanism of promoting "solution-focused thinking," the Barrier Solutions Tab helps avoid the pitfalls of people fixating on their barriers to goal achievement rather than quickly identifying strategies to overcome them.

Root 3. The Self-Mastery Training Series. The Self-Mastery Training Series helps leaders with people on their teams who seem to be unable or unwilling to achieve their goals—even when they are very clear about what needs to be done. The focus is on these ten areas most highly associated with gaining stronger influence over one's thoughts, feelings, and behaviors. This influence is critical to achieving professional and personal goals.

1. ***Enhancing Your Awareness/Attention/Mindfulness.*** There are many ways in which to enhance awareness, including the following:
   - Noticing thoughts, feelings and behaviors that you appreciate and those that you do not.
   - Journaling about your thoughts, feelings and behaviors.
   - Participating in awareness-enhancing exercises.
   - One can facilitate one's awareness by adding a new objective to one's goal-tracking system, using any of the computer-based systems described earlier. One can then develop a SMART Goal related to that new objective (for example, "Notice when I am wanting to hide something about my experiences from myself and/or others"). *This is an effective strategy for each of these ten-mastery areas.*
2. ***Cultivating your peace of mind.*** Here are a few ideas that have helped many people increase their peace of mind:
   - Talking to yourself in more peaceful ways.
   - Regular deep breathing.
   - Engaging in more peaceful experiences.
3. ***Optimizing self-esteem.*** Here are some ways people are able to strike a balance between self-doubt and arrogant pride:
   - To help balance out self-doubt, get in touch with your "Fueling Forces." Fueling Forces are activities, places or people that help you feel physically and/or emotionally stronger. It can be helpful to identify what fuels you and goal-set to be around these forces more frequently.
   - To help balance out arrogant pride, become more aware of your weaknesses and embrace them.
   - To stay balanced: Stay aware of areas of strength and areas of imperfection and affirm both regularly.
4. ***Enhancing meaning and purpose.*** Meaning and purpose can be enhanced by staying aware of how what we do connects with our broader objectives in life. Here are some ways people have been able to strengthen meaning and purpose in their lives:
   - Become very clear about primary objectives. Primary objectives are statements of what we want to experience or accomplish in life.
   - Identify activities that are strongly aligned with primary objectives.
   - Do a barriers and solutions analysis when primary objective-aligned activities decrease.
5. ***Increasing "psychological flexibility."*** Psychological flexibility can be increased by understanding our current comfort zones and how to broaden them. Here are some ways people have been able to increase flexibility in their lives:
   - Become clear about when you feel more introverted and/or more extroverted and what influences this.
   - Become skilled at using relaxation exercises when feeling overwhelmed.
   - Practice becoming more comfortable in different situations at a pace that is challenging, but not overwhelming.

6. ***Coping effectively with stress and conflict.*** Here are some ways people have been able to cope effectively with the stress and conflict in their lives:
   - Increase your self-awareness in relation to coping challenges.
   - Become an effective self-soother.
   - Pursue meaningful goals and experiences in life (or seek to attach meaning to challenging experiences).
7. ***Cultivating realistic optimism.*** Here are some ways people have been able to cultivate realistic optimism in their lives:
   - Identify methods of goal-setting that make positive outcomes and satisfaction more likely.
   - Become skilled at noticing positive outcomes and satisfying experiences.
   - Develop a way in which to utilize failure as just another step toward positive outcomes and/or satisfying experiences.
8. ***Make good physical health practical.*** Here are some ways people have been able to make better physical health practical in their lives:
   - Identify one or two health-promoting activities that you would like to regularly engage in.
   - Identify the top two or three barriers to regularly engage in health-promoting activities.
   - Develop solutions to help overcome barriers to health-promoting activities—and do not stop doing so until you are engaging in these health-promoting activities.
9. ***Using leisure time in satisfying ways.*** Here are some ways people have been able to use their leisure time to truly recharge themselves:
   - Decrease time spent in dissatisfying leisure activities.
   - Increase time spent in satisfying leisure activities.
   - Recruit "satisfying leisure social support."
10. ***Cultivating influence on thoughts, feelings, and behaviors.*** Here are some ways people have been able to cultivate more influence over themselves:
    - Enhance self-awareness. There are many ways in which to enhance awareness, including the following:
      - Noticing thoughts, feelings and behaviors that you appreciate and those that you do not.
      - Journaling about your thoughts, feelings and behaviors.
      - Participating in awareness-enhancing exercises.
    - Cultivate peace of mind. Here are a few ideas that have helped many people do so:
      - Talking to yourself in more peaceful ways.
      - Regular deep breathing.
      - Engaging in more peaceful experiences.
    - Cope effectively with stress and conflict. Here are some ways people have been able to cope effectively with the stress and conflict in their lives:

- Increase your self-awareness in relation to coping challenges.
- Become an effective self-soother.
- Pursue meaningful goals and experiences in life (or seek to attach meaning to challenging experiences).

Conclusion

This chapter has provided a review of features of six currently available, computer-based management products and a head-to-head comparison of those six products. In addition, this chapter has provided details on one example of cutting-edge, behavioral science-based approaches to nonprofit management of people.

The authors are hopeful that readers will use this information as a starting point, and begin to investigate and compare various systems for themselves and to explore what works best for their situations. More important than the differences between these systems is the larger difference between (a) doing what the organization has been doing for years and perhaps decades, and (b) taking the steps to activate the nonprofit's mission in specific, measurable, cutting-edge ways, using whatever system fits the organization best.

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DIGITAL L

Ethics

Professional Ethics for Volunteers

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Charitable nonprofits are private organizations that serve a public purpose. Many believe that they possess a greater moral authority and concern for the public interest than private for-profit organizations. Despite this belief, there have been many scandals involving nonprofits due to ethical lapses in their behavior (Light, 2004; Strickland & Vaughan, 2008).

To maintain the public trust, nonprofits must do their best to ensure that their paid staff and their volunteers perform their responsibilities in a lawful, ethical, and competent manner. In addition to complying with external formal controls such as tax compliance forms, program reports and audits, and financial audits, it is important that nonprofits establish an internal ethical climate. Volunteer administration and human resources management, like many other professions, have developed codes of ethics to guide the behavior of individuals.

The administration of volunteer programs is a critical component of strategic human resources management (SHRM). Volunteers, in addition to paid staff, are the human resources of an agency. As such, volunteer administrators and human resources management administrators (if they are different individuals with different responsibilities) must work together to develop a strategic human resources management system for the nonprofit. In addition to developing a SHRM system for the nonprofit, they must go beyond the technical aspects of SHRM and inculcate and reify ethical administrative practices.

This chapter begins with a brief review of SHRM, and then discusses codes of ethics governing human resources management, the Independent Sector, and volunteer management. It concludes with acknowledging some of the knowledge, skills and other characteristics needed by volunteer administrators.

Strategic Human Resources Management

Human resource management (HRM) is the design of formal systems in an organization to ensure the effective use of employee and volunteers' knowledge, skills, abilities and other characteristics (KSAOCs) to accomplish organizational goals. HRM concerns the recruitment, selection, training and development, retention, and evaluation of employees and volunteers; the compensation and benefits; the promotion of employees; and the labor-management relations within an organization. Unlike many for-profit organizations which can use technology to automate the production of their products and reduce staff, nonprofit organizations typically provide some type of service. Thus, they rely on the professionalism and competence of their employees and volunteers. Why is one social work agency more effective than another if they are using similar clinical protocols and techniques, and have clients with similar problems? The answer is likely to be related to the professionalism and competencies of their employees and volunteers.

SHRM is based on the belief that to be effective and able to adapt to changes quickly, agencies need realistic information on the capabilities and talents of their current staff, including volunteers—in essence, their *human resources*. SHRM refers to the implementation of human resource activities, policies, and practices to make the necessary ongoing changes to support or improve the agency's operational and strategic objectives. To be competitive, organizations must be able to anticipate, influence, and manage the forces that impact their ability to remain effective. In the service sector, this means they must be able to manage their human resource capabilities. All too often, agencies have relied on short-term service requirements to direct their HRM practices without giving much thought to long-term implications. By invoking SHRM, agencies are better able to match their human resource requirements with the demands of the external environment and the needs of the organization. Strategic planning, budgeting, and human resource planning are linked in SHRM. SHRM is the integrative framework that matches human resources management activities with organizational needs.

For nonprofits to be successful in implementing SHRM, they need the collaborative effort of agency leaders, volunteer administrators, and HR professionals. SHRM determines the human resource needs of the agency and ensures that qualified personnel are recruited and developed to meet organizational needs. Should there be a shift in demand for services, agencies must know whether there are potential employees and volunteers with the requisite skills available to provide these services.

Volunteer management often receives less attention. It is important that agencies integrate the recruitment, selection, training, evaluation, and the management of volunteers into their SHRM plans. Managing volunteer programs requires the development of SHRM policies and procedures to assist with the integration of volunteers into the everyday operations of the agency. Paid staff, unions, and board members need to support the use of volunteers, oversight needs to be provided so that volunteers are properly utilized, and strategies need to be developed to motivate and retain volunteers (Pynes, 2009).

The increase in volunteer activities has necessitated the increasing professionalism of volunteer administration. Organizations such as the National Center for Voluntary Action Center and The Volunteer Center National Network, Minnesota Association for Volunteer Administration, North Carolina Association for Volunteer Administration, New York Association for Volunteer Administration, and South Carolina Association for Volunteer Administration are examples of statewide associations of volunteer administration. There are also regional and citywide associations as well. The Association for Volunteer Administration has a certificate program for managers of volunteers. Other services include the provision of books, pamphlets, training materials, and videos targeting the recruitment and management of volunteers. These agencies also provide training related to the recruitment and use of volunteers (Brudney, 2001). The National Association of Volunteer Programs in Local Governments (www.navplg.org/) is an affiliate of the National Association of Counties. Members have access to a mentoring program, where a new volunteer coordinator can find resources or seek help from an experienced manager for consultation or support. Other services include training and educational workshops at the national Points of Light conference, as well as state and regional levels. It provides a quarterly newsletter with program updates, news and best practices.

Professional Volunteer Administration and Management

Emphasis on the leadership and management of volunteer programs has been written about for many years. Fisher and Cole (1993) described the knowledge, skills, and abilities required of professional managers to involve volunteers in the work of organizations. In their book, they discuss the Association for Volunteer Administrator Certification Competencies and address key SHRM tasks such as staffing, recruitment, motivation, program evaluation, and the management of relationships between paid staff and volunteers. They also recognized the complexity of ethical issues that can arise in volunteer management. Volunteer program administrators must consider their responsibility to the volunteer, clients, the organization, other staff (paid and unpaid) and the public, as well as their immediate supervisors. Some of the earlier ethical concerns in volunteer management they identified were ensuring confidentiality, conflicts between professionals, and the definition of volunteer (Fisher and Cole, 1993).

To what confidential information do volunteers have access? What happens when the ethics and professional practices of volunteer administration collide with the ethics or practices of other professions such as social work, health, education, or the arts? Also, what characteristics constitute a volunteer? Is volunteering the performance of helping activities without monetary reimbursement? If so, then how do loaned executives, participants in service programs, and other stipend volunteers fit the definition? What about volunteers who are *required* to participate in community service activities, internships and, service learning? Are they really volunteers (Fisher and Cole, 1993). Since Fisher and Cole wrote their book, there have been many changes in society and nonprofits. The availability and stability of financial support, the advancement of technological changes, legal regulations, and social and cultural changes can lead to ethical conflicts. In addition, volunteer administrators may contend with additional ethical conflicts among agency policies, their personal values, the nonprofit's organizational culture and its climate, as well as with their immediate supervisor and senior management.

Most professions have a code of ethics. Having a code of ethics to provide guidance is an attempt on the part of professional organizations to self-regulate the behaviors of their members. Most professional societies establish minimum competency requirements and norms of professional behavior (Wiley, 2000). When confronted with an ethical dilemma, professionals should be able to find guidance in the code (Buchholz, 1989). Since many organizations entrust their Human Resources Management Departments with developing and implementing their ethics programs, and HR practitioners may also serve as sources for ethics information and advice, the chapter will begin with identifying some common elements in HR ethics codes.

Ethical Standards for Human Resources Management

Wiley (2000) conducted an analysis of the professional codes of conduct for five human resources management associations. She reviewed the codes of the American Compensation Association (ACA), the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD), the International Association of Human Resource Information Management (IHRIM), the International Personnel Management Association (IPMA-HR), and the Society for Human Resources Management (SHRM). The code of ethics items Wiley (2000) found to be most frequent were:

Integrity. Practicing the profession with high level of honesty, integrity and fairness
Legality. Respecting individual rights and obeying all laws
Proficiency. Maintaining and improving professional competence
Professional loyalty. Supporting the profession and not misusing professional affiliation for personal or business gain
Confidentiality. Respecting the confidentiality of privileged information

In her analysis, she noted that despite some similarities in the codes, there were inconsistencies in language—the codes were not always clearly written, terms were commonly used without definitions, and little guidance for making ethical decisions was provided to HR practitioners. Information related to sanctions, penalties, and enforcement was also found to be lacking. However, what Wiley did find was important. The codes serve as a set of expectations by which practitioners will be judged by their constituents; they represent the preferred character dispositions that should control the way the profession is practiced by the individual, and they are designed to support or encourage practitioners to act in the interest of the public.

Independent Sector Ethics and Values

Nonprofit organizations that fall with the IRC of 501(c)(3) or 501(c)(4) are considered to be Independent Sector nonprofits. The Independent Sector (IS) believes that each and every organization in the independent sector should have a code of ethics. IS firmly believes that the process by which a code is adopted is as important as the code itself, and that the board and staff should be involved in developing, drafting, adopting, and implementing a statement that fits the organization's unique characteristics.

> *We encourage all organizations to set aside time in your board meeting or at a retreat to discuss in detail all aspects of an ethical code—and be sure that new board members have the appropriate orientation to understand and embrace your code of ethics and practices.*
>
> —www.independentsector.org/members/code_ethics.html#intro.

Any code of ethics is built on a foundation of widely shared values. The values of the IS include the following:

- Commitment to the public good
- Accountability to the public
- Commitment beyond the law
- Respect for the worth and dignity of individuals
- Inclusiveness and social justice
- Respect for pluralism and diversity
- Transparency, integrity, and honesty
- Responsible stewardship of resources
- Commitment to excellence and to maintaining the public trust

The values inform and guide the actions that organizations should take in developing their policies and practices. The Code of Ethics for Nonprofit and Philanthropic Organizations was approved in 2004 and can be found at www.independentsector.org/members/code_ethics.html#intro. More specific to the emphasis of this book are professional ethics in volunteer management.

Professional Ethics in Volunteer Management

Recognizing the importance of volunteers to public service organizations, the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration and the Association of Volunteer Administration updated *Professional Ethics in Volunteer Administration* (2005–2006). The importance of volunteer managers should not be understated, noting that they create a social climate which makes the meeting of human needs possible; provide for the involvement of persons in the decision making process; contribute to creative and responsible social development change; and enhance and extend the work of employed persons in many fields and settings.

It is believed that volunteer leaders must be committed to six core ethical values, with accompanying ethical principles applied in the volunteer context. They are:

1. Citizenship and Philanthropy

   Philosophy of Volunteerism. The Volunteer Administrator accepts the responsibility for the ongoing development of a personal, coherent philosophy of volunteerism as a foundation for working with others in developing volunteer programs.

Social Responsibility. The Volunteers Administrator accepts responsibility to help create a social climate through which human needs can be met and human values enhanced.

2. Respect

Self-Determination. The Volunteer Administrator accepts the responsibility to involve people in decisions that directly affect them.

Mutuality. The Volunteer Administrator accepts the responsibility to promote understanding and the actualization of mutual benefits inherent in any act of volunteer service.

Human Dignity. The Volunteer Administrator accepts responsibility for the development of volunteer programs and initiatives that respect and enhance the human dignity of all persons involved.

Privacy. The Volunteer Administrator accepts the responsibility to respect the privacy of individuals and safeguard information including written, electronic, audio-visual and verbal formats identified as confidential.

Safeguarding Confidential Information. The Volunteer Administrator understands the importance of confidentiality and works to protect confidential information.

Accessibility. The Volunteer Administrator works to understand and treat with respect individuals from diverse backgrounds.

3. Responsibility

Staff Relationships. The Volunteer Administrator accepts the responsibility to develop a volunteer program that will enhance and extend the work of the organization's paid staff.

Professional Responsibility. The Volunteer Administrator accepts responsibility to contribute to the credibility of the profession in the eyes of those it serves.

Diligence. The Volunteer Administrator accepts responsibility to be reliable, careful, prepared, and well informed.

Doing One's Best. The Volunteer Administrator accepts responsibility to pursue excellence even when resources are limited.

Perseverance. The Volunteer Administrator will seek to overcome obstacles to excellence.

Continuous Improvement. The Volunteer Administrator commits to improving his/her knowledge, skills, and ability to make judgments.

Self-Disclosure and Self-Restraint. The Volunteer Administrator commits to reflective decision making with the intent of advancing the long-term greater good.

4. Compassion and Generosity

Compassion and Generosity. The Volunteer Administrator assumes the responsibility to be kind, compassionate, and generous in all actions so as to minimize the harm done to others in the performance of one's duties.

5. Justice and Fairness

Procedural Fairness. The Volunteer Administrator assumes the responsibility to have an open and impartial process for collecting and evaluating information critical for making decisions.

Impartiality. The Volunteer Administrator assumes the responsibility for having impartial and objective standards that avoid discriminatory or prejudicial behaviors.

Equity. The Volunteer Administrator assumes the responsibility to treat all individuals with whom he/she works equitably.

6. Trustworthiness

Truthfulness. The Volunteer Administrator is committed to the truth and assuring that all verbal and written agreements and contracts for volunteers and staff are founded on the premise of open and honest interaction.

Candor. The Volunteer Administrator is committed to fairness and forthrightness.

Sincerity/Non-Deception. The Volunteer Administrator will interact with all volunteers in a forthright manner with the utmost sincerity and good intent, never conducting business in a deceptive manner and continually promoting that principle throughout the organization.

Principled. The Volunteer Administrator understands and works to promote the core ethical values.

Moral Courage. The Volunteer Administrator will base his/her actions on core ethical values and will not compromise those values for convenience.

Reasonability of Commitments. The Volunteer Administrator accepts the responsibility to be reasonable, realistic, and professional in determining the appropriateness of expectations or requests.

Clarity of Commitments on Behalf of the Organizations, Staff and/or Volunteers. The Volunteer Administrator accepts the responsibility to assure clear communication regarding commitments made on behalf of the organization, staff, or volunteers. In order to maximize success of everyone involved, the Volunteer Administrator accepts the responsibility to establish contracts and agreements that are understood and practiced.

Limitations to Loyalty. The Volunteer Administrator understands personal and professional limits of his/her loyalty to his/her volunteers, clients and organization, and prioritizes them clearly and appropriately to minimize liability and risk to everyone involved.

Addressing Conflicts of Interest. The Volunteer Administrator is responsible for identifying policies, procedures and circumstances that might result in a conflict of interest by appropriately and professionally addressing the issue at hand and eliminating it as a conflict.

Assumptions of Codes of Ethics

It is assumed that codes of ethics can be used to guide behavior and improve decision-making. Research by Lere and Gaumnitz (2003) found that there is no evidence that codes of ethics have an impact on decision-making. They state that a necessary but not sufficient condition for a code of ethics to impact decision-making is that it changes the individual's beliefs. To be valuable, they suggest that codes of ethics must go beyond stating what is right and wrong (i.e., such as obey the law or do not falsify documents) and instead address issues that are not generally held by most individuals. The focus should be on what are the ethical issues unique to the organization. Despite suggesting that codes of ethics may not have an impact on decision-making they still believe that codes of ethics are important, but that organizations should focus on the potential roles for codes of ethics such as those identified by other researchers. Citing research by Frankel (1989); Kapstein and Wempe (1998); Molander (1987); and Stevens (1994) Lere and Gaumnitz (2003, pp. 373–374) promote the following uses for codes of ethics:

- Provide a basis for public expectations and evaluations for the profession
- Strengthen the sense of common purpose among members of the organization
- Enhance the profession's reputation and public trust
- Preserve entrenched professional biases
- Create an environment in which reporting unethical behavior is affirmed
- Provide support for individuals when faced with pressures to behave in an unethical manner
- Serve as a basis for adjudicating disputes among members and non-members

Many nonprofits, like for-profit organizations, live in a competitive environment. Often their focus is on having an organization centered view that perpetuates their own importance so they advance their own interests over the public interest. To foster ethical behavior, it has been suggested that an organization's shift to a more human-centered view characterized by concern for their community, quality of life, hope, and altruism (Giacalone and Thompson, 2006). A review of the common characteristics of HRM codes of ethics, the Code of Ethics and Values Statement approved by the Independent Sector, and the Professional Ethics for Volunteer Management indicate a human-centered view.

Conclusion

When employees or volunteers join an organization, their ethics and values may not be congruent with those of the organization. When personal ethics conflict with the values of the organization, ethical dilemmas can arise (Cohen & Eimicke, 1995; Reynolds, 1995). While codes of ethics can provide guidance to employees and volunteers as well as state the values of a profession or organization, it must be recognized that they are not enough; it is the responsibility of all individuals to foster ethical behaviors and decision-making. Previous research indicates that a combination of professional and personal competencies is necessary for managing volunteer programs. SHRM can be used to facilitate the attainment of those skills.

In an article first published in 1999 and then reprinted in 2007, Safrit and Merrill make a distinction between the professional competencies and the personal capacities needed for volunteer administration. The professional competencies include assessing, comprehending, and applying knowledge to day-to-day roles and responsibilities. They are more position-specific, such as preparing a volunteer job description or managing a program budget. Whereas personal capabilities consist of affective and emotional characteristics allowing the administrator to create and communicate a shared vision, embrace diversity while nurturing pluralism, accept change and manage ambiguity, act within shared values and champion ethical behavior, link effective management to personal leadership, and reflect.

In a recent study of how nonprofit administrators lead volunteers, Jäger, Kreutzer, and Beyes (2009) found that nonprofit administrators rely on their past experiences and practices. Since formal power is lacking, administrators need to recognize the good intentions of the volunteer and focus attention to personal-level exchanges, emphasizing the value of the volunteer as a person first, then address their work performance.

Using Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs as a framework, Strickland and Vaughan (2008) developed a hierarchy of ethical values in nonprofits. Levels 1 and 2 deal with financial competence (managing resources and assets wisely), and accountability (transparency). Level 3 deals with reciprocity (maintaining a mutually beneficial investment relationship with donors to meet the needs of targeted constituencies), level 4 is respect (incorporating the perspectives of employees, volunteers, and donors into all organizational activities), and level 5 is integrity (preserving incorruptibility and completeness in a commitment to the mission). They believe that only by internalizing ethical behaviors and patterns can a nonprofit attain the highest ethical value, which is integrity.

Recently, the Society for Human Resource Management published *Business Ethics: The Role of Culture and Values for an Ethical Workplace* (2009), the report reiterates that an ethical workplace is established through an agency's culture, values, and leadership. Transparency, fairness, and communication are keys to maintaining an ethical workplace.

Nonprofit organizations are facing some daunting challenges. There will consistently be new problems and changes in the external and internal environments. Nonprofits depend on the human capital in their agencies. They are driven by the attitudes, behaviors and performance of their employees and volunteers. While codes of ethics can be aspirational, to really encourage ethical behavior, there needs to be an ethical climate throughout the agency, and this climate can be fostered by SHRM and the behaviors of volunteer administrators.

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DIGITAL M

Professionalism and Credentialing in the Field of Volunteer Management

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Our purpose is to describe why professionalizing the field of volunteer management is important to the field and to the clients, volunteers, organizations, and communities that volunteers serve. Every client, volunteer, organization, and community wants to be assured that a vocation that claims to provide expert assistance, support, service, and resources can carry out those roles competently and confidently. The word "professional" connotes that the vocation and its practitioners can be trusted to fulfill an obligation to those they serve. The manager of volunteer resources (MVR) should set a standard of competence and confidence for volunteers. In a sense, professionalism in volunteer management is more about behaviors than it is about credentials (Lester, 2010). A credential is shorthand for informing the layperson that the professional has learned and applied a body of knowledge, joined an association of similarly prepared professionals, and provided a service that enhanced the public good. In this chapter, we hope to make the case that a MVR has many paths to achieving professional status. We also advance reasons for professionalizing the field of volunteer management. Consequently, we will be focusing on both professionalizing the field and its practitioners and how they contribute to the acceptance of volunteer management as a profession.

Making the Case for Professionalizing the Field of Volunteer Management

Managers of volunteers are responsible for ensuring that the volunteers they oversee effectively and safely deliver the service or program to a trusting public while also ensuring that the volunteer derives a personal satisfaction based on their initial motivations and expectations of the volunteer experience. How does the community or the public served by volunteers know that the volunteer-run program or service has the capacity to deliver on its intentions? A recognized credential based on a standardized body of knowledge with corresponding competencies can provide assurance to the public that the manager of volunteers is prepared, competent, ethical, and capable.

The professional manager of volunteers recognizes that volunteers are a resource and therefore need to be carefully allocated based on need, timing, quantity, quality, and efficiency. Sustaining volunteer "resources" is a critical role of the manager of volunteers because it also contributes to the ongoing growth and development of the profession itself. To accomplish the goals of both the community and the individual volunteer requires a manager of volunteers who can model desired ethical and expert practice for both the public and the volunteers who come from that public. Managing then is more than providing a direct service or supervising volunteers; it is leading through advocacy, civic involvement, and collaborative networking. These are skills that can be learned and standardized as competencies within a body of knowledge. This chapter includes a unique set of competencies for managers of volunteers that have been incorporated into the body of knowledge and practice identified by the Council for the Certification in Volunteer Administration (2010) The competencies describe novice-to-expert for managers of volunteer resources (MVR) that have an impact on both the individual's professional development and the professionalization of the field itself (as developed later in this chapter).

History, Background, and Literature Review

In the literature about the professions, several approaches define a profession, professional, and professional practice. Based on the comprehensive work of Kimball (1995), we will present a history of profession in the American context. Kimball's primary thesis is that the dominant set of ideals and values of a particular historical era determined the respect and status of a particular occupation to the degree that the occupation embodied those values and ideals.

Kimball's (1995) approach was historical and the most comprehensive, at least from the American perspective. In it, he described the meaning of "profession" in the fifteenth, sixteenth, and seventeenth centuries as evolving from a religious vow to representing the act of joining and belonging to a group comprised of members who made a similar vow (see also Pellegrino, 2002, for how the Hippocratic oath is the physician's form of a public "profession"). With the advent of Protestantism, the meaning of profession expanded to encompass clergy and the laity. The role of the clergy was important in colonial America and assumed a prominent position in that era's political, social, and economic life and led to "emphasizing and dignifying all vocations as the fulfillment of a Christian's spiritual calling" (p. 301). This elevated the vocational aspect of profession, which grew throughout the eighteenth century as the original religious connotation diminished. As the vocational sense of profession gained dignity based on its earlier association with the clergy, it also became narrower in its focus, which was captured by the terms "liberal professions" and "learned professions" that appeared early in the eighteenth century in reference to the most prestigious profession of theology and the fields to which theology had been associated since the thirteenth century: law, medicine, and learning (Kimball, 1995, Phillips, 2000). The clergy also supplied another significant facet to the meaning of profession: the ethic of selfless service, a central tenet of all major religions. According to Kimball, selfless service implied that the servant would gain in status through the act of selflessness (p. 302).

The colonial clergy's high status lent special weight and dignity to *profession* in its religious sense which was extended to vocations. It is because of the preeminence of theology as both a template and an occupation in the colonial period that (a) *profession* evolved to referring to a group of people; (b) it began to denote the work, or "particular calling" which those people did; (c) it began to signify the most dignified kind of work; and (d) it included a dialectical ethic of selfless service that came to be associated with profession.

In the second half of the eighteenth century, the American Revolution eclipsed the dominance of religion, theology, and clergy. The emergence of secular jurisprudence and politics created the foundation for the profession of law. During this period, the word *profession* was transformed from its original sense of *avowed* or *religious* to its modern meaning of vocational. Lawyers began to use the term professional as an adjective, and they readily adopted the dignity and service ethic of the theological profession. The law influenced the further evolution of the vocation by the term *professional service* which signified a contractual and fee-based function of benefit to a client while at the same time retaining the service ethic of selflessness. The law also changed the perception of *profession* by developing and emphasizing the clustering of professionals into a professional polity or *association* as an important characteristic of a profession (Kimball, 1995).

From the 1860s to the 1910s, education and then science became the new templates for the continuing evolution of profession in the United States. Education grew in part because its institutions were the location for the increasing ascendancy of science as a cultural ideal. At the same time, law lost its identity as a learned profession because its practitioners were seen as beholden to the large corporations and monopolies which hired them. The law professor had more credibility and respect than the practitioner. This contributed to an increasing respect for education as a profession.

Educators of all types advocated for themselves by taking on all those characteristics associated with the previously dominant professions of theology and law. They described their profession as dignified and requiring deep commitment. It followed that such commitment needed (a) a professed ethic of selfless service where serving others through teaching was meant to be its own reward and (b) an orientation to public or social service. Education's key contribution to the concept of profession was an emphasis on its most substantive and obvious characteristic—learning. In the context of profession, this came to mean *functional expertise*. Expertise meant what natural science represented—empiricism, quantitative measurement, and verifiable experimentation. Functional meant that expertise could be applied to some desirable result in the interest of fulfilling the vocation's ethic of service.

The notion of expert service proliferated as many fields began to proclaim themselves as professions. As functional expertise came to be the dominating component used to define profession, the states during the 1880s began to enact laws requiring that more and more occupations be licensed; the states then raised the educational requirements needed to obtain the license. The states were challenged on these licensing laws leading to a series of decisions by the U.S. Supreme Court as it evaluated state licensing statutes based on the standard of the occupation's possession and demonstration of functional expertise. The Supreme Court held that a state was entitled to license an occupation if the expertise associated with the occupation was difficult and if its function was related to the *public good*. In a series of decisions over the following 30 years, the Supreme Court maintained the doctrine that the state's authority to license occupations depended on the difficulty of the expertise and the nature of the function that the occupation performed. Hence, the 1901 statute based on "An Act to Insure the Better Education of Practitioners of Horse-shoeing in the State of Illinois" was voided because the horse-shoers' skill was not seen as sufficiently difficult to need additional education nor was their service considered instrumental to the public health or comfort or to the safety or welfare of society. However, this same Illinois court ruled that plumbers required more skill and hence more education and were also more important than horse-shoers in their functional importance to the health, welfare, and safety of the public. Medicine benefited greatly from these constitutional cases on occupational licensing. Professionals had now come to mean those who professed dialectically selfless and contractual service, membership in a strong association, and functional expertise modeled on the template of natural science. Once medical schools were reformed as a result of the 1898 Flexner Report in the context of functional science, medicine became the prototype of the new meaning of profession with characteristics derived from the vocations of theology, law, and education in American culture.

Framework for Professionalism in Volunteer Management

Models of Professions

Many argue that a professional is a person who makes a formal commitment to an oath or a specific set of values derived from the Latin, *profiteor*, to profess, and claim to possess knowledge of something that others do not have. So a professional has and uses expert or specialist knowledge (see Kimball's [1995] "functional expertise"), exercises autonomous thought and judgment, and takes on a responsibility to clients and the wider community as a part of their commitment to a set of principles (selfless service for the public good). Pellegrino, a physician and medical ethicist, includes the enactment of competence in the person's best interest as another form of profession or professing (Pellegrino, 2002).

A variety of current professions and vocations are already considered professions, or are in the process of professionalizing. More often than not, they include those traits that are frequently associated with profession. To get an idea of both the similarity and range of definitions, we provide samples from different fields. Some of the characteristics are enduring in that they have been identified by a number of authors representing a range of professions and "professions-in-waiting." They usually include a unique body of knowledge, an ethical framework, a credentialing body with standards for entry, and community acceptance.

In medicine, Cruess, Johnston, & Cruess (2004) included the following characteristics or traits:

- An occupation whose core element is based on the mastery of a complex body of knowledge and skills
- A vocation used in the service of others
- Governed by codes of ethics
- Commitment to competence, integrity, morality, altruism, and the promotion of the public good
- A social contract between a profession and society
- Grants the profession a monopoly over the use of its knowledge base, the right to considerable autonomy in practice, and the privilege of self-regulation
- Professions and their members are accountable to those served and to society

In law, Rizzardi (2005) identified

- A commitment to serving others
- Being dedicated to the proper use of one's knowledge to promote a fair and just result
- Endeavoring always to enhance one's knowledge and skills
- Ensuring that concern for the desired result does not subvert fairness, honesty, respect, and courtesy for others with whom one comes into contact
- Contributing one's skill, knowledge and influence . . . to further the profession's commitment to serving others and to promoting the public good
- Educating the public about the capabilities and limits of the profession
- Accepting responsibility for one's own professional conduct as well as others in the profession

In 1957, Ernest Greenwood identified these criteria for a profession: systematic theory, authority, community sanction, ethical codes, and culture. Houle (1980) moved from the emphasis on a static, criteria-based definition of a profession to an emphasis on the actions it would take to move toward professional status. This dynamic process focused on both the infrastructural and individual professionalizing actions required to move the occupation or vocation toward professional status. Houle provides fourteen dynamic guidelines that constitute the professionalizing process.

- Requirements of the individual; actions taken by the practitioner:
  1. Clarifying the profession's guiding principles and defining its functions; important for public education and recruiting new members
  2. Mastering the profession's knowledge and theoretical sources
  3. Using the knowledge and source theories to solve problems
  4. Applying a substantive body of knowledge and associated practical methods to solve real-world problems
  5. Ongoing learning in related areas to enhance professional knowledge and skills
- Obligations of the vocation as a whole:
  6. Establishing a formal learning infrastructure and procedure to educate and train practitioners before and during their professional careers
  7. Using formal methods to test practitioner capability
  8. Creating a unique professional culture
  9. Using legal supports and formal administrative rules to protect the rights and privileges of the profession
  10. Encouraging public awareness of the work done by practitioners; public education and dissemination
  11. Establishing a code of ethical practice
  12. Establishing and enforcing standards of practice; explicitly defined consequences
  13. Establishing and maintaining clear relationships with complementary occupations to facilitate collaboration, coordination, and other interdisciplinary work
  14. Defining relationships between practitioners and those who use their services; in volunteer management, includes volunteers, clients, host agency, and other stakeholders (Fisher & Cole 1993, pp. 160–161)

Conceptions of Profession

In recognition of its history and the importance of context, Lester (2010) described several "conceptions" of profession (e.g., classical, trade, technical, and reflective) that validated Kimball's thesis of the reciprocity of social, economic, and cultural context and the degree to which vocations professionalize and re-professionalize in response to changes in context. For example, the creative-interpretive or reflective conception evolved over the past thirty years partly in response to the rejection of the technical-rational model (or professional-as-expert) as an inadequate practitioner response to addressing the societal complexities and environmental uncertainties of the real world. The reflective model, on the other hand, assumes a complex and uncertain context that includes interested and passionate stakeholders and complementary professionals—all of whom having something to offer (shared expertise) towards a solution when reflective thought is carried out in a collaborative process.

An Alternative Model

Lester (2010) asserted that the perspective a person held toward a profession was primarily based on one's own experience and knowledge of that profession (e.g., engineers used a science/technical model, plumbers used a trade model). The historical perspective groups professions by when they "professionalized"—a term that in itself needs to be defined. *Professionalize* can be defined as the purposeful evolution of a vocation that claims selected and well-known traits, behaviors, and infrastructure to create a culture and association based on a set of ethics, exclusive knowledge, and a credentialing process. Houle (1980) described five characteristics essential for practitioners of a professionalizing vocation and an additional nine characteristics essential for the vocation itself to be successfully professionalized. Lester summarized four perspectives or paradigms of profession that succinctly captured both the uniqueness and overlap of one framework to the next:

1. The **historic perspective** that grouped professions by era starting with the ancient professions of the clergy, university teaching, law, and medicine. During the medieval era, occupations such as surgery, dentistry, and architecture were called professions. Engineering was considered the typical profession during the industrial revolution, and during the 20th century, a long list of occupations became professions ranging from accountants to teachers. Kimball's (1995) comprehensive history of professions in America extends the historic perspective to demonstrate how professions influenced and were influenced by the culture, political environment, and values of America as it evolved. He would probably call Lester's (2010) description of a historical perspective a kind of "presentism" where descriptions of professions were more a function of the perspective that modern scholars and writers bring, based on their own professional biases, than a function of the profession as it influenced and was influenced by the events and culture of its own time.
2. The **social construct perspective** is the nomination of an occupation as profession by acclaim or by defining the vocation according to what is generally regarded by society as a profession. For example, some investigators have identified major and minor or primary and secondary professions—the major professions include business management, senior military officers, police chiefs, professors, and judges. If asked for an obvious profession, it is more than likely that most people would respond by identifying physicians, attorneys, and then based on personal experience, might go on to add architects, engineers, accountants, veterinarians, and teachers. The identification of what is a profession as a social construct is based on how the question is asked—e.g., which occupations are seen as having authority in their fields or which occupations require extensive formal education? In the former, a physician or police chief could be identified as a professional but, in the latter case, the police chief might be excluded.
3. **Sociological perspectives** include a structuralist or functionalist framework that emphasizes the role the profession plays in society. These include the application of expertise that benefits the public good and the importance of professional ethics as guideposts to follow when involved with bureaucracies, the market, and other situations that could compromise the implicit promise professionals make to society when they assume a professionally and governmentally-sanctioned role through a credentialing process. So a *Weberian* approach focuses on professionalization as creating a market or employment rewards for

those who achieve a professional status. A *Marxist* approach emphasizes the professional role in the context of power and class while an *interactionist* approach focuses on the professional-client exchanges that go on within the practice and how these interactions influence larger occupational and societal relationships, policy, and practice (Lester, 2010).

4. The **trait** perspective, which seems to be most frequently used by writers and researchers, identifies the characteristics that are used to label a vocation as a profession. These are widely recognized and typically include a variation on the following themes: an assessment process for entry into the profession, and a common body of knowledge. Some use the body of theory to up the ante of professional exclusivity, a code of ethics, and a professional association (Greenwood 1957 and Pugh 1989). Pellegrino (2001) adds a list of what he called "essential virtues" that actualize a professional's (in this case, a physician's) commitment to achieving selfless service that include fidelity to trust, benevolence, intellectual honesty, courage, compassion, and truthfulness. In the field of public administration, Pugh offers the unique trait of a "hall of fame" or a "gallery of luminaries" that contribute to the birth or advancement of the profession—e.g., Abraham Flexner in medicine, Woodrow Wilson in public administration, Holmes in law, and Dewey in education. Greenwood (1957) contributed "professional culture" as an indicator of a profession. In fact, according to Phillips (2000), he believed this was the most significant indicator of the difference between professions and other occupations. According to Lester (2010), the trait approach leads to interminable debates because the definition is based more on a core of ideal types that represents one particular view of a profession. Moreover, definitions of profession are more a function of their time than of broader, contextualized perspectives. As noted by Kimball as "presentism." Some examples include:
   (a) The assumption that medicine is the universal archetype of a profession as described by Beck (2004), Friedson (1970), Starr (1982), and others.
   (b) The assumption that modern science is the core basis for a profession because the previously described traits of ethical ideals and selfless service were considered insufficient as they were not empirical, causal, formally rational, and quantitative (Kimball, 1995). This is still an issue as evaluators and researchers continued to argue over whether or not randomized control experiments should continue to either be seen as the "gold standard" of research methods in the social sciences (technical-rational) or whether qualitative methods (creative interpretive/reflective) are equally legitimate methods of professional research (Patton 2004 www.ifc.org/ifcext/sme.nsf/AttachmentsByTitle/MERandomizedControls.pdf/$FILE/MERandomizedControls.pdf).
   (c) The assumption that professions were invented or first appeared in modern, industrial, bureaucratic society during the 19th century.
   (d) Yet another assumption is how theology is neglected as an important profession, if it is even considered as a profession at all. This was based on its exclusion by social scientists who thought that the clergy was no longer important, that " . . . law and medicine required more specialized training . . . " and that " . . . [since] the clergy had divested itself of duties relating to the

ordinary business of life, its position on the list of professions was anomalous." This was reinforced later by other researchers in the professions who identified medicine and law as the older professions.

(e) Finally, Kimball points out that scholars of the professions have "persistently failed to examine carefully, or even to ask, what the word "profession" and its cognates meant in the past." (p. 323). By the beginning of the 20th century, the term profession had come to mean a dignified vocation with three fundamental characteristics that shaped the subsequent debate about the meaning and nature of professions: (1) body of functional knowledge or expertise (epistemology, utility, and education), (2) professional association (autonomy, exclusion, licensing, and certification), and (3) the ethic of professional service.

Nevertheless, a few traits have consistently appeared over time that bear a level of familiarity and include: (a) the application of specialized knowledge, (b) the execution of autonomous thought and judgment, and (c) a responsibility to clients and society based on a set of principles that are voluntarily adopted, internalized, and followed. Lester points out that these traits occur in all professions independent of their organization or unique body of knowledge (Lester, 2010). A manager of volunteer resources could be a professional based on these specific characteristics. The challenge is to translate these special characteristics into concrete, functional competencies.

The next section of this chapter describes the development of competencies for managers of volunteers based in part on (a) a reflective approach to the ongoing professionalization of the field and (b) the need to create a set of functions to describe what managers of volunteers do rather than how they are educated and trained and emphasizes the work, its context, and needs rather than formal preparation. In addition, the competencies describe both function and capability (i.e., what the manager of volunteers is equipped to do in situations that are unpredictable, complex, or ambiguous) (Lester, 2010).

A Competency-Based Framework for Advancing the Profession of Volunteer Management

In 2004, we set out to document the scope of the work of a group of nonprofit program directors. (Ullian & Schink, 2007) We took an approach that enabled us to identify functions uniquely and typically used by managers of volunteers. We also wanted to expand their view of leadership, link their performance to a broader perspective, and identify an appropriate credential that would document and certify their professional gains. A secondary goal was to advance the profession of volunteer management. As these program directors recognized their own professional growth, they reflected the changes in the field of volunteer management that are also growing towards a mature profession of managers of volunteers. Current trends reinforce the obvious fact that managers of volunteer resources have a much broader range of responsibilities than just managing people. They must also lead. The combination of both management *and* leadership competencies are essential components of the U.S. Office of Personnel Management's Executive Core Qualifications, which are built on the foundation of Managing Self, which then support the competencies associated with Managing People, Managing Programs, and Leading Organizations. Adding leadership competencies to the management competencies attaches a level of capability that is important to creating the networks, collaborations, and partnerships that are so much a part of the 21st-century work environment. It creates a platform for the professional growth of the individual manager of volunteers at the same time it builds recognition of the field itself as a legitimate profession (CCVA, 2008). This is especially true for the field of volunteer management whose own practitioners identified professional development as a highly ranked need (Culp & Nolan, 2001).

At first, the competencies were developed to help the program directors conduct a self-assessment of their skill level by identifying gaps in their training and providing definitions for the kind of work they were doing. In addition, they wanted a structured framework to guide their professional development. Building on previous models from the field, which also validated the results of the self assessment, the competencies for managers of volunteers gradually emerged. Leadership and advocacy skills turned out to be important competencies for both the program directors and in the literature of volunteer management.

After looking at a number of models, we found that program directors not only were involved with volunteer management, they were also responsible for human resources management, project management, supervision, financial management, risk management, technology, and reporting activities. In many cases, whether by choice or default, their jobs also demanded that they play a leadership role within their own organization and in the community at large.

The competencies include four major domains: (1) managing self, (2) managing people, (3) managing projects and programs, and (4) leading organizations. Each category contains specific competencies which, in turn, include a novice-to-expert continuum. The continuum enables a manager of volunteers to assess his/her current strengths and needs to implement an individualized professional development plan. This chapter describes how the competencies facilitate the professional development of individual managers of volunteers while advancing the profession as a whole. The benefits and implications of professionalizing the field are important not only to managers of volunteers, but to partners, host agencies, consumers, and communities, all of whom benefit from the oversight, mentoring, and leadership of a professionally prepared manager of volunteers. Many of the competencies were incorporated into the body of knowledge which was developed by the CCVA in 2008.

Competencies for Managers of Volunteers

Exhibit M.1 summarizes the competencies for managers of volunteers. In developing the competencies framework, it was apparent that the categories of managing people, projects, and leadership were neither developmental nor hierarchical. Some managers began their careers in leadership and over time acquired skills in management, supervision, or technology. A manager of volunteers may have considerable expertise in community leadership, but may never need to acquire the skills of financial management. In short, not all managers of volunteers start their careers in the same place.

Managing People

A. Supervision and Human Resources

Recruiting, screening, selecting, inducting, placing, managing, and developing volunteers.

1. Identify need for volunteer in the agency
2. Recruit volunteers
3. Select and place volunteers
4. Orient volunteers and staff
5. Develop volunteer performance measurement system
6. Assess and provide feedback on performance
7. Recognize, reward, and retain volunteers

Managing Projects and Programs

B. Management and Operations

Implementing the processes and structures to manage and develop projects and operations.

1. Manage or oversee projects
2. Develop and manage financial processes
3. Manage technology
4. Manage risk
5. Develop and maintain record keeping and documentation system
6. Manage quality
7. Develop and revise policies, processes and procedures.

Leading Organizations

C. Leadership

Investing personal integrity and assets to advance individual, agency, and community goals.

1. Articulate and commit to the organization's vision connects vision to goals,
2. Partner, collaborate, work w/ others and facilitate work groups
3. Empower others
4. Convert needs into objectives and action plans
5. Learn, apply, and model the professional principles of volunteer management

Managing Self

Traits and Characteristics	Core Competencies
• Integrity and Honesty	• Interpersonal skills
• Resilience	• Communications (written and verbal)
• Flexibility	• Problem solving/ analytical skills
• Initiative	• Lifelong learning

EXHIBIT M.1 Competencies Summary

The Managing Self category (traits and characteristics, core competencies) includes personal traits intrinsic to the individual that serve as the foundation for acquiring the skills and knowledge necessary to advance professionally. Besides Managing Self, three additional categories of competencies are required of a typical manager of volunteers: (1) Managing People (supervision and human resources), (2) Managing Projects and Programs (management and operations), and (3) Leading Organizations (leadership). The leadership competencies are the link between the individual manager of volunteers, the organization, and the community. An effective, professional manager of volunteers understands his/her role in the organization and includes advocating for the volunteer program in the context of both the sponsoring organization and the community.

For a volunteer program to be successful in the host organization, the manager of volunteers needs to clearly articulate the value and benefit of the volunteer function to the management team by demonstrating how the volunteer entity contributes to (a) achieving the agency's goals, (b) enhancing the agency's collaboration with other organizations in the community, (c) empowering the volunteers themselves and populations that they serve, (d) developing and implementing the strategic plan, and (e) promoting the worth and value of the volunteer management profession.

Novice to Expert Continuum

The Novice to Expert continuum stems from a framework created by the National Institute for Literacy in *Equipped for the Future* to describe the core skills required for functioning as a successful adult (Stein, 2000). The program directors understood that having each competency described from novice to expert could serve as a guideline for designing their own professional development plans, and enable them to put into words the work they were already doing. In contrast to the competencies themselves, the path from novice to expert is developmental, that is, the foundation of knowledge and skills required of a novice is a necessary prerequisite for developing the more sophisticated skills of adaptation and advocacy associated with the demonstration of expertise and experience (see Exhibit M.2).

At the *novice* level, a manager of volunteers is expected to acquire the basic vocabulary and knowledge of the field. At this level, the manager should at least understand the terminology and broad topics associated with volunteer management. At the *intermediate* level, the manager of volunteers begins to apply the skills and knowledge acquired through both direct education and experience. At the *advanced* level, the manager plans, does, studies, and adapts (PDSA). This is the "reflective" practitioner who is able to apply his/her knowledge, skills, and experience to a variety of situations and assess their effectiveness. At the *expert* level, a manager of volunteers is able to "apply their knowledge in a range of contexts." S/He often has difficulty telling you how s/he knows what s/he knows, because the information or skill and its application have become so "automatic." The expert manager of volunteers contributes to the larger mission of the agency, participates in planning with senior management, serves as a member of a program development team, and brings a wide range of experience and perspectives. Frequently, an expert also trains others to assume leadership roles, especially in programs where volunteers operate on their own and need someone to guide their work and provide feedback.

The training offered to managers of volunteers generally focuses on the novice level. In part, this is a function of the frequent turnover inherent in volunteer programs and the need to constantly orient and develop new or additional staff members that are called upon to manage volunteer functions. Often, professional meetings and conferences promise a higher level of professional development;

Skill Level	Indicators
"Novice" Acquire basic vocabulary and knowledge	☐ Able to identify professional strengths and weaknesses ☐ Able to develop a self improvement plan ☐ Know the formal organizational structure for volunteer management
"Intermediate" Apply skills and knowledge	☐ Participate in relevant professional development in formal and non-formal educational settings ☐ Incorporate changes resulting from educational programs into volunteer management practices ☐ Access resources related to volunteer management practices
"Advanced" Plan, Do, Study, Adapt (PDSA)	☐ Recognize the value of role of volunteer manager ☐ Develop a professional network and participate with others in promoting the field ☐ Share best practices developed resulting from experience ☐ Seek professional credentials that acknowledge their work as volunteer managers
"Expert" Apply knowledge in a range of contexts	☐ Demonstrate conceptual knowledge of the role of volunteer management within the nonprofit world ☐ Articulate the importance of the profession of volunteer manager to the agency and the community ☐ Mentor other volunteer managers ☐ Advocate for the advancement of the field of volunteer management

EXHIBIT M.2 Novice to Expert Continuum

instead, most offerings focus on the novice level of recruitment and selection of volunteers. Advanced training ought to focus on the conceptual level rather than the operational level. The Novice to Expert continuum provides a new model to distinguish between the needs of a novice level manager and an expert manager of volunteers. This has proven useful in targeting training to meet the needs of participants at whatever level they operate.

Transforming Managers of Volunteers

Early in the process the program directors acknowledged that transformation occurred for them personally, in part by using the competencies as a tool for self-reflection, by reading and discussing relevant articles, and sharing their perspectives with their peers. They began to understand that their roles could expand from the person whose only responsibility was to manage people, to a person who also managed projects, evaluated risk, and used technology. Gradually, the program directors began to understand that they needed to advocate for their program and to build a stronger relationship with their agency director and management team. As a result of this understanding, they gained confidence in themselves and respect from their peers within the organization. This self-reflection and explicit understanding of personal growth is consistent with Lester's more fluid description of 'professionalization.'

These changes in their understanding exemplified a "perspective transformation" described by Mezirow (1978) that is a process of becoming critically aware of how personal beliefs constrain the way individuals see their relationships and the world in which they live and work. "Perspective-taking" implies a conscious recognition of the difference between one's old perception as "just a coordinator of volunteers" and a new perspective as a "professional manager of volunteers." The program directors' recognition of this positive change demonstrated a desire to appropriate the newer perspective because they saw it as having more value. Mezirow observed that conceptualizing one's self image in the process of "perspective-taking" is developmentally a function of maturity. The significance of Mezirow's theory to managers of volunteers is that they need to combine their ongoing accumulation of experience with corresponding episodes of self-reflection and a widening of their perspective to understand that they have a broader role in the community. It is not just about matching volunteers to the requirements and needs of the community organization; it is about asserting community leadership, creating community partnerships, building community capacity, and empowering communities.

Part of the transformation process among the program directors was their desire for some formal recognition of their professional growth. When the program directors investigated various forms of certification, they decided to pursue the Certification in Volunteer Administration (CVA). They began to expand their perspective from their individual role as a manager of volunteers to a larger picture of the profession as a whole, and the context in which it operates. It was clearly a transformational experience as they began to comprehend the shift in themselves from project managers to leaders and professionals. The program directors used the competencies to describe their work; they used the novice-to-expert continuum to plot their professional development; and they were able to place themselves in the larger context of the field. This new awareness led them to view themselves as "players" within the larger context of the profession of volunteer management. Hence, what began as an exercise in professional development for local program directors turned out to have the tangential benefit of making a contribution to advancing the field of volunteer management. The roles of leadership and advocacy are as important for any manager of volunteers as the role of human resources manager. As the demands on the profession continue to grow and become more complex, leadership and advocacy are even more important.

Ideally, professional managers will be recognized for their accomplishments and have a place at the nonprofit and community strategic planning table, so that they become effective advocates for their program and for the populations they serve. From the perspective of the field of volunteer resource management, the profession of volunteer management has identified its own unique set of skills, knowledge, and ethical standards that serve as the basis for professional certification—what the Council for Certification of Volunteer Administration (CCVA) recognizes and continues to offer.

Taken together, the CCVA certification process and the Competencies for Managers of Volunteers provide a framework and tools that describe both the expectations of the profession and a model for those who strive to be professional managers of volunteers. The competencies are a body of knowledge, a set of standards that guide professional development and practice to assure that managers of volunteers are capable, competent, and committed to the public good. The competencies and the body of knowledge of the CVA are ways of galvanizing the field by serving as a standard for formal and non-formal education and by creating the basis for strengthening a profession that is on equal footing with other professions in the nonprofit world in which managers of volunteers are called upon to serve.

Credentialing and Certification

The term credentialing as defined by the National Organization for Competency Assurance (NOCA), now the Institute for Credentialing Excellence (ICE), is an "umbrella term that includes the concepts of accreditation, licensure, registration, and professional certification" (Durley, 2005). For more than 30 years, NOCA and its predecessor organizations have promoted excellence in credentialing through education, research, advocacy, standard setting, and accreditation. NOCA is the worldwide leader in providing knowledge and information to assist certification professionals in developing and managing high-quality certification programs. In 2009, NOCA became the Institute for Credentialing Excellence (ICE). Today, ICE is a non-profit, 501(c)(3) organization dedicated to providing educational, networking and advocacy resources for the credentialing community. The process of "credentialing" establishes a standard for "fairness, quality, and competence" for those who seek to advance professionally. It also provides formal recognition to those in the nonprofit community, their community partners, and funders that the field of volunteer management meets certain "predetermined and standardized criteria."

It is worth noting the distinctions between professional certification (as developed by CCVA) and the various certificate programs available from many different sources. Professional certification combines consensus-based standards, testing using acceptable psychometric requirements, and demonstrated success in the field. By way of contrast, NOCA/ICE describes "three types of certificate programs: knowledge-based certificate, curriculum-based certificate, and certificate of attendance or participation." A knowledge-based certificate is focused on "a narrow scope of specialized knowledge used in performing duties or tasks required" by the profession. This requires passing some sort of test. A curriculum-based certificate is awarded after the completion of a course or courses followed by an exam. A certificate of attendance or participation reflects only that a person completed the time required, not that the individual demonstrated any competence. (Durley 2005)

For the purposes of this chapter as it relates to the profession of volunteer management, credentialing will refer primarily to the professional certification that has been developed as the CVA. The CCVA has been thorough and professional in its development of the credentialing process using the standards of NOCA and ICE. The credentialing process seeks to maintain quality standards, to provide an incentive for lifelong learning, and to confer a professional identity.

The CVA Professional Credential

For more than thirty years the Association of Volunteer Administration (AVA) served as the national leader for professionals in the field of volunteer management. They created the body of knowledge, the code of ethics, and the certification process. The AVA collapsed in 2004. Several other national efforts have attempted to create a new national association to represent practitioners, consultants, and programs in the field of volunteer management. This is an ongoing effort. The certification process was retained and the CVA credential, offered for practitioners in volunteer resources management, is now sponsored by the CCVA. Unlike many certificate or certification programs being offered by colleges and universities, this professional credentialing program is performance-based. Intended for those with some experience, this self-study program measures an individual's knowledge-in-use—the application of knowledge and skills by those with real-life experience in this role. This includes assessment of a candidate's ability to structure tasks, process ideas, and solve problems.

The CVA Credentialing Program

The CVA credentialing program:

- Is voluntary
- Is performance-based
- Is grounded in core competencies and standards developed by colleagues and peers
- Defines volunteer administration as a profession
- Provides a vehicle for updating best practices
- Is open to salaried and non-salaried individuals from all types of organizations

The CVA Core Competencies

Individuals pursuing the CVA credential are expected to demonstrate successfully their knowledge and ability to apply skills required for competent volunteer management, based on their actual performance in the role. Five core competencies have been identified that serve as a foundation for this profession, regardless of the setting or type of organization where volunteers are engaged. These five core competencies are:

- Ethics—The ability to act in accordance with professional principles.
- Organizational Management—The ability to design and implement policies, processes and structures to align volunteer involvement with the mission and vision of the organization.
- Human Resource Management—The ability to successfully engage, train and support volunteers in a systematic and intentional way.
- Accountability—The ability to collect relevant data and to engage in meaningful monitoring, evaluation, and reporting to stakeholders.

- Leadership and Advocacy —The investment of personal integrity, skills and attitudes to advance individual, organizational and community goals through effective volunteer involvement.

The CVA Credentialing Process

The CVA credentialing process is a two-part process that involves both a Portfolio and an Exam. The Portfolio portion includes a philosophy statement that reflects a person's values and beliefs about volunteering and the role it has played in their life both personally and professionally. The Portfolio includes an Ethics Case Study designed to demonstrate an applicant's understanding of the ethical foundation of the profession and to recognize an ethical dilemma when faced with one. The Portfolio then includes a Management Narrative in which the applicant describes in detail their experience in using and incorporating in their work the core competencies for managers of volunteers. The Portfolio is designed to demonstrate professional competence in the field. The Portfolio is reviewed by peers. The Exam portion of the credential is a standardized multiple-choice exam that meets psychometric standards and reflects the material in textbooks and other recommended readings. To receive the CVA credential, an applicant must pass both the exam and the portfolio.

Conclusion

What Does it Take to be Considered a Profession?

It is the opinion of the authors that the field of volunteer management is clearly moving in the direction of being considered and valued as a profession. Despite the arguments that volunteer management lacks objectivity, rules, codes of practice, the ability to limit access to the field, and a self-regulatory enforcement body, the more fluid criteria described by Kimball (1995), Lester (2010), and others are more than sufficient to describe the evolution of the profession of volunteer management as a field that relies on a portfolio of learning activities individual to the practitioner, integrated by personal identity, perspectives, values and capabilities. These professional standards are often negotiated by the participants through reflective practice and a practice of continual questioning and refinement of knowledge, values and beliefs. Commitment of professionals in the field, the institutionalization of the CVA, a well-articulated body of knowledge, a code of ethics, and a commitment to public service are all hallmarks of an emerging profession (Houle, 1980).

The Manager of Volunteer Resources as a Professional

Throughout this chapter we have described both those characteristics of individual practitioners and the standards of the field. Practitioners themselves need to be self-aware and outwardly committed to the larger sphere in which they operate. The competencies for individual managers of volunteer resources and those affiliated with the larger field of volunteer management all boil down to four core elements.

The core elements of being professional are: (a) character, (b) competence, (c) commitment, and (d) courtesy in client advocacy and community service where:

(1) **Character** equals moral traits and behaviors like integrity, morality, altruism and service on behalf of the public good. It includes adherence to the ethical standards of the profession, which describe a set of core inter-connected values, which for volunteer management includes citizenship and philanthropy, respect, responsibility, compassion, generosity, justice, fairness, and trustworthiness. (CCVA: www.cvacert.org/professional.htm)
(2) **Competence** is mastery over a unique and exclusive set of knowledge and skills that society allows a manager to use with its members through licensure or certification and ongoing professional development. Competence is what the client, consumer, or volunteer expects from a professional manager of volunteer resources. It means they have confidence in a manager's own knowledge, skills, and their integrity.
(3) **Commitment** is a belief in serving others. It is also a belief in or the internalization of the profession's philosophy and values. It represents the desire to serve the public good and advocate for the profession's role in facilitating civic engagement, societal improvement, and individual and collective rights.
(4) **Courtesy** in client advocacy and community service is that the achievement of an individual or collective goal does not occur at the expense of fairness, honesty, respect, and courtesy for others with whom a manager collaborates or supervises. Integral to respect and dignity is the practice of educating consumers, clients, customers or volunteers as a way to facilitate informed choice, communication with experts, and personal and professional growth.

What Does it Take to be a Competent, Confident, and Professional Manager of Volunteer Resources?

To be competent a volunteer manager needs experience, education, and some history of having applied those skills and knowledge in a variety of settings.

To be confident, a person needs to have accumulated a variety of experiences and education with useful feedback along the way so that a person learns from mistakes as well as successes.

To be professional, a manager may earn a credential, but, more importantly, a manager needs to have a philosophy and a set of ethical standards to guide his/her behaviors, decision-making, and interactions with the volunteers for whom a manager is responsible. It is also important to have a moral sense and a dedication to the public good.

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The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

DIGITAL N

Advocacy in Volunteer Management

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In this chapter, we emphasize the importance of finding and using one's own voice to speak up about (a) one's own professional development, (b) one's own volunteer program, (c) one's own place at the management table, (d) one's engagement in the community as a manager of volunteers, and (d) one's role as a spokesperson for the causes that your organization espouses.

Historical Context and Definitions

In their book, *By the People: A History of Volunteering in America,* Susan Ellis and Katherine Campbell make the case that much of what we know of social and public services in our country has its roots in volunteer action. Citizens identified a need, pulled together a group of people to address the need, and created a response. When early settlers saw the need to protect their community, they created volunteer police protection; when their buildings burned to the ground, they created volunteer fire companies; when they needed to band together to prevent disease and build healthy living, they created hospitals and health care organizations; when families wanted to provide their children with education, they created public schools; whatever the need, citizens pulled together to make something happen.

Over time, these programs, which focused on the "public good," became so widely accepted and embedded in the community that the government assumed sponsorship or regulatory guardianship of many of these services. Yet unmet needs and alternative solutions continue to be met by volunteer organizations, led by a manager of volunteers who is often the linchpin in building a program that responds to a specific need. A key purpose of this chapter on leadership and advocacy is guiding volunteer managers to find their own voices and using them to advance both their own professional development and the program(s) for which they are responsible.

The dictionary definition of advocacy is the act of actively supporting, pleading, recommending, or arguing in favor of something such as a cause, idea, or policy. The *Lobbying and Advocacy Handbook for Nonprofit Organizations* notes that "advocacy is an effort to shape public perception or to effect change that may or may not require changes in the law" (Avner, 2002, p. 26).

In the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration (CCVA)'s body of knowledge (2007) for the Certification for Volunteer Administration (CVA), *Leadership and Advocacy* are defined as "The ability to advance individual, organizational and community goals, advocating for effective volunteer involvement inside of the organization and in the broader community it serves, through the investment of personal integrity, skills, and attitudes."

Leadership and advocacy also apply to the broader context of educating the public, elected officials, and funders who are critical to gaining support for your programs or for social change.

What is "lobbying" in this context? According to the *Lobbying and Advocacy Handbook for Nonprofit Organizations*, "lobbying is a specifically focused form of advocacy to influence legislation—specific laws that are formal statements of public policy" (Avner, 2002, p. 26). Nonprofits are important participants in public debate and efforts to bring about change, whether it is by creating new laws or opposing potentially damaging changes. Sometimes the only available option is to prevent a potentially deleterious policy or practice from being implemented. While managers of volunteers may not typically engage in lobbying, the legal framework supporting the right and responsibility of nonprofit organizations to lobby their elected officials is included at the end of this chapter to provide limited guidance for managers of volunteers who find themselves in a position to influence legislation.

Traditions of Volunteerism

Many organizations struggle with the tension between philanthropic or charitable impulse and social activism. Volunteer programs generally address immediate needs while advocacy campaigns generally address the cause or need for change. Cause-related volunteering quickly becomes advocacy. "For some volunteers, the shift to activism happens when they redefine what they are doing . . . .People who move from volunteering to activism define commitment in a different way. They no longer think of it in terms of time but in terms of personal investment: commitment means you are willing to 'put yourself on the line'" (Musick & Wilson, 2008, p. 20).

Elizabeth Lynn and Susan Wisely, authors of an article entitled "Four Traditions of Philanthropy," note that "central to the history of philanthropy in the United States is a vision of human connectedness" (Davis & Lynn, 2006, p. 210). While the authors refer to philanthropy, these same traditions have shaped how volunteers are engaged in building human connections. Philanthropy as financial support and volunteers as people support work hand in hand. They note that "in the brief history of this nation, we have seen three distinctive philanthropic traditions: relief, improvement, and social reform. Philanthropy as relief operates on the principle of compassion to alleviate human suffering. Philanthropy as improvement operates on the principle of progress to maximize individual human potential. Philanthropy as reform seeks justice to solve social problems." They suggest that the fourth tradition of philanthropy is civic engagement that operates on the principle of participation to build community (Davis & Lynn, 2006, p. 215).

A parallel analysis of volunteerism finds that volunteers generally fit one of these descriptions: They provide direct service to meet human needs (feed the poor, shelter the homeless, clothe those who are cold); they run programs that provide opportunities for self-improvement (after-school programs, youth mentoring, tax aid, literacy programs); they lead reform efforts (better health care, cleaner environment, civil rights, immigrant reform); and they also play important roles in civic engagement (school boards, recreation programs, land trusts, conservation groups). Musick and Wilson (2008) make the case that volunteerism and activism are viewed very differently by participants and by the community at large. They argue that "volunteering targets people; activism targets structures" (p. 18).

An additional perspective considers the difference between charity/philanthropy and empowerment. The focus of charity/philanthropy is on the "haves" providing support, services, goods, and money to the "have-nots"; stewardship and empowerment focus on providing the tools for the "have-not's" to meet their own needs. While the former does not require advocating for change (it is about meeting the needs), the latter requires advocacy by its very nature.

Lead Through Service Learning and Community Service

In recent years, managers of volunteers have confronted the challenge of working with students involved in service-learning projects. Driven by teachers who want learning to be relevant and engaged in the community, students rake leaves, clean beaches, work at food pantries, collect recyclable materials. The activities meet the requirement of fixing things and improving the world they live in, but they often do not go far enough in the direction of real social change because they avoid the difficult conversation about the upstream causes of these issues. Effective service-learning programs include advocacy as part of the learning experience. Managers of volunteers are in a unique position to guide some of that learning in collaboration with teachers. With the guidance of an astute manager of volunteers, an act of caring can become an act of social activism.

Bickford and Reynolds (2002) make the case that the activist potential of service–learning is not likely to be realized unless the questions around the purpose are resolved. It is difficult to work toward a more activist model even though activism expands the ability to engage in effective social change. The article raises cautions about the effectiveness of service-learning activities if they come from the perspective of the privileged helping the less fortunate, or of the community as research subjects for some academic exercise. If the purpose is to obtain greater understanding of the root causes of social issues, then a longer-term commitment to engage collaboratively with the community reaps far better results.

For managers of volunteers who find themselves at the crossroads between students and their teachers, a project that benefits the community is an opportunity for students to confront "activism, critical consciousness, or social change." (Bickford and Reynolds, 2002, p. 235). The authors further argue that "activism argues for relationship based on connection." Our activist relationships are based on common desires . . . It matters whether students see what they are doing as a service or as an activist project contributing to social justice . . . and how (or whether) [they] can achieve substantive structural change in society" (p. 237).

Managers of volunteers are sometimes called upon to engage youth and adults who are doing community service as an alternative sentence for non-violent, first-time offenders. In the author's experience, more than one nonprofit staff person has rolled his eyes at the mention of these community service volunteers. At the most basic level, nonprofit staff fear they are going to have to oversee someone who is considered antisocial, or they believe that the volunteer's assignment should "feel like a punishment" or the opposite—i.e., that the person should have an opportunity for redemption by giving back to the community which s/he may have harmed. This confusion makes it easy for a manager of volunteers to find ways not to engage first offenders in the volunteer activities of their organization.

The truth is that opportunities to volunteer should be available to everyone in the community who can provide relief to the suffering, bring about social change, enhance the self-esteem of the volunteer, and build bridges within the community. This sometimes means that the manager of volunteers may have to create ways for engaging young persons—even those youth referred by the courts—as a demonstration of activist spirit and commitment to community building. It may require personal courage on the part of the manager of volunteers, but this is what is required of a leader and advocate.

Find Your Individual Voice

All managers of volunteers have a responsibility to become advocates for themselves, their program, their agency, and for the consumers of their services. That is the conclusion that we've drawn and that shapes what follows.

During 2004, the authors surveyed the literature and colleagues to identify competencies for managers of volunteers. The intent was to create the basis for a professional development plan to be followed by a group of AmeriCorps program directors with whom they worked (Schink & Ullian, 2007). An early lesson from this experience was an understanding of just how many roles the typical manager of volunteers had to assume to be successful. The program directors easily accepted the idea that self-knowledge was important and that managing people and managing projects were essential ingredients in the profession of managing volunteers. But some of them were more reluctant to see the role that leadership and advocacy played in their own professional development. We have come to recognize the critical role of leadership and advocacy at every level—for oneself, for one's program, for one's agency, and for those one serves.

In their book, *The Leadership Challenge,* Kouzes and Posner (2002) start with a commitment to "finding your voice by . . . clarifying your values and by expressing yourself in unique ways. By finding your voice, you take the first step along the endless journey to becoming a credible leader. By constantly asking yourself what value you bring to your constituents you'll always stay at the leading edge" (p. 64). The manager of volunteers sets the tone for the experience of his/her volunteers by creating a climate of trust, which stems from these values. Not only does a climate of trust improve the quality of the volunteers' experience, it can enhance the quality of services by the organization and, potentially, the quality of a constituent's life.

Leadership in this context means "investing personal integrity and assets to advance individual, agency, and community goals" (Schink & Ullian, 2007). Fisher and Cole (1993) in their book, *Leadership and Management of Volunteer Programs,* observed that "key leadership responsibilities [of a manager of volunteers] include setting direction, encouraging others to share that agenda, and inspiring others to help accomplish it. . . . In addition the administrator of volunteer programs is often required to serve as an advocate for the volunteer effort within an organization, removing obstacles so that the vision may be articulated and achieved" (p. 5).

Engage in Personal Empowerment

Many managers of volunteers frequently express discouragement when they claim that no one in their organization knows what they do: that they have no access to senior management; that they do not think of their current position as a step on a career ladder; and that they do not consider themselves leaders. Peter Block (1987) in the *Empowered Manager* addresses many of the conflicts that are created by working in a traditional, hierarchical organization. He argues that personal empowerment is a choice managers of volunteers need to make to establish their own autonomy and to articulate their vision within their organization. Act on that vision and live it every day. "Empowerment is a state of mind as well as a result of position, policies, and practices" (p. 68). The manager of volunteers needs to preemptively create the vision for his/her volunteer program by involving others in developing a strategic vision of how the host organization engages volunteers. Block also says that "positive political skills involve acting with autonomy and compassion in service of a vision . . . The original meaning of politics was to act in the service of society" (p. 23). While over time the meaning of politics has lost much of this optimistic glow, it is still true that the purpose of a volunteer program is to serve the public good; and who better than the manager of volunteers to be its most effective advocate and spokesperson.

To effectively advocate for the volunteer program means taking an objective look at how the program serves the mission and vision of its host organization and understanding the volunteer program's strengths and shortcomings from the inside out. By conducting this type of SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, and Threats) analysis, the manager of volunteers is able to focus on what works and what needs help. Knowing this enables the manager of volunteers to celebrate its strengths and successes and fix its weaknesses, thereby reinforcing the positive reputation of the program in the host organization. The manager of volunteers does not have to wait around for someone to tell him/her to do this. As a matter of fact, the essence of personal empowerment is taking the responsibility and tackling the challenges that may be uncovered. When the manager of volunteers clearly understands and has confidence in the quality of his/her program, he/she can advocate for a larger budget, for expanded roles that volunteers play in the organization, or other strategic actions or initiatives that could strengthen the program and its value to accomplishing the organization's mission.

Typical leadership roles, such as governing and advisory boards, are often entirely outside the scope of responsibility of a manager of volunteers. In this situation, a manager of volunteers may feel very much like an outsider. In the best case, the manager of volunteers must find an advocate or mentor of his/her own to support the volunteer program at the leadership level. At another level, leadership would be wise to engage the manager of volunteers in the work of the nominating committee, because the manager of volunteers is often able to identify potential board members who have been successful volunteers. For the right volunteer, this form of recognition and reward is considered a promotion. An effective manager of volunteers is always on the lookout for talented people with leadership potential.

In other cases, advocacy may actually be the primary responsibility of the manager of volunteers, depending upon how advocacy is defined in each organization. For public events, like fundraising walks, community rallies and parades, the manager of volunteers usually represents the organization as the point person for rounding up the volunteers needed to support implementation. When political advocacy is the chief goal of an organization, the manager of volunteers is often the key person who provides the training, coaching, and organizing of volunteers whose primary role is contacting public officials and elected members of the state legislature and Congress on behalf of the organization.

Advocate for Your Program

Building support for the volunteer program and gaining trust and respect from peers in other departments across an organization are powerful ways to institutionalize the volunteer program in the minds of those who sometimes forget the key role that volunteers play in connecting the organization with the community it serves. An effective volunteer program has the resources to support staff salaries, adequate and visible office space and a reception area, supplies such as recruiting brochures, materials, and postage, adequate technology support to manage a database, financial support for large scale events, a library of resources, training and professional development opportunities for volunteers and staff, and resources for individual volunteer recognition or events. It would not take much to develop an impressive budget that might shock your management/leadership team, but it would indicate what it would take to integrate the volunteer program into the agency's mission and vision.

Advocate for Your Place at the Table

"Administrators of volunteer programs are called on with surprising frequency to stand for and with volunteers on both an individual and a group basis and to promote their acceptance within an organization. The advocacy role requires correcting misinformation, confronting inappropriate attitudes, and responding to inappropriate requests for volunteer services" (Fisher & Cole, 1993, p. 11).

A participant in an advanced volunteer management class recounted the story of her unexpected invitation to a board meeting at the small nonprofit organization where she is the coordinator of volunteers. At a previous board meeting, the executive director announced that the organization had committed to a large and complex collaborative fundraising event and had agreed to provide all of the volunteers for a major part of the event. The board realized that they actually had a position in their organization that could help with this obligation, so they invited the manager of volunteers to be part of the event planning. The previous manager of volunteers remarked that she had never been to a board meeting and observed that this invitation reflected a major mind shift on the part of leadership. While it had been motivated more out of desperation than deliberate intent, it did represent a dramatic shift in how the role of the volunteer program was perceived within the agency. In the end, the manager of volunteers actually coordinated about half of the board members as they set about to fulfill their commitment to recruit up to fifty volunteers in four-hour shifts over five weekends during the holidays. Now that is clearly a leadership role.

Advocate for a Peer Network

Managers of volunteers often feel as if they are operating on their own. Conference and training evaluations almost always include the observation that the best part of the workshop was being able to talk with others who have similar issues. Being part of a peer-to-peer network provides essential personal support and professional development opportunities. Whether it is called a DOVIA (Director of Volunteers in Administration) with a formal structure, a local group of managers of volunteers who meet on a regular basis, an online group email, or blog with an opportunity to share ideas, finding others who share a passion for managing volunteers is an important part of advocating for professional stature in the field. These networks advance the profession by raising the skills and knowledge level of the participants, creating energy around the field, and providing visibility for practitioners in the field of volunteer management.

Although some colleges and universities offer courses in volunteer management and other volunteer organizations provide professional development, the *Certification in Volunteer Administration* (CVA), offered through the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration (CCVA), remains the primary national credential-based program for managers of volunteers. In addition to the traditional topics of managing people, the CCVA recognizes the importance of leadership and advocacy to being a successful manager of volunteers. In the areas of leadership and advocacy, some of these competencies are noted in the following (CCVA, 2010):

CCVA Competencies: Organizational and Community Engagement

1. Articulate and sustain a vision for excellence in volunteer involvement.
2. Create a climate of mutual respect and inclusion, recognizing diversity.

3. Engage volunteers in decision making, listening carefully to the opinions and concerns of others.
4. Commit to coaching/mentoring others, acting as a role model of superior performance.
5. Share resources and responsibility for moving projects forward.
6. Implement activities that serve the community beyond the walls of the organization.
7. Develop strategic alliances with other organizations to meet shared community needs.

CCVA Competencies: Advocacy

1. Advocate through appropriate channels for adequate resources (human, technical, and financial) to support volunteer behavior.
2. Develop and implement appropriate advocacy strategies to influence decisions and actions related to positive and effective volunteer involvement within the organization.
3. Develop and implement appropriate advocacy strategies to positively influence the community's attitudes and behavior related to volunteering.
4. Participate in individual and group activities to advocate for the profession of volunteer administration.

Advocate for Your Organization

At other times the manager of volunteers represents the organization/agency in community collaborations and networks. By itself, this opportunity increases the visibility of the volunteer program in the organization *and* in the community. Learning to advocate requires an understanding of the underlying issues around the problem, the role that the agency's volunteers play in the community, and the perspective of the organization and its level of commitment to the community collaboration. These decisions are made collaboratively between the manager of volunteers and the executive director and leadership team of the organization. It is easy to see that the role played by a manager of volunteers differs widely from organization to organization and from person to person.

Promote the Organization/Agency in the Public Arena

Advocacy takes on several additional roles once the manager of volunteers' focus turns to the community. Some of these roles include (a) providing education and outreach which may mean distributing the organization's newsletter and creating online connections with stakeholders through a website that describes the agency's purpose and resources, (b) being visible at public and private events with colleagues and partners in support of issues related to the organization's programs and services, and (c) inviting elected officials and funders to visit the agency program to demonstrate how volunteers contribute to the mission of the agency and to the community.

Elected officials understand that paying a call on the community's nonprofit organizations—including the volunteer program—is a part of their constituent services responsibility, and so essential to understanding the community they represent. It is not a burden; it is their job to know the agencies that provide services in their hometown.

Advocacy sometimes describes efforts to change how the public, policy makers, and funders respond to your requests for support or for recommended changes in policy and public perception. By engaging volunteers in creating "buzz" about the host organization's programs or by speaking out about changes that improve life, the manager of volunteers is raising the visibility of the agency while at the same time he/she contributes to community building. This is often called "social marketing" but it is still advocacy because the manager of volunteers is using his/her influence to change public opinion or behavior; Buckle Up seat belt campaigns, no smoking programs, and fire prevention public service announcements all constitute social marketing initiatives aimed at changing behavior—which is a form of advocacy. Social marketing describes efforts to bring about behavior change, such as the recent campaigns about hand washing to prevent the spread of the H1N1 virus. Public relations campaigns are designed to improve the agency's image in the community after some bad press or to celebrate an expansion of services due to the merger of two organizations. Straight advertising campaigns may promote new services or recruit new clients to the agency's programs. Facebook, MySpace, LinkedIn, and Twitter make it inexpensive and fast to keep friends and supporters up to date.

Sometimes the manager of volunteers may need to appear before a city council, a local funding committee of a foundation, or the governmental relations committee of a corporation to request funds for the volunteer program or host agency. It is also possible that the manager of volunteers may be invited to present testimony before a legislative committee that is considering a change to a state or federal law. These requests need to be supported by the senior leadership of the host organization to be sure that there is support in case an unforeseen and public controversy occurs.

Conduct an Advocacy Campaign

In the publication *Pathfinder: A Practical Guide to Advocacy Evaluation* (Innovation Network, Inc., 2010), advocacy is the common strategy that organizations use to promote their programs or create social change. "The definition intentionally includes not only traditional advocacy work like litigation, lobbying, and public education, but also capacity building, network formation, relationship building, communication, and leadership development." (introduction).

The manager of volunteers may be flying solo with a few members of his/her organization, or may be part of a larger collaborative effort. Regardless of the simplicity or complexity of an advocacy campaign, many of the steps are the same and are described in Exhibit N.1.

EXHIBIT N.1 Advocacy Campaign: Summary

What	How
Frame the issue	What's the problem? What needs to change? What does success look like?
Identify potential partners and opponents	Who is an agency's key spokesperson? Who do you trust/don't trust? With whom do you agree/disagree? How are you going to work with both?
Recruit volunteers	Have you matched the volunteers' skills with the appropriate assignment?
Collect data	Is the data understandable, relevant, reliable, and valid?
Anticipate and address objections	Do you really understand the opposing point of view and do you have counterpoints prepared based on your understanding?
Develop strategy	Is there agreement about an approach? Is everyone on board? Have potential objections been incorporated? Is there trust?
Prepare message	Are the volunteers trained to speak with stakeholders? Are there sample letters, scripts, and other types of talking points?
Identify delivery method	Have you identified a variety of methods to disseminate the key message(s) to various stakeholders? Have you identified spokesperson(s)?
Identify target for message(s)	What is the appropriate arena of influence to target your message? Have you selected the correct officials or stakeholders?
Deliver message(s)	Have you considered how much or how little time you have to deliver your message? Is the message clear and concise?
Celebrate and give thanks	Have you personally and publicly acknowledged those who have supported you?
Evaluate results	Are you going to use a professional evaluator? Are you going to conduct "reflective practice" sessions to review process and outcomes? Who sees the evaluation results?

Frame the Issue

Be clear about the issue. What may be a primary level issue for one organization may be very different for another. All stakeholders need to identify their own bottom-line non-negotiable items. Some organizations may support only one of the issues that brought a coalition together. Open conversations early in the process need to establish guidelines about what action will be taken in the name of the coalition.

Identify Potential Partners and Opponents

Sometimes coalitions create strange bedfellows. Organizations may work together towards a single policy goal even if their reasons for supporting the effort grow out of conflicting points of view. At the point where the idea becomes a project, the manager of volunteers may become the point person, or, in other instances, may be replaced by the Executive Director on the coalition, knowing that the ultimate responsibility for implementing the plan will come back to the manager of volunteers. None of this is written in stone, so flexibility, maturity, and confidence are valuable gifts for a manager of volunteers who finds him/herself in this kind of unclear situation.

Peter Block (1987) describes allies and adversaries, noting that "those whom we need to influence become our adversaries and allies on the basis of two dimensions: agreement and trust" (p. 138). Even those with whom you share agreement on issues and with whom you have a high level of trust need to be approached with consistency and care to reinforce those areas where you share common goals and to solidify the good working relationship you have developed over time. Those with low agreement and low trust are considered adversaries. You may not know what they will do in any given situation. But opponents are those with whom you disagree, but whose credibility and integrity you trust. A volunteer program may well be involved in these types of relationships if you collaborate with others or often clash over public policy issues (Block, 1987). A common saying in advocacy is "today's enemy may be tomorrow's best friend." Never consider today's opponent as a permanent adversary. Organizations support or oppose a wide range of issues and, more likely than not, organizations will find common ground on one issue and bitter division on others. Civility, perspective, and respect all affect how organizations do or do not collaborate. Maintaining good relationships with individuals and organizations in your community is an essential ingredient in developing a reputation for ethical behavior and trustworthiness.

Recruit Volunteers

Not every volunteer is comfortable undertaking advocacy. Others just love the idea. To them advocacy is really fun. Those who have worked in sales, those extroverts who love being in the public eye, and those with good people skills find this energizing work. It may be a form of reward for someone who has faithfully served as a volunteer doing work in the background. Some volunteers may be effective at researching issues, creating policy papers, and developing lobbying materials, but want nothing to do with the actual presentations. Others are excellent organizers who can pull people and resources together to make things run smoothly.

It is critical that each volunteer understands the limits of the work they are being asked to do. Clearly state the boundaries of what they are authorized to say on behalf of their organization. Ask that they limit their conversation to the issues identified in the particular campaign. It is tempting for volunteers to use that time to lobby on more than one issue and perhaps representing more than one organization. Discourage this as much as possible. It can be confusing to legislators and sometimes it can actually undermine the effort.

Often the policy wonks are the ones designated to present the case to public officials, but hard learning has proven that it takes both the subject matter expert and the people person to make a lasting impression on a legislator. In sales that may be called the "closer" and the "proof statement," but it is worth noting. A person with emotional intelligence can break the ice, establish rapport, and set the stage for the presentation of the data. The policy expert then makes the case and presents the arguments for the proposed action. The extrovert with good people skills knows when to push, when to agree to disagree, and when to close. Not all volunteers will have these skills, but knowing the volunteers well will help to pair up those who make good teams.

Collect Data

When developing position papers and handouts, authors must be sure that data is accurate with sources provided. Questionable data or data based on inadequate research or data collection methods increases the vulnerability of the advocate's position to opposition arguments. Emotionally-based appeals do not generally win arguments in the long run. Conversely, too much data in an unreadable form can overwhelm the public official or funder or potential partner the agency is trying to influence. It is best to use a plain language approach that distills complex issues into simple, straightforward, and neutral language that is easily understood by stakeholders. This may require the professional skills of an agency staff person or of a very special volunteer. Being known as a trusted source of sound information makes the manager of volunteers an important ally to a public official and other stakeholders overwhelmed with data and information from a multitude of sources.

Anticipate and Address Objections

Listen to and understand what the opponents are saying and find data that refutes their claims. Reframe their statements to an alternative conclusion that reinforces the agency's position. Unpleasant surprises about the arguments of opponents leave advocates looking unprepared. A volunteer lobbyist who is prepared with several different arguments may find an unexpected ally who is waffling over what position to take. Sometimes a public official is honestly looking for a reason to take a position. Rarely does a campaign hinge on only one argument. Good listening is a key ingredient to an advocacy campaign. Volunteer lobbyists or advocates are as effective as professionals (and maybe more so) because they represent the views of the average citizen.

Develop Strategy

When working in a coalition, it is best to coordinate position papers to present a consistent point of view. It is helpful to identify a specific focus that represents each organization and using data that supports each partner agency's perspective. In other situations one position paper is all that is necessary to represent the entire coalition speaking as one voice. When a coalition decides to collaborate on strategy, it is important to "lay all their cards on the table." This is where a high level of trust comes into play. Agreement is essential to the collaborative, but trusting when in doubt is part of holding it all together in the chaos of a campaign. Organizations often differ on strategy or the main message. In these cases, it is sometimes better to trust the experts and stick to a strategy even when you have doubts about its effectiveness.

Prepare Message

A manager of volunteers who is directing an advocacy campaign needs to be sure that the volunteer advocates are well prepared for an encounter with a public official or the media. Provide the volunteers with key talking points, background materials, and even a sample script. Give the volunteer advocates opportunities to practice interviewing public officials and give them feedback. Sample letters are also effective methods for helping constituents to communicate with their public officials.

Identify Method of Delivery

Not every issue needs a public campaign. Some other approaches include: (a) launching a letter-writing initiative to the local newspaper; (b) presenting testimony at a public hearing; (c) pulling together like-minded groups to participate in a public rally; (d) visiting each local city council member outside of public scrutiny; and (e) developing and posting cheerleading messages on a social network such as Facebook, Twitter, or MySpace to broadcast a point of view to a large number of "friends." These types of messages can take on a life of their own once they are launched into the "blogosphere" so it is important for them to be clear, simple, and compelling. Related approaches of sending email to state representatives and Members of Congress are common occurrences.

In-person visits require more planning and lead time. Large group visits to the state or national capitol create visibility and often get the kind of press that a local visit would not. Working through the press may be more effective in creating the climate for change than trying to influence an individual public official. Experience is the only reliable teacher in assessing the best way to achieve your goal.

Identify the Target for Your Message

The *Lobbying and Advocacy Handbook for Nonprofit Organizations* describes "arenas of influence" as those "places where public policy is decided" (Avner, 2002, p. 26). This may be Congress, the state legislature, the state executive branch agency, the judiciary, the local city council, or the school board. Governments are not the only targets for advocacy campaigns. If a local company has discriminatory hiring practices, or takes a position the manager of volunteer's host agency opposes, the agency has the same right and obligation to make its voice heard with private as well as public entities. The agency needs to be clear about whose jurisdiction is the target for the advocacy efforts. It is important to select the proper official to address the agency's issue. Targeting the right person is important to accomplishing the goal of changing a policy or practice.

Deliver Messages

Public officials usually allocate about 15 to 30 minutes to meet with constituents. Local officials may have more time, but many of them serve part time or are volunteers so their time is limited too. State legislators also have many conflicting demands. Members of Congress usually have staff to help them stick to a strict timetable. The agency volunteer should be prepared to share information with staff. Most members of Congress have district staff with specific responsibilities for different subject areas. They are a valuable resource and have the ability to get the agency's information to the appropriate member of Congress. By providing them with clear and concise information, the agency can become a trusted ally to provide timely feedback to the member of Congress when local insight and policy impacts are sought. As a member of a nonprofit organization with a reputation in your community for providing good service, you are a valuable asset to the community you serve.

Not all negotiations take place in public. Sometimes public officials readily state their positions to the media and anyone else who will listen. Other times they really do not know how they will vote on an issue. Or they are waiting for their colleagues to help them decide. A one-on-one meeting with someone who is undecided provides a unique opportunity to have a candid discussion of the issues. If a volunteer lobbyist is well-prepared with the arguments, the public official may be genuinely interested in different perspectives. These off-the-record meetings are the stuff of Hollywood films, but they are available to nonprofit organizations as well as any high-paid lobbyist. Consider it the role of the nonprofit organization to provide a valid reason to support the cause that has generated passion in your organization or coalition.

If the volunteer advocate is appearing before a public body:

- Start with a quick summary of who you are and who your organization is.
- Provide concrete numbers.
- Be brief and to the point.
- Prepare testimony using compelling local stories.
- Bring copies of the information for all members of the body at which he/she is appearing.
- Present a few key points without reading the entire written testimony.
- Be open to questions. Be willing to say "I don't know, but I will get back to you." And do it.

Celebrate and Give Thanks

Whatever the outcome, the effort must be honored and celebrated. New connections have been made, new partnerships forged, and friendships initiated that grew out of the effort. And perhaps the public has changed its mind, even if the elected officials have not. Public officials and friends in the media who stuck their necks out for the cause you espouse need genuine and swift thanks. In this day and age of high pressure tactics and big money politics, the voices of nonprofits are more important than ever. The arguments the coalition made, the issues addressed, and the stories presented all have the potential of providing the key idea that a public official needed to change his/her mind or take an unpopular position that supports the coalition's goals. These people need and expect appreciation for their votes. And if they disappoint, they expect to hear from the nonprofit sector as well. Rarely does social change occur in the first attempt. Be prepared to solidify the relationships made during a campaign to build the foundation for the next attempt.

Evaluate Results

Evaluating results is an opportunity to reflect on what worked and what could be improved in any advocacy endeavor. This could take the form of either a formal evaluation using a professional evaluator or assembling the coalition or in-house team to review what went well and what needed to be done differently. In either case, the groups should derive valuable lessons about conducting advocacy campaigns. "The primary reason to use learning-focused advocacy evaluation is to better understand your work: to create a feedback loop of information that enriches decision making, strengthens your approach, and leads to success" (Innovation Network, Inc., 2010, p. 2). The lessons learned from an evaluation or "reflective practice" are useful for guiding similar projects in the future. In addition, the lessons and any data collected during the campaign will be valuable supplemental material for any future projects. If an evaluation is conducted during the process, the factors that facilitate or inhibit progress will be identified and used to make mid-course corrections. If an evaluation is conducted after the project is completed (outcomes), some insights may be gained that connect processes to the achieved or unachieved outcomes. The audience for the evaluation includes stakeholders, such as coalition members, board and staff of the manager of volunteer's organization, and funders. For the purpose of the evaluation, a decision has to be made early on about what the various stakeholders want to know, what data will be collected, how that data will be analyzed, and how and to whom the results will be distributed.

Advocate Within the Law

> *Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.*
>
> — The First Amendment to the U.S. Constitution (First Amendment Center, n.d.)

U.S. Constitution

One of the reasons people give for staying away from advocacy efforts is the belief that nonprofit organizations cannot lobby. This is not true. In fact, nonprofits have a social responsibility to share how programs do or do not meet the needs of the populations that they are designed to help. At the most basic level, all American citizens, including nonprofit organizations, have constitutional rights guaranteed in the Bill of Rights.

All of the examples of activities listed below are protected by the constitution, and managers of volunteers often lead these campaigns by engaging community members to gain support for their cause.

- Rallies in the town square protesting the dumping of hazardous waste
- Letter writing campaigns to town officials about pollution of the town streams

- Lawsuits challenging policies funding sports for boys but not for girls
- Campaigns for election law reform allowing voters to register at the government offices

Federal and State Laws and Regulations

Few managers of volunteers are likely to engage in any substantial lobbying, except in those organizations where this is a major program priority. But the manager of volunteers needs to understand the basic framework of the law regarding what constitutes lobbying. Laws regulating lobbying and disclosure vary widely from state to state; it is important to understand the framework in your state.

In 1976 Congress passed Section 1307 of Public Law 94-455, recognizing "*lobbying as an entirely proper function of nonprofits* [emphasis added] and ended the uncertainty about lobbying by groups that are tax exempt under Section 501(c)(3) of the Internal Revenue Code." Section 1307 created new sections of the IRS code, *Sections 4911* and *501(h)*. Section 4911 spells out how much can be spent on lobbying. Section 501(h) provides information on electing to come under the provisions of PL 94-455 (Smucker, 1999). Organizations can 'elect' to be covered by the law by filing Internal Revenue Service Form 5768. Although not all nonprofits make this election, it is important for a manager of volunteers to know whether or not his/her host agency has elected this option or has decided to operate under the guidelines governing 501(c)(3) organizations.

The Tax Code is concerned primarily that these nonprofit organizations have special exemptions from taxation granted through the Internal Revenue Service. While the legislative branch creates the laws that *bind* the activities of nonprofits, the executive branch through the IRS and OMB *regulates* that activity. The judicial branch *interprets* laws based on court cases brought to challenge laws or to request clarification.

Internal Revenue Service

What is a 501(c)(3) organization?

According to the IRS designation, 501(c)(3) organizations have a charitable purpose which is very broadly defined to include, "charitable, religious, educational, scientific, literary, testing for public safety, fostering national or international amateur sports competition, and preventing cruelty to children or animals. The term charitable is used in its generally accepted legal sense and includes relief of the poor, the distressed, or the underprivileged; advancement of religion; advancement of education or science; erecting or maintaining public buildings, monuments, or works; lessening the burdens of government; lessening neighborhood tensions; eliminating prejudice and discrimination; defending human and civil rights secured by law; and combating community deterioration and juvenile delinquency" (www.irs.gov/charities/charitable/article/0,,id=175418,00.html).

Many organizations considered to be part of the nonprofit community are not necessarily 501(c)(3) organizations. Some organizations are 501(c)(4) organizations whose overriding purpose is providing a social and community benefit (IRC 501(c)(4) Organizations, page I-6). These organizations have much broader latitude for lobbying. For instance, the League of Women Voters is a 501(c)(4) largely because it is "a nonpartisan political organization,[that] encourages informed and active participation in government, works to increase understanding of major public policy issues, and influences public policy through education and advocacy." In later years, they created a separate 501(c)(3) to conduct nonpartisan educational activities. Other organizations have also opted to create separate organizations to ensure that their charitable purpose is clearly distinguished from their lobbying activities. Nonprofits that are designated 501(c)(6) have a common business interest or trade association. The association may be tax exempt even if the individual businesses are for-profit entities. The goal is to improve business conditions for the business community as a whole.

The final version of the IRS regulations was adopted fourteen years after the passage of the 1976 Lobbying Act. After twenty years of experience with these regulations, the expectations are clear. The important feature of the law and the regulation is summarized below.

> *1976 Lobbying Act: Key Points:*
>
> *. . . in understanding the 1976 lobby law, it helps to know that lobbying, for a nonprofit electing to come under the law, is only the expenditure of money by the organization for the purpose of attempting to influence legislation. Where there is no expenditure by the organization for lobbying, there is no lobbying by the organization. Therefore, lobbying by a volunteer for a nonprofit is not counted as a lobbying expenditure to the organization and is not lobbying.*
>
> *If, however, the volunteer is reimbursed by the nonprofit for out-of-pocket expenditures, then the reimbursed funds do count as a lobbying expenditure. But it's important to keep in mind the point that lobbying occurs only when there is an expenditure of funds for an activity that meets the other criteria for lobbying.* (Smucker, 1999, p. 51)

The Center for Lobbying in the Public Interest (CLPI, 2008) defines lobbying as "a specific, legally defined activity that involves stating your position on specific legislation to legislators and/or asking them to support your position." (p. 1)

The term *direct lobbying* means the communications an agency has about legislation with (1) legislators or governmental officials who participate in the formulation of legislation and (2) its own members. Direct lobbying includes visiting a congressperson about a bill and getting in touch with the agency's members and urging them to contact legislators (Smucker, 1999, p. 51).

Grassroots lobbying refers to "communicating your position on particular legislation to the general public, and then asking the general public to contact their elected representatives to request their support of this position" (CLPI, 2008, p. 1). For those organizations who opt for the 501(h) election "the ceiling for a nonprofit's spending on grassroots lobbying is one-fourth of the total allowable lobbying expenditures" (Smucker, p. 51).

The general rule of Section 501(c)(3) is that "no substantial part" of an organization's activities can be considered lobbying. No one has ever determined a standard for "no substantial part," but that caution alone often inhibits nonprofits' activities. Any manager of volunteers who has concerns about this issue should check with the

Executive Director or legal staff to ensure that no advocacy activity puts them over that line.

It may be easier to note what nonprofits **cannot** do (CLPI, 2008, p. 17):

- Nonprofits cannot support or oppose political candidates nor mobilize supporters to elect or defeat candidates.
- Nonprofits cannot align themselves with political parties.
- Nonprofits cannot contribute to candidates or parties.

Office of Budget and Management

In the 1980s the Office of Budget and Management or OMB (an executive branch agency) made several attempts to further restrict the ability of nonprofit organizations that received federal funds to communicate with the legislative and other executive branch agencies. These efforts were in violation of the spirit and the intent of the 1976 law which gave broad powers to nonprofits to communicate with government officials. These efforts were turned back, but not without strenuous lobbying by nonprofit organizations. However, internal monitoring of nonprofit organizations that received federal grant funds, for instance, often had a profoundly chilling effect on the nonprofit that chose to engage in advocacy activities. Federal grants frequently made it a point to specifically prohibit advocacy and lobbying activities of the recipients of those funds as a condition of receiving the grant.

Federal Elections Commission

In some instances nonprofits have come up against laws regulating financial contributions to campaigns that are closely aligned with candidates. What are the distinctions between lobbying for an issue, a policy, or legislation and actually supporting a political candidate? This is a fine line when candidates are closely identified with certain legislative issues or campaigns. Political Action Committees (PACs) are common in issue campaigns and the manager of volunteer's nonprofit organization may be asked to participate if it is part of an activist coalition. During heated election campaigns, the nonprofit may feel considerable pressure to participate in this type of advertising through PACs. The manager of volunteers needs clear guidance from his/her board and executive director before agreeing to participate in any of these campaigns. He/she also needs to be clear about which funds are being used for such a campaign. If the manager of volunteers sees that his/her organization is struggling with this issue, he/she can provide helpful information to them by becoming familiar with the rules that govern advocacy and lobbying. The nonprofit's board should be informed about these issues and know where to draw the line using their mission and their own sense of values and ethics as guidelines. In short, the nonprofit should have policies that articulate which issues it will support or oppose with advocacy. These same policies will also guide the manager of volunteers. To repeat, many of these activities do not involve the expenditure of funds; the lobbying rules are designed to govern the expenditure of funds, not to control the activity of volunteer advocates.

The lobbying that most nonprofits are warned against is limited to support or opposition of candidates or exhorting the general public to support or oppose specific legislative proposals. Most nonprofits can safely advocate in the public arena as long as they do not expend a substantial percentage of their funds for this purpose.

The manager of volunteers should check frequently with the executive director or president of the organization to ensure that any activities undertaken by volunteers on behalf of the organization are within the limits of the laws governing a nonprofit organization. The manager of volunteers is not necessarily expected to be the expert in these areas, but he/she can establish credibility and the confidence of the executive director and board by guiding the agency to the relevant information. Many excellent resources are found in the Reference section at the end of this chapter. The Center for Lobbying in the Public Interest (2008) published an effective short booklet entitled *Making a Difference For Your Cause: Strategies for Nonprofit Engagement in Legislative Advocacy. The Nonprofit Lobbying Guide* (2nd ed.) by Bob Smucker (1999) and *The Lobbying and Advocacy Handbook for Nonprofit Organizations* by Marci Avner (2002) should be required reading by any manager of volunteers.

Conclusion

Volunteers are often the most effective advocates a nonprofit can use. In addition, each manager of volunteers needs to be prepared to be his/her own most effective advocate, both personally and professionally. Learning to walk the fine line between education and advocacy is one of the challenges of working in the nonprofit world. But if this chapter has accomplished anything, it should have reassured managers of volunteers that no nonprofit should be intimidated about advocating for its policy and program goals. Educating the public and elected officials are essential elements of ensuring long term support. Volunteerism often follows the model of meeting immediate, critical social needs, gradually evolving into social change and reform efforts aimed at ending the conditions that led to the problem in the first place or advocating for self-improvement efforts directed at overcoming adversity. In the end, active participation of citizens in public life and government becomes civic engagement. Civic engagement ensures the sustainability of democratic institutions and protects the civil liberties of all citizens. Vigilant monitoring of equity and fairness and opposition to oppression, fear, and intimidation is the foundation of most volunteerism. The life cycle of volunteerism as a means of creating social change and sustainability can be followed throughout American history. Volunteers identified a need; they shaped a program to meet that need; the program found widespread acceptance and adoption by community; it became formalized, regulated, and eventually ossified, losing much of the vigor that created the program in the first place. Rules and regulations dominated the discussion about the program and innovation and adaptability suffered. Volunteers once again saw the need for adaptation and sought to create a new solution that recognized the need for change. This ongoing cycle gives vitality to communities and weaves change into the fabric of society.

Public schools were created to help a new country meet its need for an educated workforce. Over time, the curriculum became standardized, which at some level ensured quality, but limited creativity. In response, parents formed a program operated by volunteers to bring arts to the schools, because the school did not provide the programs. Police and fire services have a long history of being organized and run by volunteers; in recent years and in larger communities, residents recognized the need to have full-time professional firefighters and police, so they lost some of the enthusiasm that was driven by the volunteer nature of the work; auxiliaries and volunteer programs have evolved to support the professional staff and develop new ways of supporting police and fire associations.

Hospitals have become highly professionalized, although many of them still rely on volunteers to run various programs from friendly visitors, to gift shops and toy drives. End-of-life-care in hospitals was identified as not meeting the needs and wishes of individuals and their families; resistance on the part of professional health care providers led to the creation, largely by volunteers, of hospice and end-of-life programs outside of the traditional health care systems. As these programs have grown, they also have become more professionalized, but the driving force of much of the work is provided by volunteers. As institutions evolved, volunteers stepped into the breach and filled a void with a volunteer program.

Volunteers are independent operators whose actions can be guided but cannot be controlled in a free society except where they pose risk to others or infringe on the rights of other individuals, organizations, or governments. While many of the organizations and groups that come to mind have negative connotations, it is important to remember that part of a free and open society is the ability to come together, without fear of reprisal or suppression, to espouse a cause or rally against injustice. Civil rights protesters, women's equality advocates, relief workers in hurricane and earthquake-affected areas all are driven by the ethic of wanting to help others and bring about change through volunteer efforts. Even those we remember with more negative feelings, such as the Ku Klux Klan, vigilante groups, and white supremacists all have their roots in voluntary associations.

The American tradition of volunteering runs deep within our culture. Speaking up and speaking out are basic freedoms guaranteed by our constitution and they are the responsibility of all citizens. All managers of volunteers need to accept the challenge to play a key role in organizing and managing both people and campaigns, to promote their own professional advancement and to enhance the power of volunteer programs to achieve their mission to meet needs and create change.

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The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

DIGITAL O

National, State, and Local Community Programs for Volunteer Resource Managers

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Finding the right tools or resources to be a successful volunteer can make the difference in making a difference for a nonprofit. Just like running a business, recruiting, training, managing, and retaining staff, or in this case, volunteers, are crucial to an organization's success. This chapter provides volunteer resource managers with tools, resources, and links available as well as examples of services provided by national, state, and/or regional programs to help volunteer managers and their volunteers achieve success.

Here are some questions that will be answered in this chapter:

- What do volunteer resource managers need to know about national, state, and/or regional support programs that could be helpful?
- What do these programs offer, in terms of recruiting volunteer support, training, and grants?
- What, if any, Web sites are available at various levels that offer linkages for collaborative action, news and information on issues and trends, etc.

Volunteers are the lifeblood of nonprofit organizations and most would not operate without them. The decision to volunteer is made for as many reasons as there are opportunities to volunteer. For many people the decision is easy; as they may have been raised to "give back" or been taught at church or school to help others. For others a life-changing experience—their own or someone close to them—or observing an act can trigger the need to step forward and volunteer.

But there are many more volunteers needed than fit one of these criteria, and the question becomes how do they get recruited, trained and managed to meet an organization's mission and goals?

That is where the Volunteer Resource Manager comes in. There are many titles given to this position, including Volunteer Program Manager, Volunteer Coordinator, Director of Volunteers, Director of Volunteer Services, and Director of Volunteer Resources. This position has a challenging role as it is responsible for recruiting, training, managing, motivating, and retaining volunteers to support the organization's mission. Most nonprofits choose to have paid staff in these positions but some smaller local groups may have no choice but to use volunteers themselves to lead volunteers.

Either way, resources provided by and for this position are crucial to the success of the organization's mission as groups are being asked to do more with less. Smaller organizations have smaller budgets and need access to economical and efficient programs. For this reason the Internet has become a leading resource and tool for volunteer managers.

Social Media as a Resource for Recruiting and Managing Volunteers

The Internet and social media has changed the way nonprofits operate just as it has changed the way that corporations conduct business. For-profits communicate and gather demographic information to better understand the buying habits of their customers for marketing purposes. To be successful today, nonprofits should do the same by gathering information on their volunteers and prospects. The Internet is playing a major role in matching up potential volunteers with organizations. Nonprofit organizations, associations, and community groups now utilize the Internet for many activities including marketing, fundraising, public relations, events, and volunteer management (including recruiting).

Sites like Facebook and Twitter are best used to communicate with donors and volunteers to send out information on specific events or updates from an organization. While these are important tools for nonprofits they are most often used by marketing, development, and event staff rather than volunteer managers. Sites like Idealist.org and VolunteerMatch.org are two of the most popular used by volunteer managers to connect with and recruit volunteers.

One of the largest sites, Idealist.org, boasts a half million members who support some 84,000 nonprofits in more than 180 countries. VolunteerMatch.org, similarly serves tens of thousands of nonprofits, but particularly targets a younger demographic: Half of its first-time volunteers are under 30. A third site, DoSomething.org, also seeks to inspire young people with the spirit of volunteerism.

It's Easier Than Ever to Get Started

Many organizations post their opportunities at VolunteerMatch.org, including the Red Cross, Habitat for Humanity, AARP, DoSomething, and HandsOn. This is a great place to start when recruiting for volunteers whether it is locally or nationally. Right now there are around 60,000 active listings in all U.S. cities. VolunteerMatch.org states on their Web site that they helped U.S. volunteers get connected more than 800,000 times last year. What a great resource! Here's how to get started:

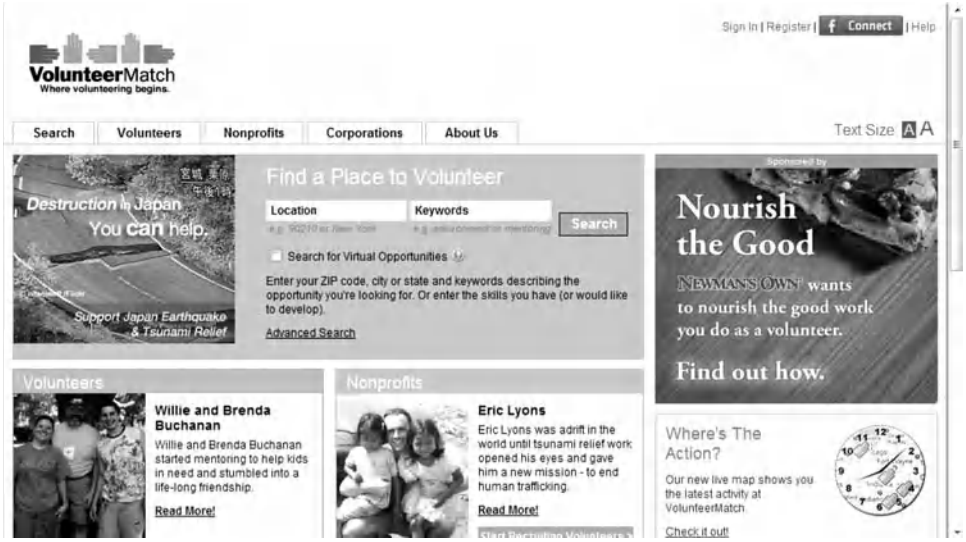

EXHIBIT 0.1 VolunteerMatch

1. Visit www.volunteermatch.org (see Exhibit O.1).
2. Click on the Nonprofits tab, then Register Now, to register your organization and opportunities available (see Exhibit O.2).

Once your organization is registered, all volunteers have to do is type in their location and a few words describing what they want to do, then they are matched with opportunities.

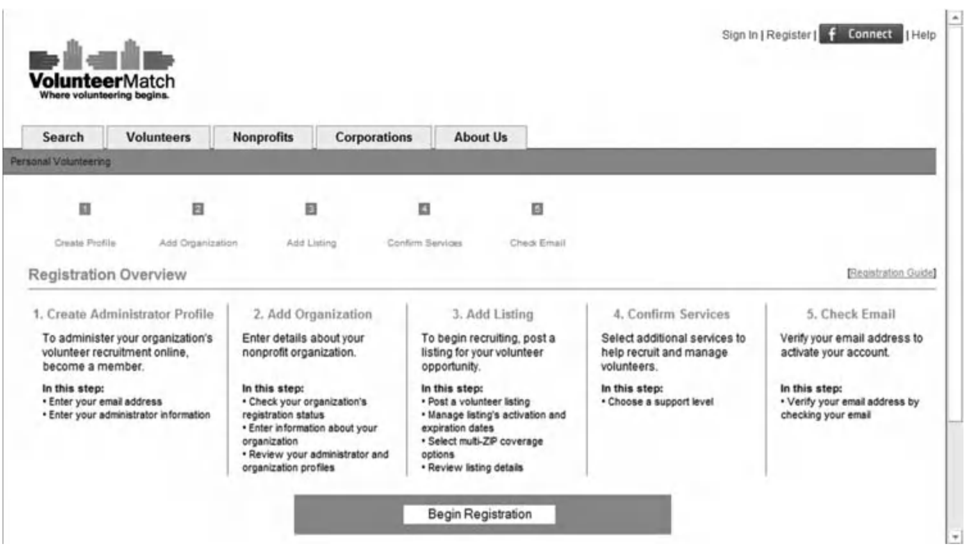

EXHIBIT 0.2 VolunteerMatch—Nonprofits Tab

EXHIBIT O.3 **VolunteerMatch—Engaging Volunteers Blog**

Volunteer managers have to do more with less but since recruiting volunteers is such an important task it must remain a priority in an organization's plan. Today organizations are competing for the same resources; money and people. As times have changed, so have the methods to recruit and retain volunteers.

While exploring VolunteerMatch.org I found a great resource under the Nonprofits tab. It is a new blog called *Engaging Volunteers, a VolunteerMatch Blog for Social Change Organizations* (see Exhibit O.3).

This site offers volunteer managers news from nonprofits; a full volunteering resource library; the opportunity to collaborate with colleagues, grants, and funding opportunities; and links to other resources that volunteers and professionals found useful. While the site wants to match volunteers to an organization, it also wants to ensure that volunteers will have a good volunteer experience. That job rests on the shoulders of volunteer managers and so VolunteerMatch.org has created tools and resources for managers to be successful in their job. From recruiting to training to motivating and recognizing, the site offers links to best practices in these areas. If an organization has found success with a technique or program, that success is now shared through the Internet on sites like VolunteerMatch.org.

In searching the *Engaging Volunteers* blog I found a link to a posting by Shari Ilsen entitled "New Report Reveals Why the Internet is a Volunteer Manager's Best Friend" on February 2, 2011. She talks about the impact the Internet and social media have had on the field of volunteer management and that there is a lot of work ahead of us to make the most of these tools. Below are some of the significant findings in the report:

- 75 % of Internet users said the Internet has majorly impacted groups' ability to communicate with its members.

EXHIBIT 0.4 **Idealist.org**

- 55 % said the Internet has impacted groups' ability to raise money and recruit new members.
- Over half of Internet users said it's now easier for them to volunteer their time to groups they care about.

These findings support what most organizations that actively use the Internet already know: that in order to be a successful volunteer manager in today's society, the Internet and social media must be a viable partner and part of an organization's volunteer management plan.

As another one of the largest sites, Idealist.org, boasts a half million members, and supports 84,000 (see Exhibit O.4). While it may be known for job listings and volunteer listings it offers so much more.

The vision and mission of Idealist.org is:

Our Vision

We would like to live in a world where:
All people can lead free and dignified lives.
Every person who wants to help another has the ability to do so.
No opportunities for action or collaboration are missed or wasted.

Our Mission

Idealist connects people, organizations, and resources to help build a world where all people can live free and dignified lives.

Idealist is independent of any government, political ideology, or religious creed. Our work is guided by the common desire of our members and supporters to find practical solutions to social and environmental problems, in a spirit of generosity and mutual respect.

As "collaboration" and connecting "people, organizations, and resources" are stated in both the mission and vision, this substantiates that Idealist.org is a valuable resource for volunteer managers. All you have to do is register (for free) and become a member of the network. You will be able to register your organization to recruit volunteers, interact with colleagues around the world, view other organizations' opportunities, programs, and resources to manage your efforts. Here are some areas you can search under once registered: Jobs, Organizations, Volunteer Opportunities, Internships, Events, Programs, Resources, and People.

While VolunteerMatch.org and Idealist.org are arguably two of the most popular, well-known, and utilized volunteer sites on the Internet today, there are so many more at our fingertips as volunteer managers.

Here is a challenge I offer you that I took myself. I gave myself five minutes to search the Internet for other sites to help me as a volunteer manager and here is what I found:

1. www.serviceleader.org—This site offers virtual tools for volunteers and for volunteer leaders. The mission "strives to provide volunteers and the leaders of volunteer initiatives with high-quality information that furthers the study and practice of volunteerism."
2. www.energize.com—This site states it is especially for leaders of volunteers. It is an international training, consulting, and publishing firm specializing in volunteerism but offers several resources on the site such as a Volunteer Resource Management Library.
3. www.about.com—This site provides information about literally everything but has a section for nonprofit charitable organizations that provides many resources, one of which is on volunteer management.

While it took me only about five minutes to find these sites, a word of caution that you can get caught up in the flow of information and end up spending much more time than necessary in your search. So before you search, here are a few tips to keep in mind:

- Have a specific topic in mind for a task that needs to be accomplished before you begin your search. Such as "How to do I create a volunteer application?"
- Type into a search engine (Google, Bing, etc.) the specific topic/question you need an answer on.
- Only view a few selections on the first page. Resist the urge to keep going to see if you can find something better because you rarely do. The best matches are those that come up on the first page of a search.

Remember that the Internet and social media can be great partners to you and your organization in your role as a volunteer manager. But in order to be successful you must take the information found and implement it into your organization's plan. Resources are only good if they are used. Now that you know where to find them, use them wisely.

National Resource Programs for Volunteer Managers

As was stated earlier in this chapter, resources are available for every level of volunteer management—national, state, and local/community. While the Internet covers all areas, programs are created for various types of programs that are specific to the audience. This section will focus on resources at the national level.

For example, charitable national programs such as the American Red Cross, American Cancer Society, or Juvenile Diabetes Research Foundation (JDRF) have paid staff at both the national and regional levels to manage volunteer programs. The same applies to many national professional associations such as the National Association for Realtors. Therefore, the role of a volunteer manager within such organizations is different than one at a state or local and community program level.

With paid staff providing direction and resources, volunteer managers need to be aware of what these resources are and where to find them. That is why most national organizations have training programs to familiarize staff and volunteers with how to find resources for their job. One tool is to turn to the Web. However, instead of using the Internet which anyone can have access to, organizations have their own intranet's that require a login and password to access.

Sites likes this may be called a Volunteer Portal and exist on the organization's main Web site. Volunteer leaders, both paid and unpaid, can access a variety of tools. Having worked for both charitable and professional national organizations in a volunteer leader capacity, including JDRF, I have experienced a variety of tools and resources that have been provided to me and my colleagues. Here is a brief listing of what is typically found on a national site for volunteer leaders:

1. A volunteer management handbook
2. "How to" articles or tools to recruit, manage, motivate, recognize, track, etc., for volunteer activity
3. Templates for creating letters, contact databases, excel sheets, budgets, recognition certificates
4. Training opportunities to attend such as leadership conferences, volunteer meetings, and staff contacts at the national office
5. List serves, email lists, or virtual chat rooms to connect and share ideas with colleagues

There are also certain expectations that paid staff should provide resources for volunteer leaders. Beth McGettigan Goldstein, M. Ed., Director of Membership for the American Law Institute in Philadelphia, shared the following with me in an interview about volunteer management at the national level. She has managed volunteer programs for almost twenty years and has worked at both the local and national levels.

Ms. Goldstein shared that "paid staff should provide toolkits and samples to volunteer leaders. It is best to utilize experienced volunteers in volunteer training. Volunteers can learn by the successes and failures of their peers and are more likely to participate in a national service when they hear the benefits from another volunteer. You can utilize volunteers by sharing samples of their work and at national training sessions. By doing so, you will recognize their good work and advance the mission of the organization. Providing toolkits in the key areas your volunteers need support in will make their jobs so much easier. For example, when I worked at a large national organization, we developed toolkits for volunteers in the areas of leadership, membership, programming, and communication. The toolkits include tip sheets, samples, and a step-by-step instruction guide for success."

Ms. Goldstein also states that "It is important for paid staff to take time to volunteer for organizations so that they have a view from the other side. One can volunteer at professional organizations like The Association for Association Leadership (ASAE) or their local society or civic organizations that support a cause they are passionate about. This gives staff the opportunity to see different ways volunteers can be supported in their efforts and to see the frustration that occurs when the right resources are not provided. By volunteering for professional organizations, you will develop a network of go-to people who can serve as your own resource center."

I agree with Ms. Goldstein's comments, especially that all volunteer managers should in turn be volunteers themselves. Nothing beats experience. While you can read about how to be a better volunteer manager and look to your national organization for tips and techniques along with resources, it is most important to live the life of a volunteer at some point in your career if your career is volunteer management. An important skill of a volunteer manager is relationship management. It is important to know how to motivate, encourage, and influence volunteers. By working alongside volunteers, you gain insight in all these areas and by sharing best practices, you become a better leader.

After contacting several volunteer managers across the country, they also shared the following organizations and their Web sites as resources at the national level:

- HANDS ON Network/Points of Light—www.handsonnetwork.org
- Corporation for National Service—www.nationalservice.gov
- Independent Sector—www.independentsector.org
- National Association of Volunteers in Government—www.navplg.org

As a volunteer leader it is important that you be aware of all the resources your particular organization offers as well other national resources including VolunteerMatch.org, Idealist.org, and other sites available.

State and Regional Resource Programs for Volunteer Managers

Volunteer leaders at the state or regional level have certain advantages in their role as states typically create offices or departments within the government to manage programs to support volunteer leaders in their state. Associations for volunteer resources are formed by states to strengthen and increase the growth of volunteerism while providing a support network, professional development for directors of volunteer centers, and provide funding for charitable and educational purposes.

An example of such a group is the Florida Association for Volunteer Resource Management, or FAVRM, that focuses on community-based volunteer centers. FAVRM's mission is to be more inclusive of all volunteer resource management professionals. Through quarterly forums, FAVRM members discuss new opportunities for volunteers, professional development and grant opportunities for volunteer leaders, as well as share best practices to ensure volunteers have the best possible experience.

Their Web site is a great resource for volunteer managers in Florida as it provides links and templates on everything from how to write a successful grant proposal and funding sites (we always need more money for programs), to training tips, board governance, and Web site development. While there is a nominal membership fee to belong, it is well worth the cost to be a part of this professional network. Even if you don't join, you still have access to the many links provided on the Web site under the tab "Resources."

One visit to their site, www.favrm.org, and it is easy to see what a great resource this association and its site is for volunteer leaders in Florida (see Exhibit O.5).

Another advantage to being a volunteer manager at the state level is the opportunity to network and connect in person. This is important for not only paid volunteer leaders but even more so for unpaid volunteer leaders as they become more prominent at the state level. People tend to volunteer closer to home and for causes that are important to them due to a personal connection only moving to a national role once involved for many years and if time allows.

While FAVRM is a great example, you don't have to be in Florida to have an association like this available to you as they exist in almost every state. You can contact your state government office to see what type of resources are available or you

EXHIBIT O.5 FAVRM.org

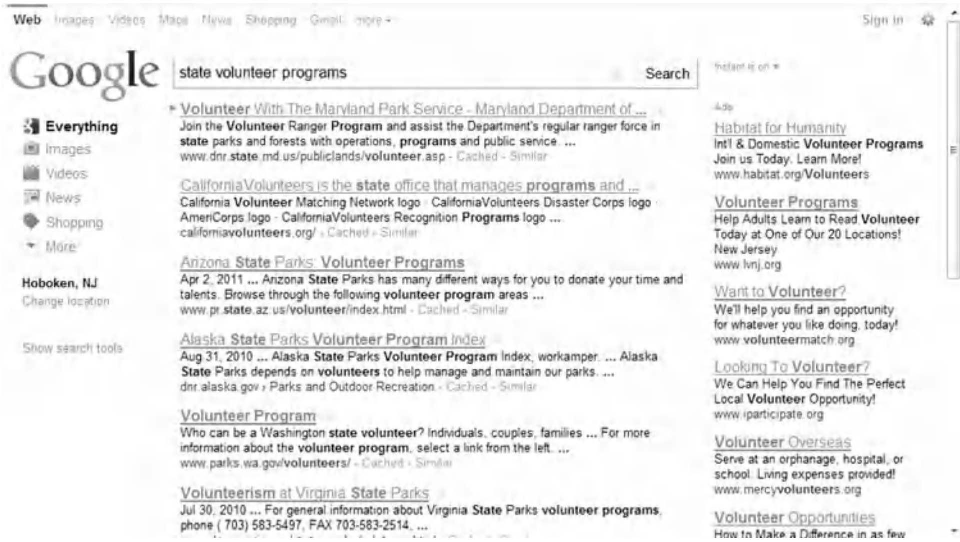

EXHIBIT O.6 Google Search

can Google your state and volunteer management to see what comes up (see Exhibit O.6). Remember to utilize the Web site to search for local resources and organizations that align with your cause or provide programs that your organization needs.

Local/Community Resource Programs for Volunteer Managers

Last but not least we look at resources available for volunteer managers at the local level. This is an interesting position as it is the one that is probably most held by unpaid volunteers as well as paid staff depending upon the type of organization. For instance, if you are a member of a local chapter that is part of a national association, then you may have the national resources discussed earlier. Groups such as the Red Cross or American Cancer Society that have multiple chapters within states and across the nation are more structured and offer specific training for volunteers. But if you are a member of a local community-based organization with no national network, you may have true volunteer leaders and need even more access to resources for these leaders.

Volunteers, being volunteers, have to have a reason to stay in their roles since pay and career advancement are not considered benefits. This is where management, motivation, and recognition go a long way. Management of volunteers under this scenario is challenging and can take up a lot of your time if allowed. Good project and people management skills come into play for the volunteer leader. Recruiting the right volunteer is so important at this level so that you have the right match of people for your cause. While the site VolunteerMatch.org is still useful, local sites are more beneficial as they focus on and market to your local prospects.

A site like www.HandsOnJacksonville.org is a nice example of what is available at a local level for volunteer managers (see Exhibit O.7). This site is a portal for recruiting and training volunteers so that affiliated nonprofits can more effectively focus on their missions.

EXHIBIT O.7 HandsOnJacksonville.org

While this is an example of a program in Jacksonville, Florida, you can utilize the Internet, your local chamber of commerce, or county and state agencies to find out more about local programs that support volunteer training and management. The HandsOn Network has hundreds of affiliated organizations across the country. Networking becomes paramount at this level as you connect with volunteer leaders at other organizations in your area. While you are competing for the same resources of people and money within your community you still want to create relationships with colleagues as these will be beneficial to everyone.

With a quick visit to the Internet I found the following resource in my state of Delaware (see Exhibit O.8). The site is sponsored by the Division of State Service Centers of the Department of Health and Social Services because our state is small, but no matter the size you can find a local group like this that supports and promotes volunteerism in your area.

Conclusion

It is clear that volunteer management is an important and challenging yet rewarding role held in an organization. Whether it is leading volunteers for a charitable national organization, a local community group, or a professional society, the job will continue to change as do the needs of the organization. That is what makes this job so appealing and rewarding at the same time.

Knowing when and where to find tools to help you along the way will play a big part in your success as a volunteer manager. Keep in mind these basic tips and you are sure to be a success!

- Network with colleagues and be a member of a professional association of volunteer managers; you don't have to go it alone.

EXHIBIT 0.8 **Volunteer Delaware**

- Seek out resources on the Web, through social media outlets, and in your local government department for volunteer management.
- Be a volunteer so that you always remember what it is like on the other side.
- Motivate, recognize, and thank your volunteers often and they will be your biggest supporters for a long time.

References

Jeri Bush, Executive Director, VolunteerLEON, Leon County Florida, and Membership Committee Chair, FAVRM

Beth McGettigan Goldstein, M.Ed., Director of Membership, American Law Institute

Dr. Judith A.M. Smith, President and CEO, Hands On Jacksonville, Florida

Web sites:

www.VolunteerMatch.org
www.Idealist.org
www.DoSomething.org
www.handsonnetwork.org
www.nationalservice.gov
www.independentsector.org
www.navplg.org (National Association of Volunteers in Government)
www.serviceleader.org
www.energize.com
www.about.com
www.asaenet.org

The Volunteer Management Handbook: Leadership Strategies for Success, Second Edition
Edited By Tracy Daniel Connors

DIGITAL P

Volunteer Management

Hospice Organizations

Ginny Burns, CVA
Big Bend Hospice

Dame Cecily Saunders, founder of hospice care as we know it today, was a woman of deep compassion, creative vision and powerful determination. A medical social worker in London in the 1940s, she became convinced that medical science alone could not adequately meet all the needs of a person facing the last days of life (BBC News, 2005).

Comfort care for the whole person and his family at the end of life—physical, emotional, social, and spiritual—became such a passion to her that she earned a medical degree in 1957 to gain credibility among members of the medical community. She moved within the requirements of her time with her eyes always on the ultimate goal—meeting the needs of dying patients on their own terms.

In the spirit of Dame Saunders, today's hospice volunteer manager is a person who must walk comfortably in two very different worlds—the deeply emotional world of dying patients and their families and the detail-oriented world of regulations. "You matter because you are you," Cecily Saunders said, "and you matter until the last moment of your life." Without that kind of heart for patients and families ("patient and family" being the unit of care in hospice) and respect for patient-centered decision-making, the hospice volunteer manager will lack the motivation to continue performing the demanding and ever-changing job duties. Without the attention to detail and respect for rules and guidelines, the manager of hospice volunteers may jeopardize agency programs or funding. A person who can skillfully balance interpersonal and organizational skills will find hospice volunteer management challenging, educational, inspiring, sometimes frustrating, and always meaningful.

Organizational Environment

For many organizations, agencies and corporations, the first step in volunteer management is to assess the environment to determine if, how, and when to include volunteer programs. This is not the case with hospices. Volunteers are a given in hospice organizations. The hospice movement was started and developed in the United States by volunteer nurses, doctors, social workers, chaplains, and interested laypeople. Respect for that initial volunteer spirit remains today in hospice programs, due in part to a Medicare regulation, one of the Medicare Hospice Conditions of Participation (Hospice CoPs) that determine whether a hospice organization may receive reimbursement for services provided to Medicare-eligible patients. Since the majority of hospice patients are over the age of 65, Medicare reimbursements are the largest source of income for most hospices. The original CoPs, established in 1983, included language requiring hospice programs to utilize volunteers and detailing what they were to do and in what numbers:

> *[The hospice program must] (i) utilize volunteers in its provision of care and services in accordance with standards set by the Secretary, which standards shall ensure a continuing level of effort to utilize such volunteers, and (ii) maintain records on the use of these volunteers, and the cost savings and expansion of care and services achieved through the use of these volunteers.*
>
> *. . . we are requiring that a hospice must document and maintain a volunteer staff sufficient to provide administrative or direct patient care in an amount that, at a minimum, equals 5 percent of the total patient care hours by all paid hospice employees and contract staff. Administrative support in this context means administrative support of the patient care activities of the hospice (e.g., clerical duties in the offices of the hospice) and not more general support activities (e.g., participation in hospice fundraising activities).*

This language also helped determine the most common hospice volunteer positions—direct patient care volunteer (or patient-family volunteer) and administrative (or office) volunteer. A manager of volunteers who joins a hospice organization does not need to sell the idea that volunteers would enhance the lives of the patients and families and would positively affect the clerical functions of the agency. The organizational structure already accepts the need for these and many other variations on these two core volunteer positions, and the organizational culture encourages them. Hospice programs consider volunteers to be unpaid staff and categorize them as such in agency policies, training materials, publications and volunteer position descriptions.

With elevated status comes the expectation of a high standard of excellence for the volunteers and the manager of those volunteers. A very helpful resource for hospice volunteer managers is the National Hospice and Palliative Care Organization (NHPCO). Through the hospice's agency membership to NHPCO or its statewide hospice clearinghouse, volunteer managers have access to such resources as guides to understanding the CoPs requirements for volunteer programs, sample volunteer position descriptions and policies, sample volunteer reporting forms, in-service and conference opportunities for volunteer management professionals and online networking with professional peers in other hospices.

One of the most important things volunteer managers share with one another is various opportunities for volunteers to serve within the hospice program. Because hospices vary in size and available services, volunteer programs vary widely from hospice to hospice, but in any gathering of hospice volunteer managers, you will hear reference to the following volunteer activities:

- Patient-family direct care
  - Companionship visits in patients' homes, nursing homes, assisted living or hospice inpatient facilities (talking, reading, playing games, etc.)
  - Respite care (sitting with the patient to relieve the caregiver)
  - Transportation (people and/or medications)
  - Errand running/household tasks/pet care
  - Phone support (visits or check-in calls)
  - Life stories documentation
  - Pet visitation (trained pet therapy animals)
  - Special occasion celebration (cakes, cards, balloons for patient and/or family)
  - Hands-on care (feeding, changing diapers)
  - Vigil support (sitting at patient's bedside in final hours)
- Non-patient care
  - Office support (receptionist, data entry, filing, mailings)
  - Community education/speakers' bureau
  - Thrift store staff (sorting, pricing, displaying, clerking)
  - Handcraft projects (quilts, lap throws, bibs, gowns, stuffed cuddle toys, etc.)
  - Fundraising
- Board, advisory council, or committee membership

Recruiting Hospice Volunteers

One of the foundational principles of hospice care is that all people who meet the medical criteria will receive the care they need, regardless of who they are, which disease is limiting their life, or how much they can pay for services. The same commitment to diversity needs to be part of the hospice volunteer manager's recruitment plan. However, in spite of this openness to all types of people and the urgency to maintain a dynamic and active volunteer corps, the hospice volunteer manager must choose carefully when targeting populations of potential volunteers. Even more importantly, the hospice volunteer manager must be vigilant and selective when individuals and groups offer themselves to the hospice, without being asked, seeking volunteer involvement.

There is an ongoing need to recruit new hospice volunteers for the core volunteer positions and for new and innovative volunteer opportunities as they develop. Although some loyal individuals continue hospice volunteering for 10 or 20 years, many find they need a break from the intensity of the experience after several years or less. In addition, Medicare regulations and accrediting agencies require documented evidence of ongoing volunteer recruitment when they survey hospice programs. The volunteer manager must maintain files or scrapbooks containing newspaper ads about volunteer trainings; newsletter listings of volunteer opportunities; articles featuring individual volunteers and their experiences; schedules of presentations given to classes, civic groups, churches, community fairs; copy for radio or TV public service announcements, etc.

Population demographics and cultural attitudes of a hospice's service area play a large part in determining how challenging it is to seek and sign appropriate volunteers. Rural regions have fewer people to ask, and those who do volunteer in those areas must drive long distances to assist patients. However, in all areas word of mouth is one of the most effective methods of recruiting volunteers to hospices. People share what they know and feel about hospice, what it has to offer patients and families and what it has to offer volunteers. Generally, effective and successful hospice volunteers are people who approach with one of two broad motivations—to learn or to give back because of a personal experience.

Motivated by Desire to Learn

STUDENTS Some high school students will choose hospice when seeking service hours for school or church requirements because of an interest in future health care careers, but most have probably adopted the opinions of their parents or teachers who trust hospice volunteering to be a worthy and fulfilling experience for the teens. College students often come to hospice volunteering from pre-med, nursing, social work, counseling, or religion majors. These students are seeking hands-on experience, interacting with patients and family members to boost their applications to graduate/medical schools or jobs. Some are looking to confirm that the career goal they are pursuing is as appealing in the field as it seems in their textbooks. Writing letters of recommendation for such volunteers is a regular duty of any hospice volunteer manager. Applicants with documented support for such serious volunteer service will be at an advantage in the acceptance process.

PEOPLE CONSIDERING CAREER CHANGES Although hospice volunteers do not perform clinical functions on patients, spending time with patients, families, and hospice professionals can provide valuable insight into several clinical careers for a person who is considering a career change. On a regular basis hospice volunteers, inspired by their experiences with patients and families, return to school and become social workers, nurses, nursing assistants, or music therapists, often in hospice settings.

PEOPLE WITH PERSONAL INTEREST IN CAREGIVING Some people gravitate toward hospice volunteering as an opportunity to learn about end-of-life issues and comfort caregiving for their own personal situations. Some are adult children of aging parents. Some are of advanced years themselves who want to be knowledgeable about what is ahead for them and their peers. Some have never personally experienced death or dying and come with a healthy curiosity. These people hope to educate themselves through volunteer training, agency resources and materials, and practical patient contact.

These are all legitimate motivations for a potential hospice volunteer. The volunteer manager must initially assess the volunteer's intent, to assure that it is not too self-focused, and must continually monitor the volunteer's attitude and actions to be sure they remain patient and family-centered.

Motivated by Desire to Give Back

PERSONAL HOSPICE EXPERIENCE Altruism, a desire to give of one's time and energy for the sole purpose of helping others, plays a greater role in the motivations of hospice volunteers than in the volunteer population at large. Many who have benefited from hospice care for their own loved ones come away with a profound sense of gratefulness and often wish to give back by "paying it forward." They want to give to someone else the kind of hands-on help they received in their home or at their beloved's bedside. Frequently these people become the heart and soul of their hospice volunteer programs. However, careful initial screening by the volunteer manager is essential and will be addressed in more detail in the screening section of this chapter.

GOOD HEARTS, GOOD WORKS From the goodness of their service-driven hearts, some groups—church youth groups, scout troops, service fraternities and sororities—want to brighten the days of hospice patients without fully understanding the terminal nature of hospice care. The gracious volunteer manager will kindly accept a box brimming with "get well soon" cards from an elementary school class and will gently educate the teacher about more appropriate phrasing for future projects.

Project-oriented groups sometimes need a bit of training in the concept of confidentiality—an ethical principle that hospices take very seriously—when they ask to come to an inpatient hospice facility to visit all the patients. Some plan to conduct group craft projects with patients who are often bedbound or extremely weak. While individual hospice patients may be able and eager to participate in such activities, hospice patients do not usually function in groups.

PERSONAL AGENDA The nature of hospice care, that it happens at the end of people's lives, lends itself to a sense of urgency that attracts some mission-driven individuals who believe they must save as many people as possible "before it's too late." Whether driven by a higher power, a personal commitment to a cause or an overinflated ego, these people tend to reveal their intentions very early in the interview process. They are excited, and they cannot hide it. Personal experience in interviewing potential volunteers has taught me, for example, to recognize the difference between someone who merely has an interest in nutrition, and the artificial sweetener opponent who will end up berating a patient's daughter for drinking a diet soft drink.

Screening/Interviewing Potential Hospice Volunteers

Volunteer managers sometimes sound like fashion designers—they are always looking for the right fit. This is especially important in hospices and other types of programs that serve very vulnerable populations. The right volunteer can enhance a dying person's last days and help him or her focus on something other than the painful situation, like a life-review volunteer who helps a patient make a cookbook of her favorite recipes as a legacy for her family. The wrong volunteer might spread confidential patient information or might become so over-involved as to become an added stress for the patient or family. Early in my hospice career, I remember trying to calm my stress level by thinking to myself, "It's a job; it's not life and death."

It jarred me a moment later to realize that this job *is* about life and death. Working with that knowledge every day leads the hospice volunteer manager to have increased respect for the volunteer screening process.

Not everyone who wants to volunteer for a hospice should. Before any person signs on as a hospice volunteer, the volunteer manager must ask questions and listen to the person's story of how he or she came to the point of seeking to volunteer in general and at hospice specifically. Listening with alertness for "red flags," warning signs that something is not quite right about a certain person as a hospice volunteer, is a necessary skill for the manager of hospice volunteers. This assessment of a potential volunteer's goals and motivations begins at first meeting—whether on the phone or in person, at a general information group meeting or a one-on-one interview—and continues throughout the training process. Questions like those in the sample interview sheet that follows are often included at some point in the screening process.

Big Bend Hospice Preliminary Volunteer Interview

1. What do you know about hospice?
2. What experiences have you had with people who are terminally ill?
3. Do you have previous experience with hospice as a family member or friend of a hospice patient?
4. Has anyone close to you died within the last year or so? If so, what was the nature of your grief experience?
5. How comfortable are you when people openly express strong feelings?
6. What kind of support do you have from family, friends, and faith community?
7. Are you willing to work with people without regard to race, gender, age, sexual orientation, religious creed, disability or marital status?
8. What days and times are you available for training and volunteering?

A few of the issues addressed in the screening questions bear some discussion.

Personal Losses

Those who seek hospice volunteering after the recent loss of a loved one are not in a position to focus thoroughly on the patients and families. Close to the grieving process themselves, they are likely to identify too closely with those they are serving. Some tend to have a difficult time honoring appropriate boundaries. They fall into giving advice and trying to solve problems for the family members, because they have just been there and they know. Others find their raw emotions too easily triggered by bedside scenes similar to their own experiences. I learned this lesson after a staff member reported seeing a patient's wife comforting her weeping volunteer. The volunteer's own husband had died the previous year.

Best practice is to require anyone who has experienced the loss of a significant person in their life to wait at least one year before volunteering with patients and families. Although office volunteers do not face the same requirement, experience has shown that often people with a recent loss find the content of the volunteer orientation too full of grief triggers, and they end up postponing their hospice volunteering. There is no magic healing at the one-year of bereavement mark, so hospice volunteer managers must always watch for signs of grief struggles in prospective volunteers.

Even if the personal loss was not recent, a potential volunteer who has a past hospice experience must be able to step outside his or her own memories—the feelings, the questions, the caregiving decisions—and realize that each patient and family experiences the end of life in a unique way. The hospice volunteer manager who listens attentively will pick up conversational cues from such a prospective volunteer. If there is a high frequency of phrases such as, "When my mother was in hospice," or "I remember every day," or "I will never get over how much it hurt," this person is probably not yet ready to volunteer.

What the Person Hopes to Do

The person who says, "I'll do anything you need," lacks a level of self-awareness necessary for a volunteer who must constantly assess his or her own feelings and reactions about challenging volunteer experiences. The person who says, "I want to do it all—sit with patients, speak to community groups, cook meals, and I can play the harmonica, if you want me to," lacks focus and commitment. People who intend to do it all, usually end up doing none of it. Without focus, they get through orientation, and then never manage to accept an assignment. If the volunteer manager can guide such a person to a suitable volunteer goal, there is hope for success. If not, this kind of person should be directed to episodic volunteer opportunities outside of hospice.

Attitude Toward Different People

In more than 10 years of hospice volunteer management, I have never seen a negative written response to the question, "Are you willing to work with people without regard to race, gender, age, sexual orientation, religious creed, disability or marital status?" Does this mean that everyone who applies for hospice volunteering is perfectly open to all people? How nice if that were so, since hospice serves all people. Unfortunately, amid the many open-minded, generous people who come to hospice volunteering, there are those who display prejudices that cannot be tolerated. Closed attitudes tend to vary among different regions and communities.

In volunteer applications and interviews, some people hint at a reluctance to cross racial or ethnic lines. Others may say that they do not want to travel to certain neighborhoods (never the ones with mini-mansions and manicured lawns) or that they are not quite comfortable with certain kinds of couples or families. There are also those who are not seeking to avoid a particular population, but rather are hoping to change it. Most often, these are people with a strong religious belief and commitment to converting as many others as possible to their faith tradition. When this sense of mission becomes clear in a screening situation, the hospice volunteer manager must clearly communicate the hospice commitment to diversity and to service to all on their own terms. Then the manager must assess whether or not this person will be able to channel his or her energy and dedication into nonjudgmental patient care, or whether he or she would find a better fit in a different type of volunteer setting.

Attitude Toward Death and Dying

Hospice awareness has grown enormously in the past 10 years. Very few people apply for volunteer positions without understanding the hospice relationship to death and dying. Still, as hospice programs recruit volunteers from the general public, we encounter many who are still confused about hospice care. Some think of hospices as "the death people." Some confuse hospice care with assisted suicide or euthanasia, "mercy killing." Dispelling myths about hospice is part of the educational role of the hospice volunteer manager. In order for people to consider hospice volunteering, they must fully understand and feel comfortable with hospice ethical principles. Part of the hospice philosophy statement in the NHPCO (2008) *Standards of Practice for Hospice Programs* states:

> *Hospice recognizes that the dying process is a part of the normal process of living and focuses on enhancing the quality of remaining life. Hospice affirms life and neither hastens nor postpones death.*

Hospice volunteers, along with all hospice staff members, deal with death on a daily basis. We speak in direct terms—end of life, death, dying—rather than euphemisms that might seem more gentle to those who do not encounter death every day. Potential volunteers who have a healthy comfort with the attitude that death is a natural part of life, will fit easily into the hospice culture. The hospice volunteer manager will detect in a new volunteer any awkwardness about death or the other extreme, an unhealthy fascination with death or suicide. Neither of these qualities have a place on a team of hospice volunteers.

Orientation/Training for Hospice Volunteers

Because of the vulnerable status of hospice patients, it is essential that hospice programs adequately inform and prepare their volunteers before assigning them to patient care tasks or to jobs that include handling sensitive patient information. It is serious business. Yet, hospice organizations exist in a culture of deep caring and generous hospitality, so volunteer orientations should include as much warmth and welcome as they do facts, figures and regulations.

Regulations determine much of the content of hospice volunteer orientations. Medicare CoPs, accrediting agency standards, individual state licensing regulations, and an agency's own policies all weigh in on the basic topics that a hospice volunteer orientation must cover. And they are subject to change as regulations change. Exactly how to present the content and how long the orientation should be are decisions made by the individual hospice programs. However, each program must be able to show evidence that it teaches the required topics.

Hospice history boasts extremely long volunteer trainings, as long as 36 hours spread over many weeks. Early volunteer supporters of the hospice movement were in it for the long haul, right from the start. Today the trend is toward a less comprehensive overview, but hospice orientations still include thorough training in the things a volunteer needs to know to do his or her job effectively. An office volunteer doesn't need to know which changes in a patient's skin color may indicate imminent death, but a volunteer sitting vigil with a patient in the final hours of life most definitely needs to know about that and other signs of physical decline.

The NHPCO (2000–2009) *Hospice Volunteer Program Resource Manual* provides several suggested volunteer outlines, including a core outline (Exhibit P.1) that can be condensed or expanded as needed (p. 37).

Since hospices are health care programs, volunteers must receive training in topics such as HIPAA (Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act) privacy rules, patients' rights, blood-borne diseases, infection control techniques and the proper handling of biomedical waste. It might seem that a person who just wants to read to a patient for a couple of hours a week would run from such demanding requirements. However, many hospice volunteers say that the high expectations indicate that volunteers are trusted, respected, and important to the organization, with rights as well as responsibilities. They are clearly not "just volunteers."

EXHIBIT P.1 Core Training Outline

If each session is given a minimum of 2 hours to cover the materials, this training could be held in 14 to 20 hours.

Introduction	◆ Philosophy and History ◆ Overview of Services ◆ Advance Directives ◆ Agency Tour	◆ About Our Hospice Program ◆ Ethical Considerations ◆ Patient Bill of Rights
Patient Care and Regulations	◆ Hospice Goals ◆ Universal Precautions ◆ Safety: Home, Neighborhoods, Facilities	◆ Pain and Symptom Management ◆ OSHA Requirements
Death and Dying	◆ Understanding Death in Our Culture ◆ Family Dynamics ◆ Funerals/Memorial Services	◆ The Dying Process and Psychological Issues ◆ The Role of the Volunteer at the Time of Death
Communication	◆ Effective Communication Skills ◆ Active Listening	◆ Communication Roadblocks ◆ Confidentiality
Spirituality	◆ Spirituality and Dying	◆ Chaplain Services
Bereavement	◆ Bereavement Services ◆ When to Refer	◆ Grief Reactions ◆ Managing Boundaries, Stress, and Burnout
Volunteer Services	◆ Volunteer Policies and Procedures ◆ Documentation ◆ Emergency Procedures	◆ Supervision ◆ Volunteer Rights and Responsibilities ◆ Volunteer Competencies

Big Bend Hospice Volunteer Rights and Responsibilities
Volunteers have the right to:

- Know and understand the purpose and mission of Big Bend Hospice.
- Be given suitable assignments based on their interests, skills and preferences for meaningful and satisfying work.
- Have a clear job description stating the purpose of the position and tasks to be undertaken.
- Receive appropriate training for the job they accept and to be informed of changes that affect them.
- Be asked for their permission before any references or background checks are conducted.
- Receive sound guidance, direction and regular communication from their supervisors.
- Receive regular evaluation of their performance and recognition for their work.
- Be treated as a team member.
- Express opinions, ideas, and concerns relating to their work.
- Receive support and respect.
- Receive regular education opportunities.
- Be given the opportunity for various experiences, if so requested.
- Decline any task requested, if they feel inadequate or unqualified.
- Take time off for personal reasons.
- A reference or statement of service, if appropriate.

Volunteers have the responsibility to:

- Support the philosophy and mission of Big Bend Hospice.
- Maintain the dignity and integrity of Big Bend Hospice, by adhering to the agency's Standards of Conduct and Policies and Procedures.
- Promote a positive image of Big Bend Hospice.
- Be sincere in their offer of service and be willing to serve for no less than one year, except under special circumstances.
- Participate in orientation and attend at least two educational inservices each year.
- Maintain the confidentiality of all matters relating to patients/families and Big Bend Hospice operations.
- Cooperate with and respect staff, patients, and family beliefs.
- Be reliable, dependable, and accountable.
- Report a potential danger.
- Accept guidance from supervising staff members.
- Share pertinent information with fellow team members, if part of a patient's care team.
- Maintain a comfortable working relationship with the staff.
- Document activities in a timely manner.
- Communicate with their supervisors about absences and schedule needs.
- Ask questions if unsure of their assignment.
- Notify their supervisors when their skills are inadequate to complete their duties and to ask for retraining or re-assignment.

- Notify their supervisors when they wish to resign their position.
- Support other volunteers in their jobs.
- Maintain current driver's license and auto insurance.
- Obtain TB test as position requires.

Two areas that are particularly challenging when preparing hospice volunteers are confidentiality and the interdisciplinary team concept of hospice patient care. The trainer of hospice volunteers must present these topics carefully and review them often both during and after orientation.

Confidentiality of patient information is a basic medical ethical principle that is supported by federal law (HIPAA), state laws, and individual health care programs everywhere. People in general understand the concept and say they support it. However, when someone is dying it becomes news within that person's communities. People want to rally around their friends and neighbors in a time of so many needs. New hospice volunteers, out of a desire to rally support for someone in need, sometimes find it difficult to accept that they must not share any information about a hospice patient, even the simple fact that the person is or is not a hospice patient. Training about confidentiality must include how to communicate about a patient without putting protected health information in jeopardy through unsecure electronic devices, such as e-mail, voice mail and text messages; how much information to know and share, even among the hospice teams; what to say when a nosy neighbor asks, "How is Mr. Smith doing? I know he is dying. Are you from hospice?"

The other very challenging part of training—the interdisciplinary team approach to patient care—is not difficult to understand or accept. Professionals from several different clinical disciplines function as a team to serve the varied parts of the whole patient and family. The volunteer is not a clinical professional, but adheres to many of the same clinical guidelines, policies, and boundaries. The volunteer, an important part of the team, plays the role of a "professional friend." What is difficult about this is not the concept, but the reality of volunteer service with a patient and family. While carefully coaching new volunteers to remember the team—"You are not the only source of help; the rest of the team is here to support what you do; your observation notes inform the rest of the team"—the volunteer manager is also preparing the volunteer to fly solo, especially when planning to serve in the patients' own homes.

Most volunteers do not serve in teams. Some hospice volunteer programs provide volunteer mentors, experienced volunteers who lead the new ones through their initial assignments, but eventually a hospice volunteer will be on duty alone, with the patient and without the rest of the team present. Coaching individual volunteers beyond the initial orientation is necessary and is greatly aided by professional team members who reach out with regular communication to the volunteers on their teams. Hearing, "You matter to the team," is nice, but getting a call from the team social worker to ask you to share your experience builds a solid team relationship that will result in volunteer satisfaction and longevity in the program. It is part of the volunteer manager's job to remind those professional team members to include the volunteer and build those relationships.

Although hospice volunteer managers often use the terms "orientation" and "training" interchangeably, the Medicare CoPs make a distinction between the general overview of hospice history and philosophy (orientation) and the instruction needed to perform a specific volunteer task (training). The hospice may count the training hours but not the orientation time toward its 5% requirement. Some of the more common hospice volunteer positions that might require additional training after orientation include: patient-family volunteer in a facility (nursing home, hospice inpatient facility, assisted living); vigil volunteer; hands-on care volunteer; community speaker; and thrift store staffer. It is essential to maintain records of all orientation and training sessions, as proof of ongoing volunteer preparation.

Placing Hospice Volunteers in Appropriate Assignments

Getting a hospice volunteer oriented, trained, screened, and cleared for assignment is a long and detailed process for both the agency and the volunteer. After the considerable effort required to get a volunteer ready, the volunteer manager wants to know that that person will be content and fulfilled as a hospice volunteer and will stay for a long while, assuming the arrangement also meets the agency's needs.

Placing Hospice Volunteers with Patients and Families

With all new volunteers the volunteer manager must find out what they would like to do, what they can do and when they can do it. Office volunteers want to use their clerical skills. People with strong public speaking skills will gravitate toward community education volunteer positions and will be effective in that kind of role. In these kinds of volunteer placement situations, if the volunteer's schedule and skill set match the needs of the agency, all is well. However, when assigning a volunteer to support a patient and family, the volunteer manager must also blend in the family's desires and schedules. This is a much more complicated task, but when all the details line up to allow a compatible match, all those involved come away from the hospice experience better for having met and shared a bit of very important time.

CASE STUDIES: GOOD MATCH VERSUS BAD MATCH

Good Match Don W. had been a patient-family volunteer for more than 9 years. He was retired and willing to volunteer several hours at a time, one weekday per week. He preferred to serve patients in their own homes. A faithful son, he visited his own mother in a nursing home and did not want to spend any more time in nursing facilities. Mrs. K, a hospice patient with a chronic lung disease was looking for a volunteer who could drive her once a week to the grocery store and to her hairdresser. Don carried the required amount of car insurance to be a transportation volunteer. He was available at the appropriate time of day. With fond memories of his own mother's better days, Don was happy to help Mrs. K. experience the weekly lift she got from this simple routine. Several months later, when Mrs. K. died, Don attended her funeral service and was invited to sit in a place of honor among her family members.

Bad Match Betsy B. had a huge heart for others, especially those who needed a lot help with household duties. She was a woman of action. She talked fast, walked fast, worked fast. She said, "Send me someplace where there is a lot that needs to be done. I'll do it." When she accepted an assignment with Mrs. P., it was just such a situation. The patient's daughter worked part-time and they needed someone to help wash dishes, do laundry, and vacuum once a week. Betsy agreed to spend every Thursday morning at the patient's home. However, it quickly became clear that the patient wanted a visitor much more than she wanted a housekeeper. Mrs. P. kept distracting Betsy from her chores and encouraging her to "just sit and talk." After a few weeks, Betsy called and requested reassignment. Though she had no personal problem with Mrs. P., Betsy could not sit still. This volunteer task did not fulfill her particular need to serve by doing.

How does this important information get into the hands of the volunteer manager? At the end of orientation, volunteers complete a form indicating the tasks they are most willing and able to perform and their time schedule. This form differs from hospice to hospice, but usually includes the volunteer's hobbies, skills and interests; proficiency in any languages other than English; allergies to smoke or pets and other preferences or restrictions, such as driving only in daylight hours or within a limited distance from the volunteer's home, or accepting only assignments with patients of the same gender. The clinical staff requesting volunteer support must provide similar information about the preferences of patient and family seeking help. The hospice volunteer manager who builds and maintains strong relationships with the clinical staff will benefit from their cooperation in the form of timely and thorough information, necessary for making effective volunteer-patient matches.

How much patient information is enough? At what point does "thorough" become "too much"? Answering these questions is another ongoing challenge for the manager of volunteers in a hospice program. HIPAA law includes the "minimum necessary standard," which states that each person with authorization to access a patient's protected health information must receive no more detail than needed to do his or her job. The volunteer manager who sends several volunteers to assist a patient with various tasks, needs to assess what level of information each volunteer needs and inform them accordingly. For example, the volunteer who mows the patient's lawn does not need to know the patient's medications, pharmacy, or doctor. However, the volunteer who drives the same patient to a doctor's appointment certainly needs to know the doctor's name and address. That same volunteer also needs to know about the patient's physical condition, such as whether the patient suffers from shortness of breath when walking, or if the patient has a tendency toward anxiety in crowded, public places. Just as the volunteer manager makes constant self-checks about adherence to privacy and confidentiality standards, he or she regularly coaches the volunteers about the careful handling of patient details. Most times a simple reminder to the volunteer is enough. On occasion, a volunteer requires a face-to-face supervisory session to re-educate about this very important aspect of hospice volunteering. Such situations more often stem from thoughtlessness than maliciousness. Nevertheless, the hospice volunteer manager must address the volunteer directly and promptly, before a serious breach of confidentiality occurs, which may result in the termination of the volunteer's service with that agency.

Supervising and Evaluating Hospice Volunteers

Supervising Hospice Volunteers

As supervisor of hospice volunteers, especially those who directly support patients and families, the volunteer manager serves many functions.

INVESTIGATIVE REPORTER Because the volunteer serves independently, the manager must gather information about the volunteer's performance in the field from several sources. The volunteer provides required written activity reports and conveys a lot of feedback through phone calls. The clinical staff team members may share impressions of the volunteer through informal chat and/or written documentation in the patient's medical record. Sometimes the patient and family provide feedback about the volunteer through anecdotal reporting, via their nurse or social worker, or by directly contacting the volunteer manager with concerns or praise.

COMMUNICATIONS LIAISON As there are physical changes in the patient and new family issues surface, the volunteer manager is constantly feeding updated information to the volunteer assigned to support that patient and family. At the same time, the volunteer manager relays information and observations from the volunteer to the other members of the patient's care team. Although they are always welcome, most volunteers do not choose to attend the regular clinical meetings, where the team members all share about each patient and family and how to help meet their immediate needs. However, the team's volunteer manager does attend as representative of all the volunteers who are serving with that team's patients and families—sharing insights from the volunteers, encouraging the use of volunteers in new cases, and advocating for safety and respect for the volunteers in some of the more challenging home settings or family systems.

COUNSELOR The successful hospice volunteer manager quickly learns to listen actively in conversations with volunteers and to read between the lines of their written documentation. Is a volunteer expressing a temporary frustration, or is that person approaching caregiver burnout? Is a volunteer speaking as if he or she has become part of the family rather than as a single member of a team? Does a volunteer need a different patient, a different type of volunteer duty, or a temporary break from all hospice volunteering? Does the volunteer need grief counseling after several recent losses of assigned patients or a personal loss? The volunteer manager may urge a volunteer to take advantage of the hospice program's grief support services. Are a volunteer's personal life issues clouding his or her ability to focus fully on the patients and families? In these interactions with hospice volunteers, the manager recognizes that having a "heart" for the work includes caring deeply for the volunteers as well as for the patients.

COACH The volunteer manager in a hospice, placing volunteers as part of a team, functions as a coach in several ways. The volunteer manager equips the volunteers with the tools they need, reviews with them their responsibilities (especially for keeping confidentiality and documenting their service accurately and promptly), and sends them out into the caring field. The manager continually points out the strengths of each volunteer and builds self-confidence for each new situation. The volunteer manager redirects inappropriate behavior and replaces any volunteer who may not be effective in his or her specific role or as a member of the team. There is no halftime in hospice volunteering, but there are frequent pep talks. The manager of hospice volunteers must maintain a high level of energy and an endless supply of enthusiasm for the work, and for the individual volunteers who share in the mission.

FRIEND At some level, the volunteer manager becomes a friend to the volunteers whom he or she nurtures, coaches and develops. However, just as the volunteer must remember to keep a professional distance from the patients and families, the volunteer manager must keep a bit of professional perspective in the relationship with volunteers. In the unlikely event that a volunteer requires discipline, or at worst termination, the difficult situation will be less complicated if the volunteer has always accepted the supervisory role of his or her volunteer manager. This is the responsibility of the volunteer manager, not the volunteer. The manager must learn to determine where building a strong, trusting relationship ends and becoming best friends begins. Modeling this distinction is part of the job of the manager of hospice volunteers who face similar situations on a regular basis.

Volunteers who serve in administrative positions, those not directly involved with patients and families, also need supervision and deserve feedback and guidance in their roles. The paid staff members with whom they serve most closely will act as supervisors in coordination with the volunteer manager. Ongoing teaching to fellow staff members about how to supervise and recognize volunteers is one of the less well-defined but more important functions of the hospice volunteer manager. When a volunteer manager hears other paid staff members refer to "our volunteers," rather than "your volunteers," it is a sign of successful staff education and a moment for celebration.

Evaluating Hospice Volunteers

Formal evaluation of hospice volunteers is another requirement facing the hospice volunteer manager. Just as some specific topics must be covered in orientation of new volunteers, certain information must be reviewed and documented as reviewed, annually. This review may occur in written form or in a group inservice or workshop. In addition, each hospice volunteer receives a formal annual evaluation of his or her "competency," based on that individual's volunteer position description. The NHPCO (2000–2009) *Hospice Volunteer Program Resource Manual* addresses this area in its Competencies and Evaluation section:

> *Evaluating a volunteer's competency involves determining that volunteers possess the skills and abilities to provide quality care and services and represent the hospice at the level required. There are several methods of evaluating competence. These methods include but are not limited to:*
>
> - *Pre/post tests*
> - *Written exams*

- *Direct observation/supervisory visits*
- *Demonstration, such as hands-on care in a controlled setting*
- *Competency fairs*
- *Games, such as universal precautions "Jeopardy"*
- *Individual or group testing/observation*
- *Utilization of other professionals for testing such as physical therapists or psychotherapists*

Depending on the size of a hospice's volunteer corps and the number of volunteers under the direct supervision of a single volunteer manager, face-to-face evaluation sessions may not be practical. However, any effective tool for evaluating hospice volunteer competencies will include a place for the volunteer's written input and feedback.

Exhibit P.2 is a sample annual competency evaluation form designed with enough flexibility to address all types of hospice volunteer activities, not only the patient-care functions. Other sample competency checklists, including one for the manager of hospice volunteers, are available in the NHPCO (2000–2009) resource manual.

Although annual review and evaluation is the required standard, many hospice programs also offer a formal evaluation after the volunteer's first patient visit (or first day in a non-clinical position), after three months of service and/or after six months as an active volunteer. Because of the fluid nature of any volunteer roster, it may be challenging for the hospice volunteer manager to monitor which volunteers have been "active" for a fixed period of time. What constitutes active status? Remaining available as needed? Continual service, no matter the number of hours? Completion of a minimum number of volunteer hours? Whatever policy a program adopts, careful and accurate recordkeeping is the key to maintaining compliance with volunteer evaluation guidelines. Careful recordkeeping is also vital in monitoring the many areas of risk management that affect hospice volunteering.

Risk Management in Hospice Volunteer Programs

Confidentiality of patient and family information is one of the key areas of risk management for any hospice program. Therefore, teaching it to volunteers, assessing their compliance with it, reviewing it formally at least once a year and whenever needed are all part of the hospice volunteer manager's daily work life. Since confidentiality is covered elsewhere in this chapter, let us look at several other risk management issues. An effective hospice volunteer program will include policies that address the agency's position and practice surrounding each issue:

Health Screening

Some hospices require tuberculosis and/or hepatitis testing for staff and volunteers. This will vary depending on state law and agency standards.

EXHIBIT P.2 **Big Bend Hospice Annual Volunteer Evaluation**

Volunteer Name: County:

Volunteer Category:

Volunteer Coordinator: Staff Supervisor:

General Performance	Excellent	Adequate	Needs to Improve	Comments/Plan for Improvement
Responds promptly to assignment requests				
Provides appropriate volunteer interventions as assigned				
Demonstrates caring and cooperative attitude				
Notifies supervisor of changes in frequency/schedule or type of care/service				
Communicates regularly with supervisor and/or IDT members about volunteer assignments				
Demonstrates understanding of volunteer role and maintains confidentiality and proper boundaries				
Documents service appropriately and in a timely manner				
Participates in educational inservices				

Evaluator Comments:

Volunteer Comments:

Evaluator Signature: ___________________________

Date: __________

Volunteer Signature: ___________________________

Date: __________

Drug Testing

If a hospice program requires drug testing for all staff members, it may also require drug testing for all volunteers, or perhaps for only those volunteers who serve with patients. Others may not drug test volunteers at all, or may only do so if there is a suspicion of drug usage by a volunteer.

Background Screening

As of the most recent Medicare CoPs, all hospice volunteers involved in patient care must undergo criminal record checks. The screening level differs from state to state. In Florida, as recently as August 1, 2010, state law requires Level 2 screening (including fingerprinting) of all volunteers and staff members who serve with hospice patients or who have access to patient information. Individual agency liability insurance policies may require additional screening for volunteers, such as Social Security verification or driving history for those who may transport patients, family members or medications. (Note: Screening requirements differ between states and should be consulted according to the location of the center.)

Proof of Licensure

Some hospice volunteer programs utilize licensed professionals who volunteer to perform their professional functions—nurses, massage therapists, and practitioners of other complementary therapies (aromatherapy, Therapeutic Touch, Reiki, etc.), cosmetologists, and pet therapists. Agency policy and state regulations will determine which kinds of professional functions may be volunteered and what proof of licensure needs to be on file.

Personal Care Volunteers

If a hospice program allows volunteers to provide any personal care duties, such as feeding a patient, changing a patient's diaper or bed linens or assisting in transferring a patient who cannot sit or stand without help, policies will indicate who can perform those kinds of tasks and what training they require. Included are restrictions against volunteers dosing, sorting, or administering medications to patients.

Handling of Patient Funds

Each hospice has its own procedures for volunteers who must handle small amounts of patient money in order to run errands for them. Careful communication between the volunteer and his or her volunteer manager and detailed documentation will be part of any set of procedures about this issue.

Hospice Volunteer Recognition and Retention

Volunteer recognition brings to mind balloons, banquets, and bags of logo-imprinted tokens of appreciation. These are all legitimate ways to demonstrate appreciation for volunteers. I have personally used all of them. However, recognition of hospice volunteers goes way beyond the celebratory appreciation event. Hospice volunteers are people whose ordinary tasks take on extraordinary significance because of the very special circumstances in which they serve. To keep them serving and satisfied in such an intense environment, the manager of hospice volunteers must give them sincere thanks at every possible opportunity and remind them of their importance to the program in every possible way.

Recognizing Hospice Volunteers

VOLUNTEER EDUCATIONAL INSERVICES Access to ongoing educational opportunities on end-of-life topics is an important form of volunteer recognition for hospice volunteers. Whether the agency's education department or volunteer department plans and conducts these sessions, the content should be meaningful to the volunteers and helpful to them in their roles within the hospice program. A planned educational program beyond orientation and training is required for hospice volunteer programs.

INVITING FORMAL VOLUNTEER INPUT Meaningful agency involvement reminds hospice volunteers that they are indeed staff members—unpaid, but not unimportant. Including volunteer representatives in decision-making groups— ethics committees, advisory panels, planning teams—reminds the volunteers and the entire agency that volunteers are a respected part of the hospice team. Volunteers are excellent sources of personal testimonies for the agency, sharing how they received hospice services in the past or how they experience hospice care as a volunteer. Some are excellent public speakers. Others are gifted writers. Still others are most effective sharing their stories in one-on-one conversations with potential donors, volunteers or patients. Regular satisfaction surveys to volunteers are another way to seek their input. The feedback lets the agency know how successful it is in making volunteers feel valued, appreciated and eager to continue serving in the program.

INVITING ONGOING VOLUNTEER IDEAS Some of the most effective enhancements to my hospice volunteer program have come from volunteer ideas. Important changes in the way we prepare training sessions for volunteers, how volunteers report their activity, and how we communicate with volunteers on a daily basis developed from volunteer questions that started with the words, "Have you ever thought about . . . ?" An effective manager of hospice volunteers will publicize and practice an open-door policy so that volunteers feel not only allowed, but also welcome to offer ideas, ask questions, and seek reactions. However the input is obtained (in person, by e-mail, through electronic suggestion box), the manager must assure volunteers that there is always time to listen to them. Taking that time often creates multiple interruptions or distractions, but it builds trust and results in a loyal volunteer corps that provides diverse and valuable contributions to the entire agency.

VOLUNTEER AWARDS Humorous awards certainly have their place in the serious environment of hospice volunteering. A favorite award with two of our volunteer teams is the "Annual Golden Plunger Award," a traveling trophy made from a hardware store plunger painted gold and bearing a tag that reads, "Because somebody's gotta do it." The volunteer who receives this award knows the agency perceives him or her to be the most dependable and flexible, and walks away with the plunger held proudly aloft.

Many other opportunities for honoring volunteers with serious awards present themselves to the manager of hospice volunteers. Some are community-sponsored programs for recognizing volunteer service. Submitting names for such awards helps give public recognition to the individual volunteers, and also provides community awareness of the hospice's outstanding volunteer program. Some award programs are hospice-specific, either on a state, regional, or national level, and honor different types of hospice volunteers and volunteer programs. Hospice volunteers are typically known for their humility, and for avoiding public recognition. The volunteer resource manager who needs advance permission to nominate a volunteer will probably need to prepare a list of reasons why the recognition will benefit the agency, before the volunteer will consent to public applause. This is just one of the many situations in which a hospice volunteer resources manager needs to be resourceful and persuasive.

AGENCY-WIDE ATTITUDE OF GRATITUDE One of the everyday ways to make hospice volunteers feel special and appreciated is for the entire agency to practice simple acts of thankfulness toward volunteers. At a particularly stressful time in my program's past, when all clinical staff members were focused on a new computer system and an unexpected increase in patient assignments, an office volunteer in the clinical department resigned, sharing that no one spoke to her while she worked for several hours. At the very least, all staff members should smile at and speak with any volunteer and should thank them verbally, with simple notes or cards or through e-mail notes. The manager of volunteers will do all these things daily and often, and should coach all other staff members to do the same.

Occasionally, the entire agency should indicate its thankfulness for the volunteers, whether through a planned party or picnic, a gift to each volunteer or birthday cards sent by the agency. One of the ways my agency shows such volunteer support is at the annual holiday appreciation party for volunteers. The high point of the event is a door prize drawing for more than 20 themed gift baskets, all large and fully stuffed with gift items, goodies and gift cards. Each paid staff department and clinical team, including the senior management team, donates to and creates a basket. In the years since we have instituted this tradition, I have witnessed an overall improvement in the attitude of gratitude toward our volunteers. There has not been another volunteer resignation due to neglect by staff members.

Another way the general agency can recognize volunteers is to look to qualified volunteers when hiring paid staff. Hospice volunteers who seek employment are an asset to the agency. Coming with loyalty to the agency mission and firsthand knowledge of the policies and procedures, they require less training time than those who know nothing about the agency.

REMEMBERING THE LITTLE THINGS When building relationships with hospice volunteers, remembering the little things becomes very important. The hospice program will never be able to provide a grand enough dinner to thank the volunteers for all that they give of their time and generosity. However, we can remember the little things that are important in the volunteers' daily lives. It is important to ask about the vacation. It is important to send a card to congratulate the new grandmother. It is important to send greetings for speedy recovery to the volunteer on medical leave for an operation. It is important to celebrate the graduation from high school, the acceptance to graduate school, the offer of a new and improved job or the purchase of a first home. It is absolutely essential to acknowledge the loss of a family member, even a beloved pet, or the loss of a hospice patient who had become very special to that volunteer. These small, thoughtful outreach gestures tell the volunteers that their manager listens, cares, and values them as individual people, not just as means to a required number of reportable volunteer hours.

Retaining Hospice Volunteers

All of the elements that make up effective recognition of hospice volunteers also comprise the tools of effective retention. People who know they are valued and know that their work is meaningful stay on as volunteers, some for many years and through many different types of positions within the hospice program. While sometimes needing temporary breaks in service, due to personal health, grief, or other life issues, hospice volunteers are largely loyal and dedicated to the program. Whether or not they remain in active service, hospice volunteers often remain on donor lists over many years and continue to spread word-of-mouth support for the agency for the rest of their lives.

Stressors for Hospice Volunteer Managers

Compassion Fatigue

Volunteer managers in all settings wear multiple hats and juggle the needs of many unique individuals—their volunteers. The manger of hospice volunteers shares these issues, and also deals with constant and cumulative loss. Compassion fatigue from continual exposure to suffering can take a toll on the energy and attitude of the manager of hospice volunteers, even though their work is not hands-on with the patients and families. They hear the emotional stories from their volunteers and their teammates. They see the names of patients come and go, day after day, and realize that those names represent lives. They watch their beloved volunteers sometimes fade under the strain of loss and sadness. Viktor E. Frankl said, "What is to give light, must endure burning." (QuoteWorld.org, 2011)

Any hospice volunteer manager who hopes to stay in the job and avoid burning out must find sources of rejuvenation and must actively embrace self-care, including rest, relaxation, balance, hobbies and a solid support system.

Rapid Response Requirement

The manager of hospice volunteers regularly pinballs from one interruption to another—phone calls and e-mail messages from volunteers, patients and fellow employees from the clinical teams—most needing attention very quickly. Time is running out for hospice patients, so the person who manages their volunteer caregivers must act with purpose and haste. And the needs keep coming. One patient dies, another new patient enters the hospice program and needs support. The careful documentation required by hospice standards, which follows each interpersonal contact, leaves little time for leisurely thinking. Hospice volunteer managers often feel they can never catch up and meet all the patient and volunteer needs that face them each day.

Complex Communication Needs

In addition to an atmosphere of steady loss and ongoing need, the manager of hospice volunteers must navigate a series of complex interactions every day. He or she must communicate clearly among the team of clinical professionals as well as with the volunteers, and carry information back and forth so that all are working toward the same patient care goals. He or she is an advocate for the patient, but also needs to protect the safety and experience of the volunteers, while expressing loyalty to the full interdisciplinary team to which he or she belongs.

Conclusion

Every hospice patient and family situation is unique and hospice care celebrates the uniqueness of each patient's care. Therefore, every request for volunteer support will present unique opportunities and challenges to the volunteer manager. Whether one sees it as a positive or negative aspect, the workday is constantly changing. The work is intense, but it stays fresh. There is never a time when a hospice volunteer manager can say, "Now I have seen it all." Sadness trickles through each day, but laughter and hope flow freely. Lives end, but life is celebrated daily. Good people show up to do hard, meaningful, humane work—easing the pain of others. The hospice volunteer manager gets to walk each day with those special people and share in those celebrated lives. What a gift!

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DIGITAL Q

Volunteer Resource Management in Local Development Organizations

An International Perspective (Portugal)

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International organizations such as 4H, Boy and Girl Scouts and Peace Corps have recognized the importance of volunteer resource management and engaging volunteers in their educational programs and organizational mission. A relevant consideration for non-governmental and governmental organizations in local development is this role of involving volunteers in management and program implementation. In Portugal, the involvement of volunteers within local development organizations is beginning to reflect the attention, concerns, and mission from these international organizations (Campos Franco, Wojciech Sokolowski, Hairel, & Salomon, 2005; Koehnen & Santos, 2009; Rocha, 2006). However, the development of volunteer capabilities and constructive community involvement requires additional adjustments to the management style in these organizations. Local development organizations need to strengthen their competencies in volunteer resource management and planning and increase community participation in organizational governance. In addition, they need to alter the organizational culture of these local development institutions as it relates to the involvement of the local community in the development process.

There is a need to improve the principles and ideals in volunteer resource management at the local level in nongovernmental and governmental organizations in Portugal and elsewhere. These organizations do not have an organizational culture that adequately values and uses a volunteer resource management system. Greater emphasis on planning and management of volunteer resources and engaging volunteers is essential to improving the competencies and effectiveness of potential organizational volunteers, as well as organizational leadership, strategy, and culture. For these reasons, the chapter will discuss the following processes and dimensions of volunteer resource management and planning as they relate to local development organizations: organizational culture and programs; volunteer resource management and planning for local development; budgeting; volunteer role or job analysis; identification of potential volunteers; recruitment and selection; supervision, orientation and integration in the organization; logistical support and training; volunteer recognition and rewards; performance appraisal and feedback; evaluation of volunteer resource management; organizational development; an organizational tool for community involvement; and the conclusion.

Organizational Culture and Programs

The organizational culture to be defined for local development organizations within this chapter is "constructionist." The organizational characteristics are to: (1) value organizational members who establish and achieve personal learning objectives that challenge them to grow in their profession and work; (2) value creativity in carrying out new tasks and functions; (3) support participation and personal development of all staff members in their work and management style; (4) work and collaborate with others in the organization as effective team members; (5) prioritize constructive interpersonal relationships in the organization; and (6) continue strengthening problem solving, decision making and learning in the organization (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2006).

With this in mind, the organizational culture for local development organizations often needs to be adapted, or sometimes changed to also engage volunteers at various levels, such as working as a volunteer in the organization and involving members of the community on advisory councils. The organizational culture should reflect a distributive, participative and learning organizational approach. In the selection, orientation and integration of volunteers, the socialization process should give them the values, objectives, shared perspectives, mission, and culture of the organization.

The philosophy and mission of the organization should address the needs of volunteers, local citizens and target groups that represent even the disenfranchised to bring about greater community involvement in local development and organizational governance. The educational programs and outreach should be participative and open, assessing the needs of the community, while addressing the mission of the local development organization. Organizational culture plays a significant role in defining volunteer resource management and planning, volunteer role or job analysis, selection, supervision and orientation, training, recognition and appraisal of the volunteer.

Volunteer Resource Management and Planning for Local Development

The local development organization needs to plan for the future in order to take advantage of potential volunteer staff and develop plans for greater involvement by the local population in the governance of the organization and its plans for local development.

The importance of forecasting volunteer personnel needs is related to organizational objectives and mission fulfillment. Human resource forecasting is used to predict future demand in the number and type of future staff requirements and identify the supply (external and internal) of potential candidates. The organization needs to determine the number of people needed to perform specific tasks and functions in the organization. The tools used for forecasting include surveys, Delphi techniques, statistical analysis, and focus group interviews.

The human resource audit determines the capabilities, skills, knowledge, attitudes, and performance of the staff through an inventorying process (Hampton, 1986; Koontz & Weihrich, 1988; Vijayaragavan & Singh, 1997). However, these community organizations (volunteer resource management) must also assist local populations in strengthening their leadership, social capital and decision-making capacity through volunteer resource management and planning.

Forecasting and auditing are, of course, important for the sustainability of the organization; however, it should also be an important goal that young people and women in rural areas with little organizational and management experience should be highly considered as potential volunteers. The social responsibility objective of volunteer resource management and planning in developmental organizations should be to permit these enthusiastic, but initially untrained, participants to gain supervised work experience as volunteers (Koehnen, 2010; Koehnen & Baptista, 2007; Koehnen, Baptista, & Portela, 2004).

Surveys and statistical analysis should be used to identify and characterize training programs that address the hard-to-reach members of the community, and then complement this training with supervised work experience programs for volunteers in the local development organization. A focus group interview with representatives of training and employment institutions could also be used to identify potential volunteers. Local development organizations could also search for potential volunteers among the unemployed graduates at higher educational institutions in their region. These candidates are a potential pool for volunteer resource management and planning. It also creates an opportunity for work experience with these volunteer candidates that could be useful for their future remunerated employment.

Volunteer resource management and planning recognizes that the volunteer can make a great contribution to the performance of the organization, but there are costs in the investment with volunteers such as recruitment, integration, supervision, and training.

Budgeting

The investment in volunteers and volunteer resource management and planning includes investment costs for the organization. These costs, such as recruitment, need to be estimated and defended in the budgeting process.

Economic growth and stability is tied not only to national educational policy, but the organization's educational process to strengthen knowledge, skills, and attitudes of the potential volunteers who live in local communities. Supervision and training of these volunteers is important for human resource development, but a budget is essential for determining the costs for integration in the organization. Bowgett and Gillett (2002) have outlined several key considerations during the process of budgeting that relate to volunteers, including:

1. *How much training will volunteers need? Where will it come from? How much will it cost?*
2. *What sort of support will volunteers need? How much supervision should they have?*
3. *Do you want to offer personal development to volunteers as part of the project?*
4. *Will volunteers have any specific access needs such as child care or physical disability?*
5. *What inputs will your organization need to make?* (p. 8)

The volunteer resource management and planning process will sustain expenses and costs to the organization such as: capital items (desks, computers etc); volunteer expenses (travel and lunches); recruitment, supervision and training of the volunteers; volunteer recognition and rewards; insurance; out-of-pocket expenses; and the time involved to design and complete the role or job analysis for volunteers. This is relevant information for government and nonprofit agencies or organizations in planning resource allocation.

Volunteer Role or Job Analysis

The volunteer role or job analysis is an important leadership determination to where the volunteer best fits in the local development organization. "Job analysis is a technique for investigating jobs and describing them in terms of general characteristics or factors such as the level of responsibility, working conditions, and requisite qualifications" (Hampton, 1986, p. 606). This process involves the definition of the job or role and the identification of skills, knowledge and qualifications necessary to do the job by collecting information about the job through questionnaires, interviews, performance observation, and the study of job records.

The questions to be asked in this investigative process that integrates volunteers into the organization include: (1) What are the collective tasks to identify in order to establish the role for the volunteer? (2) What type of volunteer candidate (experiences, physical skills, abilities and individual characteristics) could do the tasks identified for the role? (3) How does the role fit in the organizational structure? (4) What interrelationships exist within other jobs in the organization for the volunteer to know? (5) What are the essential tasks to be identified for the volunteer performance appraisal of their role is? and (6) What type of training, coaching and orientation is necessary for a volunteer to learn the tasks in the domains such as knowledge, attitudes and skills? (Allen, O'Toole, McDonnel, & Harris, 2003; Bowgett & Gillett 2002; Vijayaragavan & Singh 1997).

The position/role description is a result of the investigative process or volunteer role analysis that assists the volunteer resource manager and selecting, orienting, training, and teaming volunteers to work with paid staff and other volunteers. The volunteer position description for a constructionist local development organization might be more general. Nevertheless, the preparation and writing of the position/role description demonstrates the value of using volunteers. The volunteer position or role description can include the following general information:

- *Volunteer role title* can be, for example, receptionist, assistant manager, accountant, fundraiser, or bus driver, as part-time or full-time, for a period of three months, six months or one year. If the local development organization wants to give more candidates an opportunity to gain work experience, the duration of time is associated with this objective, and volunteers normally do not want to work 40 hours a week.
- *Incentives, benefits, and rewards for volunteers* need to be clarified and made clear that the incentives, benefits and rewards should include: accident insurance, gasoline expenses, volunteer recognition dinner, training, letters of reference, a special stipend, recommendation for a remunerated position in the organization, participation in research projects, certificate of service and travel award. Importantly, a simple thank you for a job well done by organizational staff is essential.
- *Volunteer role summary* is a short definition of the organizational role the volunteer is going to fulfill.
- *Volunteer responsibilities and duties* is a general list of the tasks and responsibilities associated with the volunteer position. It should not be too specific as volunteers are normally working in the organization to gain work experience and to develop professionally. The integration and supervision process demands that the volunteer resource manager coach the volunteers to learn many additional tasks through a continuous and cumulative educational process.
- *Volunteer organizational relationships* need to be made clear as to their position, and the identity of their immediate supervisor in the organizational structure, such as horizontal, vertical, or a mixture.
- *Volunteer attributes, knowledge, skills, and attitudes* for some positions like an accountant might require prerequisites in the volunteer position description. However, in many cases an in-service training program or one-to-one supervision to integrate the volunteer in the position permits a competency classification as desirable rather than essential to be published in the future position announcement. In any case, some general attributes such as a team player, capacity to make decisions in a group environment, problem-solver, creative, good writing and communication skills, perseverance, and helpfulness, can be used in the volunteer position description.
- *Structure of authority* for the volunteer position needs to be made clear in the position description. What decisions can the volunteer make without consulting the supervisor? What authority does the volunteer have to pay expenses or ask for credit at local businesses? In most organizations, there are clear procedures and policies that explain the process and authority regarding organizational expenditures.
- *Volunteer performance criteria* need to be established up front for the future performance appraisal or assessment of the volunteer. The process should be transparent and could be adjusted through a participative intervention by the volunteer during the integration process. The performance criteria for the future performance appraisal and assessment could be defined both by the volunteer and the immediate supervisor. In any case, a preliminary list for the evaluation of job performance by the volunteer can be a part of the job description

(Allen et al. 2003; Bowgett & Gillett 2002; Hampton 1986; Kinicki & Kreitner 2006; Koontz & Weihrich 1988).

The volunteer role analysis and description can contribute to strengthening volunteer development in the local development organization. These procedures can also improve the organizational performance and assist in the identification, recruitment, selection, and supervision of volunteers.

Identification of Potential Volunteers

Preferably, the identification of potential volunteers by the local development organization should begin at the local and community level. The local population should be a primary source for potential volunteers for development organizations in that area. This will help ensure an increase in local level participation, including leadership and governance in the organizational decision-making process. Organizations should seek to engage the local populations in governance and local development in their geographical area.

The local development organization can help develop a database for potential volunteers. The identification of potential volunteers can be organized through an identification and screening process by an ad hoc committee representative of local governmental and nongovernmental organizations to strengthen recruitment and selection. The identified potential volunteers can then be sent a cover letter, addressed and stamped return envelope, and a volunteer job application form that can be filled out and returned to the organization. The information is entered into a database containing names, contacts and other pertinent vitae information about these potential volunteers. In addition to the ad hoc committee, ex-volunteers can be a source for identifying potential new volunteers. Information security considerations and protection of personal information policies and procedures should be in place prior to building the database.

For reasons of social responsibility, local development organizations should also be open to internships and supervised work experience programs from vocational training programs, training and employment institutions, regional universities, and community colleges. The collection of information about these potential volunteers can be included in the computer filing system by downloading curriculum vitae information.

Both government and nongovernmental development organizations should consider a volunteer rotation system that would allow a pragmatic turnover rate, thus giving community members, interns, and newly unemployed graduates a broader range of opportunities to increase their work experience. This would increase the potential number of volunteers to serve in the organization and give many more opportunities for unremunerated supervised work experience. Over time, it would also expand the base of potentially satisfied volunteer "customers," thus adding to public support and the availability of other resources.

The identification of potential volunteers has been related to organizational culture and the mission of these governmental and non-governmental organizations. It also gives direction to the volunteer recruitment and selection process.

Recruitment and Selection

The recruitment process is used to search for volunteers whose qualifications closely match those developed for the volunteer job analyses, in particular, for positions that have prerequisites (e.g., volunteer accountants). In addition, it is used to find and attract new volunteers through recruitment campaigns directed at a broad, representative range of people or target groups. The volunteer description forms can be used to implement a mini-informational campaign and advertise the volunteer positions through the organization's external social capital (i.e., partnerships and relationships with other organizations). The recruitment process is also used for the established volunteer rotation system that requires succession planning, and an updating of a pool of applications to increase the database of the organization.

Communication channels for recruitment campaigns can be word of mouth, local newspapers that print the position description, employment agencies or training and educational institutions, advertising with local radio programs, and the internal organizational communication system. In any case, all members of the organization should be aware that the organization is looking for volunteers and that it values their participation and involvement. This is supportive of the organizational culture and mission of a constructivist organization.

The completion of application forms and initial verification of reference contacts such as telephone numbers and addresses is the final phase in recruitment, and interviewing the potential candidates is part of the selection process. However, the organization must use an appropriate and nondiscriminating application form for volunteers, and orient and assist the applicants in identifying nonfamily references as information needed for the screening process.

The volunteer selection process includes an intensive background screening and a check of references and a personal interview (individual or panel), followed by a final decision to place or not to place the volunteer in the organization. The interview should allow for a give-and-take mode in the questioning and exchange with potential volunteers, and not necessarily follow the same procedure for remunerated positions. They need encouragement and information about their role in the organization. The interviewer probes for pertinent information in a relaxed atmosphere in order to make an appropriate decision and to match the best candidate to a particular volunteer role. Note taking should be done without offending the candidate. Adequate time should be allowed following the interview to prepare positive and negative impressions about the potential volunteer (Allen et al. 2003; Fryar, Jackson, & Dyer, 2008; Hampton 1986; Jarvis 2007; Koontz & Weihrich 1988). These highly personal notes about candidates must be safeguarded in order to protect the privacy of all concerned.

When the selection decision is made, the volunteer is notified, and if they accept the position, the nonselected candidates must be informed of the decision as soon as possible. The selected volunteer must be integrated into the volunteer role and feel welcomed by all members of the organization.

Volunteer Supervision, Orientation, and Integration in the Organization

The supervision, orientation, and integration process is important for the retention of volunteers. It can be compared to a socialization process, in fact, "organizational socialization is defined in several different ways. A global view includes three aspects: the acquisition of work skills and abilities; the adoption of appropriate role behaviors; and the adjustment to the norms and values of the work group" (Koontz & Weihrich 1988, p. 334). A code of conduct can be discussed and approved by the volunteer in the induction process, along with an initial exchange about the volunteer role in the organization and his or her agreement to the terms (i.e., hours to work and breaks, duration of volunteer contract and working conditions), followed by additional orientation and integration activities.

Additional integration activities include workplace orientation and other pertinent places. The volunteer should also be introduced to their supervisors and to other members and volunteers in the organization to make them feel welcome. Give them time to read and discuss basic information about the mission, objectives, and programs of the organization. The volunteer manager can include a lecture/discussion about the organizational structure, history, culture, and where they fit in the organization. In addition, the volunteers should be made aware of the importance of on-the-job training and safety requirements, performance appraisal, the autonomy and authority they have in the organization, and the openness for giving the organization advice on how to improve organizational performance. Other working condition information background should be made clear, such as: holidays and vacation, dress code, insurance benefits, safety issues, and the necessity to advise their supervisor when they cannot make it to work (e.g., absenteeism) (Allen et al. 2003; Bowgett & Gillett 2002; McClury & Lynch 1998). All of these activities are important in establishing an honest and sincere volunteer relationship, as well as motivating them to improve their volunteer role performance.

Ongoing supervision will be formal (one-to-one weekly or monthly meetings), informal (make an effort to greet them during the day), and group activities (e.g., staff or volunteer meetings). During the supervision process, for example, thank them for helping out, discuss work plans and difficulties that arise, ask them what they like and do not like about their role, try to find out if there is something you could do as a supervisor to facilitate their work performance, make them aware that you permit trial and error in the improvement of their role performance and the organization respects continuous learning, and always welcome problem identification and suggestions that the volunteer has for the improvement of organizational performance or the resolution of organizational problems (Bowgett & Gillett 2002).

The motivational and management style for volunteer supervision could alternate depending on the confronted situation, the behavior of the volunteer, and the time to do tasks. Volunteer motivation reflects the ideas about individual needs from a comparison of Maslow and Herzburg: physiological/working conditions, security/benefits, social/relationships with fellow workers and other volunteers, self-esteem or ego/peer recognition and self-actualization/personal challenges for growth and development (Teixeira 2005). In addition, the volunteer resource manager must understand that a volunteer has personal developmental needs, goals and interests that may require some adjusting to the organizational goals and interests. With this in mind, the supervisor should establish goals with the volunteer that can benefit him/her and the organization.

The behavior styles that supervisors can use to motivate volunteers in different situations or confronting incorrect attitudes are positive, negative, and permissive.

A particular style may be used to change a volunteer behavior, motivate the person to improve their performance or attitude, while adhering to the organizational culture and code of conduct. The negative style typically uses threats and exclusion, the positive style uses rewards and inclusion, while the permissive style allows freedom to learn, or trial and error (Robinson, Clifford, & Willis, 1977).

The responsibility for volunteer supervision and orientation extends to other dimensions such as logistical support and training.

Logistical Support and Training

The logistical support required for successful volunteer induction is typically related to quality of work, adequate working conditions, and a comfortable and safe place to work. The work environment requires equipment, such as: desks, chairs, computer, telephone, and lamps, along with adequate office supplies and stationary to facilitate volunteer performance and job satisfaction. Logistical support may involve: (1) getting them in their workstation with dignity; (2) supplying them with adequate materials for their volunteer role; (3) informing about the internal communication channels available in the organization; (4) distributing and discussing the volunteer code of conduct; (5) explaining reimbursement procedures and the policies for out-of-pocket volunteer expenses; and (6) attending to insurance coverage and procedures for work related accidents.

In addition, special personal requirements may be necessary for handicapped and older volunteers, as well as support to mothers who require assistance in finding nearby childcare. Logistical support can also include a regular inventory of office supplies and equipment requirements, assessment of grievances, concerns, role satisfaction and personal needs of the volunteer, carrying out a risk assessment and follow-up with training session to maintain a safe, healthy and disciplined work environment to avoid either disciplinary procedures or losing a good volunteer.

Volunteer in-service training is determined by the volunteer resource management and planning process that includes the identification of competencies for the volunteer role, organizational goals related to the position, and a needs assessment of the volunteer in order to identify the possible lacking competencies. In this regard, an assessment is conducted to determine if the volunteer requires an in-service training program to be brought up to scale and to do their job satisfactorily in the organization prior to completely assuming their organizational role. However, in a constructivist local development organization, the training process is also continuous and related to organizational and staff development.

The training process should be planned and implemented to improve role performance and strengthen knowledge, skills, and attitudes associated with volunteer development. Gaining work experience and new capacities is a part of the motivation process for some volunteers, particularly those who are using their volunteer experience to prepare for future professional or vocational remunerated positions.

The training program develops a training plan with topics, learning objectives, teaching methods and an evaluation tool or exercises to verify that the trainee has gained the skill, knowledge, or attitude intended in the training session. The training methods should include a mix designed and selected to engage learners who have different learning styles. The types of methods available include lecture/discussion, coaching, workshops, method demonstration (simulation), games, role-playing, and supervised job rotation experiences among many others. The integration and continuous training strengthens the performance of volunteers that keep them motivated and satisfied to work in the local development organization.

As the volunteers are not remunerated, the training opportunities for volunteers provide a clear message and means to reward volunteers—as well as strengthen their performance. The next section will discuss further volunteer rewards and recognition.

Volunteer Recognition and Rewards

A volunteer with proper supervision and orientation will contribute to strengthening the overall organizational performance. As would a trusted and active team member, the organization should continually monitor, support and facilitate volunteer performance and satisfaction. The strengthening and maintenance of volunteer satisfaction is typically correlated to adequate implementation of the elements and dimensions in the volunteer resource management and planning process. The informal and formal interactive supervision of these volunteers in order to construct honest and pertinent relationships with them is important in the recognition process. These team relationships reflect those found in a primary group. For example, as it would a friend, the organization should make a special effort to know and recognize volunteer birthdays.

How do we recognize good performance by a volunteer? The simple and most direct answer would be by thanking them for their contribution to the performance of the organization. This can be in written or spoken form. The overall message being conveyed is that the organization and its leadership values and recognizes their achievements. Members of the organization can be encouraged and prompted in a variety of ways to individually convey their appreciation and gratitude for good volunteer performance. Volunteer satisfaction goes hand-in-hand with recognition by their peers.

How do we reward volunteer performance, work, and their contribution to the organization? One approach, often used by successful organizations, is a special date during the year to celebrate outstanding performance through a volunteer recognition dinner or luncheon event. The dinner or luncheon event can be used to transmit "a job well done" message to those present, and to present formally a certificate of service and/or gift.

In addition, the organization should always be receptive to providing letters of reference. Further, consideration should be given for a special stipend or travel award for outstanding performance. Participation in research projects offers another possibility to reward and recognize good performance that may lead to team publications. Finally, the volunteer can be rewarded by being recommended and offered a remunerated position in the organization.

This recognition process to keep volunteers satisfied with their role in the organization is important. And yet the process is not complete without meaningful feedback regarding their performance in the organization. This dimension will be discussed in the next section while highlighting some of the concerns and preoccupations in the performance appraisal and feedback process.

Performance Appraisal and Feedback

The performance appraisal or evaluation process has undergone many changes—and some criticism—over the years in constructive and learning organizations. Therefore, this section offers a brief discussion about methods and instruments used to evaluate the performance of staff, such as:

- *Traditional methods*. Rating and focusing on a list of traits or perceptions such as paired comparison, checklist method, graphic rating scale and straight ranking method (Chiavenato 1998; Koontz & Weihrich 1988).
- *Critical incidents*. Using incidents or episodes of observed behavior in order to rate the performance of the volunteer.
- *Management by objectives* (MBO). Supervisor and volunteer work together to identify and design the objectives to be used in the appraisal.
- *Use of dynamic job descriptions* "that identify the kind of *behavior* that is expected" (Hampton 1986, p. 605).

For Hampton (1986), the concern with traditional methods is that they reflect a "judgment-centered approach," where the supervisor is not always comfortable with rating traits to describe the performance of the staff member. The critical incidents evaluation can still be biased in the perception used for rating, while the problem with MBO is "the tendency to emphasize results at the expense of the means by which results are achieved" (p. 604).

In reality, the problems and concerns presented about performance appraisal or evaluation have been resolved by the volunteer resource management and planning process. When the job or role analysis has been adequately planned and implemented, it has defined job attributes, competencies and behaviors in the written role description or "dynamic job description." In fact, the role description has been discussed with the volunteer during the recruitment, selection, induction, and supervision activities. The kind of volunteer-expected behavior has been communicated in a transparent, interactive coaching process. The volunteer understands the role description and is encouraged to give suggestions in role performance—this should strengthen satisfaction.

According to Volunteer Canada (n.d.), some questions that can be asked to involve the volunteer in the performance appraisal include:

- Do you believe that you have done the duties and tasks for your volunteer role?
- What additional training or support do you require to be more effective?
- Do you feel like a team member within the organization?
- What do you like to do least in your volunteer role?
- What do you like to do best in your volunteer role?
- Do you feel that you receive adequate recognition and support for the volunteer work that you do?

- What skills or talents do you have that the organization has not asked you to do?
- Do you have suggestions that can improve the volunteer resource management and planning?

As the performance appraisal is a monitoring process—as is the case for motivation, supervision, and training—and not just a summative performance evaluation, volunteers have had opportunities to react and offer suggestions for additional behavior attributes for their role. The goal of the performance appraisal feedback process is to help improve the capacities, performance, personal development, and satisfaction of volunteers, and it is related to the coaching process; it also resembles a counseling role.

The next section considers the evaluation of volunteer resource management and planning.

Evaluation of Volunteer Resource Management and Planning

As is true in most management processes, an evaluation of volunteer resource management and planning is important in order to strengthen and improve the effectiveness of the management and leadership of local development organizations. Some of the pertinent questions for the evaluation of volunteer resource management and planning include:

- What are the strengths and weaknesses of the steps, principles or dimensions in this process?
- Do we need to include a monitoring aspect in this management process?
- Did the process identify sufficient members from the local population for volunteer activities?
- How has the volunteer contributed to improving organizational performance?
- Does the community believe that volunteer resource management and planning has been effective?
- How can volunteer resource management and planning be more participative and have greater involvement with the community?

The reason for evaluation is to strengthen organizational development by giving the members of the organization a means to identify inappropriate aspects in organizational performance. Next, the organization, if necessary, will find it effective to intervene in the organizational culture and development.

Organizational Development

Hampton (1986) states that organizational development has come about by "explicit analysis of the problems of conflict and change and of interpersonal relations, group and inter-group dynamics resulted, historically, in the creation of a specialty within the field of management" (pp. 556–57). The process for organizational development is continuous and requires that the organization permit reflection on what its members and volunteers do, what works and what does not work in order to permit organizational change and transformation. The practices of organizational development may include intervention in group-processes to improve overall organizational functioning.

The unlearning of tasks can be a part of organizational development while maintaining a preoccupation with improving the collective performance of the organization. Formal and informal networks should be assessed for their contributions to intellectual learning and social support, or to establish an open problem-solving environment in the organization. In addition, it should be kept in mind that effective staff and organizational development often involves personal learning and sharing with others as a way to increase ownership and self-direction within the organization.

Organizational transformation and development has a parallel process in seeking to establish community involvement and governance in local development organizations. Governmental and nongovernmental organizations should value informal developmental networks that increase community involvement in local development.

An Organizational Tool for Community Involvement

Volunteer resource management and planning should also be concerned with community involvement in the local development process. The engagement of community members in the process of volunteer resource management within both governmental and nongovernmental organizations implies supervision, orientation, and continuous education to promote active citizenship participation. The engagement process facilitating citizen participation can be complicated and may involve social change, particularly for excluded social groups in the community. The local development organization may need to alter attitudes and knowledge about active participation and local development.

Human resource management should analyze the actual situation (capabilities) of the local population in such areas as governance, participation, leadership, social capital, and the collective decision-making capacities. The local social groups that have capacities for self-determination might, for example, require different educational approaches than a social group, devitalized with a high degree of social and economic exclusion, and lacking power to make community decisions. "Communities endowed with a diversity stock of social networks and civic associations are in a stronger position to confront poverty and vulnerability" (Woolcock & Narayan 2000, p. 226). Human resource management can play an important role in strengthening and engaging community members in the local development process.

The goal for the manager of the engagement process in these organizations should include educating and mobilizing the social groups to reach the final step in participation—that is, self-mobilization or empowerment (Pretty, Gujt, Thompson, & Scoones, 1995, p. 61). Local development should support the local population in reaching these goals or high levels of participation through nonformal educational programs or training. Local development and human resource management should empower the local populations by social action processes. Volunteer resource management should start the community member at their appropriate participation level, and then move them through learning activities to advance through the participation continuum—from orientation, qualification, and participation, to supervision. One of the specific tools to do this is an advisory council in the organization.

An advisory council is a group of people recruited and selected to help oversee the process of advising governmental and nongovernmental development organizations. Typically, it helps plan, implement, and evaluate local development projects using, if necessary, the social action process. The advisory council functions as a mechanism or tool to organize the participation of the members of the community in the process of local development (Boyle 1981).

Administrative planning and implementation of the developmental programs within governmental and nongovernmental organizations should engage the communities requiring local development projects. Social accountability, mobilization, and communication are necessary to improve voluntary participation of the local populations in the development process. The advisory council can be organized and directed to engage the local population in decision making at the organization level and to support members in constructing or creating additional social capital.

A local advisory council within governmental and nongovernmental organizations can increase the skills and abilities needed by others to lead in the local development process. The councils can help advance participation to a more active level by engaging local populations. Councils can be important instruments to strengthen participation, particularly when there is a high level of citizen rotation, and thus avoid self-selection. The continuing rotation of community members can increase the overall "participation and expert problem-solving within the same overall structure" (Moris 1981, p.135).

Conclusion

We have been concerned in this chapter with volunteer resource management applied at the level of local development. Effectively managing volunteers and volunteer resources can be a particularly valuable approach to strengthen and improve performance by local development organizations. Volunteer resource management is a process that seeks to improve the contributions volunteers can make to mission fulfillment by local development organizations. The author urges the reader to consider further self-study of such dimensions as organizational culture, role analysis and performance appraisal, and, in particular, a personal assessment of the traditional methods and critical incidents in this process.

We conclude with some questions provided to stimulate further discussion and self-direction:

- Why do local development organizations need to consider implementing a volunteer resource management and planning process?
- Identify the advantages and disadvantages of people participating in an advisory council.
- Define participation and community involvement in local development.

- What is the role of policy makers to increase local level participation and community engagement?
- How can we improve the coordination and cooperation of interinstitutional communication to benefit local development and volunteer activities in local development organizations?

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DIGITAL R

International Volunteer Management

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Citizens on every continent volunteer in many ways, for a variety of causes, and motivated for different reasons. The young and old, rich and poor, highly educated and less educated volunteer.

This chapter reviews definitions, history, structure and impact of international volunteer programs and resource management. Provided are examples of volunteer programs from countries around the world which represent programs a) internal to countries on each continent, and b) those that are transnational. The authors will also specifically discuss youth volunteers in international programs, comparing and contrasting international youth civic engagement.

Meaning of Volunteerism: International Perspectives

The volunteer, or the act of volunteering, is understood in different ways around the world. In the United States, the Corporation for National and Community Service (2010) uses a common definition: volunteerism as persons who do unpaid work (except for expenses) through or for an organization. Kenny and Gallagher (2003) provide more detail, defining a volunteer as "a person who performs a service or good deed of her own free will and without pay. There is no explicit focus on academic or civic learning or personal or professional development to be gained by the volunteer" (p. 292). Volunteer Canada takes the position that volunteering is a fundamental act of citizenship and philanthropy in society.

The word volunteer or volunteerism does not exist in some languages, although the actions of people in those cultures convey the same meaning of helping, taking care of one's neighbor, or serving one's community. In some societies, the concept of volunteering refers to the activities of only a few citizens, as referenced by Hobbs and Sawyer (2009), "In most Latin American countries, volunteering refers to the efforts made by the (small number of) very rich to help the poor" (p. 18). Even though volunteerism is interpreted in different ways around the world, the broad philosophy of volunteerism is a familiar activity in most cultures.

Turning Points

Political environments have affected volunteer programs and volunteer resource management throughout the history of the world. In times of rapid economic and social change, individual volunteers and organizations respond to human and community needs. As noted under the dictatorship of Franco, all charitable activity in Spain was required to occur through the Church, with the exception of the Red Cross and Caritas. After 1977, the Spanish government established policies for the "Third Social Sector" and major changes occurred creating a strong youth volunteer corps.

International Year of Volunteers

The International Year of Volunteers, 2001, was a turning point for many countries to increase the numbers of volunteers and enhance volunteer resource management. Today, to celebrate the 10th anniversary of the historical International Year of Volunteers, forty volunteer-based organizations spanning the globe have come together to celebrate a decade of progress in volunteerism around the world.

Virtual Volunteering

Virtual volunteering is a relatively new phenomenon. It may be referred to as cyberservice, online mentoring, or online volunteering. "Online volunteering means volunteer activities that are completed, in whole or in part, via the Internet on a home, work, or public access computer, usually in support of or through a mission-based organization (nonprofit, NGO, civil society, etc.)," (Cravens, 2006, p. 16). Tasks that virtual volunteers may do for an organization include website design, translation, curriculum design, producing marketing materials, research, data analysis, and online coaching/mentoring. The benefits of virtual volunteering to host organizations in terms of their volunteer resource management include, 1) cost savings, 2) expertise the organization did not have, and 3) greater diversity of resources available.

Social Capital

As stated by Smith (1999), "Volunteerism can create social capital—that is, social networks of trust and cooperation—that can then promote greater political involvement and citizen participation in public affairs. The civic infrastructure, broadly defined, will be stronger" (p. 169).

A Movement: International Volunteer Programs

Over one million Americans reported volunteering internationally in 2008 according to a report published by the Center for Social Development (Lough, 2010, p. 1). This reflects an increase of more than 145,000 U.S. citizens volunteering internationally between 2004 and 2008.

In South Korea, a recent report listed 240,535 volunteers registered with the Ministry of Health and Welfare compared to 96,425 in 2002 (World Volunteer Web).

Explanations for the growing interest in international service are diverse. McBride and Daftary (2005) found that increasing globalization and the bridging nature of technologies have led to more individuals becoming invested in situations beyond their own borders, making international service more attractive and increasingly popular. Individual motivations for international service, as identified by Lough, McBride, and Sherraden (2009), fall primarily into four categories: 1) altruism (making a difference, helping to reduce social or economic inequality), 2) personal transformation (having a meaningful experience, making new friends, seeking personal growth, increasing intercultural awareness and understanding, 3) skill and/or professional development (gaining experience abroad, expanding professional networks, leveraging skills and career development, fulfilling educational requirements, needing a vocation, and 4) simply being asked. Additional motivations include seeking to do something more substantial while traveling (also called vacation volunteering or voluntourism).

Leisure and Learning

People volunteer at international sites when clean water is scarce, natural disaster limits safe living accommodations, or political danger exists. The amount of volunteer time and talent given during vacation time varies from one day to several years. To reinforce the positive role of volunteer service and reduce negative impact of international volunteers at the host site, some organizations have established guidelines for volunteer agendas that may include vacations. Volunteer use of leisure time at the program site can vary with each volunteer organization, location and volunteer project.

For volunteers conducting research in the Antarctic, Doll and Gunderson (1972) reported that watching movies, writing letters, playing games (billiards, chess, checkers, cards), talking on a ham radio, or taking an educational course were the typical methods of enjoyment and potential "escapism" in a location where volunteers spent many months, and where the weather can be hostile. The volunteer experience in the Antarctic is affected by the compatibility of individuals present, size of facilities, and need for occasional escape. Other things being equal, ". . . a variety of interactions would be enhanced by an increase in the number of people available . . . ." (p. 7).

Volunteerism Around the World

In this handbook, Brudney describes two types of volunteers needed for preparing an organization for volunteer program management: service volunteers and policy volunteers. A review of literature and available websites reflects that the vast majority of international volunteers are *service volunteers*, people who donate their time to help other people directly, rather than *policy volunteers*, who assume roles on boards and committees of nonprofit organizations.

Volunteer Programs Within Borders

There are examples of volunteer programs on all continents. These programs reflect the value of volunteer involvement in accomplishing local, state, federal and/or global goals, together. The organization Volunteer for Community Development and Environment Education exists in Viet Nam to engage citizens to build communities.

- Kazakhstan is currently inviting volunteers to be engaged to accomplish national Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that align with the International Year of Volunteers.
- The vision of Australian Volunteers International is for citizens of that country to contribute to "a peaceful, just, and sustainable world where people have access to resources they need, respecting cultural diversity and the right for communities to make decisions about their own future" (Australian Volunteers International, 2011, p. 3).
- Argentina's Ministry of Education reports that 25 of the country's 50 best service-learning projects were performed by low-income students who were addressing their own communities concerns (Tapia, 2007).
- In 2009, 511,968 volunteers delivered the 4-H Youth Development Program to 6,019,201 young people in the United States. Volunteers were teachers, coaches, advisors, guides, and program managers (National 4-H Headquarters, 2009).

Volunteer Programs Across Borders

Transnational service programs like the European Volunteer Service (EVS) engage local citizens and international volunteers side-by-side in community development activities. Thirty countries on three continents have joined the Centre for European Volunteers (CEV) as partners to promote volunteerism and agree to work with volunteers at all levels of society. As of Jan. 15, 2011, 26 of 47 European countries are members, associate members or partners in the Centre for European Volunteers. Their mission is to promote volunteerism to work with volunteers to build a cohesive and inclusive society based on solidarity and active citizenship.

Governmental Organizations

United Nations Volunteers (UNV) mobilizes over 7,000 volunteers in more than 40 countries annually. Beginning in 1970, United Nations Volunteers have promoted and harnessed volunteers for effective local development, civic engagement, political development and community self-help.

Initiated by U.S. President John F. Kennedy, the Peace Corps has recruited volunteers for the purpose of developing positive relationships across borders while improving conditions of agriculture, business, education, the environment, and health of local communities. Since its inception in 1961, the Peace Corps has placed 8,655 volunteers in 77 countries. Recently, local environments have improved to increase opportunities for the Peace Corps to place volunteers in more than 46 countries in the Pacific Rim, 25 African countries, and 20 Mediterranean and Asian countries.

Religious Organizations

Religious groups have created international volunteer resource management systems to support beliefs around one's responsibilities to others or to one's environment. These actions are inspired by the lives of their deity(s), prophets, saints, martyrs, or human rights activists affiliated with that group. Lough (2006) found that 50% of Americans who volunteered abroad in 2005 did so with a faith-based organization.

Around the world, faith-based volunteers work in communities to address needs. In Israel, Muslim volunteers focus on change of seasons with the church. They cleaned forests in Algiers in collaboration with Muslim Scouts of Algeria.

Many religious organizations have well-established volunteer programs with highly developed management structures. Mercy Volunteer Corps, is an example of a well-structured volunteer management system that includes detailed timelines, in-depth orientation, training in language and relationships, program support, behavior expectations, and thorough debriefing at the close of the international volunteer experience.

Civic Service

In McBride, Brav, Menon, & Sherraden (2006), a formal definition of civic service states that civic service is an "organized period of substantial engagement and contribution to the local, national, or world community, recognized and valued by society, with minimal monetary compensation to the participant" (p. 307). This definition separates civic service from occasional volunteering.

Further, McBride et al. (2006) discusses service programs as differing in three ways: a) the type of organization sponsor, b) the specific activities undertaken by the volunteers, and c) the scope of activity. Specifically, in volunteer programs focused on civic service, they identify three overarching objectives (to) ". . . engage in needed public work, promote social justice, and create opportunities that advance cross-cultural understanding and active citizenship through interaction among the volunteers and host communities" (p. 308).

Within the overall body of research on international civic engagement, one of the largest remaining gaps exists in understanding the impacts, perceived value and volunteer resource management practices of the organizations that engage international volunteers. Indeed, what research does exist has focused on the role of volunteer-sending organizations rather than the local host entities.

One of the more comprehensive explorations of international volunteer impact on volunteer-sending organizations was conducted by Sherraden, Lough, and McBride (2008), in which the authors found that organizations are central actors in determining what international civic engagement will look like for individuals, communities, and organizations. Specifically, the authors cited the matching process-determining the fit of a volunteer for an organization based on both individual and organizational goals and objectives—as potentially being "a key to predicting outcomes" (p. 399). Similarly, the outcome was more effective when an intermediary organization was able to coordinate international volunteer services and cover those costs.

Sherraden, Lough, and McBride (2008) also explored issues of institutional capacity for engaging international volunteers, focusing specifically on such areas as:

- Financial and human resources to fund and manage international volunteers
- Accessibility and attracting and/or recruiting diverse volunteers
- Internationality, or the direction and flow of volunteers (e.g., unilateral, bilateral, etc.)
- Information
- Financial incentives and/or assistance to increase access for and diversity of volunteers
- Facilitation
- Volunteer resource management (specifically training, support, and supervision)
- Organizational networks
- Accountability

While Sherraden, Lough, and McBride (2008) focused on volunteer-sending entities rather than host organizations, their research does bolster the call for a better understanding of host organization capacity, and how that relates to individual motivation, volunteer-sending organization goals, and the overall impact of international service on global volunteers, organizations and communities.

Structures: A Comparison of International Volunteer Resource Management

Whether the volunteer organization is located in Bolivia, Canada, France, Holland, Japan, or New Zealand, there are common elements of international volunteer programs and volunteer resource management systems.

From an organizational or institutional perspective, Sherraden, Stringham, Sow, and McBride (2006) cited that the primary goals for international voluntary service are to foster cross-cultural understanding, promote peace, and advance a shared global citizenship.

The models for international voluntary service are diverse and dependent upon several factors (Sherraden et al., 2006). First, the length of service may be anywhere from short-term to long-term, ranging from one day service projects to several year-long commitments. Illustrating this distinction, Lough (2006) found that 65% of Americans who volunteered abroad in 2005 served for two or fewer weeks while only 15% volunteered for longer than two months. Second, the type of volunteer project or role may be direct service—where volunteers are likely on the front lines of service delivery, or indirect service where they focus on organizational capacity building, behind the scenes, to help better serve their audience and make progress toward their mission. Third, the direction of service can range from unilateral to bilateral or even multilateral, though more current models of international service remain unilateral exchanges of volunteers from industrialized nations to communities in developing countries. Fourth, the organizational type engaging the volunteer can range from government agencies (e.g. the U.S. Peace Corps) to nonprofit or nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) to for-profit entities. These organizations can also be secular or faith-based. Fifth, the requirements for a volunteer to participate can range from age—several international service programs are focused on youth engagement while others target older volunteers—to specific skill sets and expertise. Sixth, volunteer abroad projects and roles can fall anywhere along an enormous spectrum of potential opportunities, issues, and causes addressed—from building infrastructure post-disaster to teaching and assisting local entrepreneurs with microfinance. Seventh, most international volunteers contribute their time and expertise via one of two organizational structures: volunteer-sending organizations and host organizations.

Volunteer-sending organizations exist primarily to coordinate and facilitate international exchanges; individuals volunteer either directly with and through the volunteer-sending program or with one of their partner organizations in the host community. Conversely, host organizations are those local entities that seek and/or accept international volunteers—either independently or via a partnership with volunteer-sending organizations.

Organizational practices supporting international volunteers vary widely. Many volunteer-sending and, to a lesser extent, host organizations, provide services such as housing, meals, transportation, language support, training and orientation, and/or structured cultural excursions. Others may be unable to provide anything beyond a place for the volunteers to work. The responsibility for recruiting, screening, matching/placing, training, and supervising international volunteers can fall to volunteer-sending or host organizations. The costs of engaging an international volunteer may be borne by one or both parties, or passed on to the volunteer.

Recruitment, Selection, and Training

Some organizations have extensive systems for managing international volunteer programs, including:

- Volunteer recruitment
- Screening
- Orienting to program mission, values, and behavioral expectations
- Training in culture, traditions, and language
- Site needs analysis, selection, procurement, and preparation
- Volunteer housing and transportation
- Staff roles
- Personal relationships
- Volunteer vacation time
- Expenses and medical emergencies
- Timelines

- Terminations
- Post-program reflection, evaluation, impact indicators, debriefing, and cultural transition

Only a few studies have examined volunteer resource management and recruitment practices of host organizations. For example, Lough's (2006) study of Americans serving abroad identified that half of those volunteering abroad sought out and contacted host and volunteer-sending organizations themselves, while another third were asked by someone at the organization. Lough also found that less than 1% of Americans volunteering internationally in 2005 found their service opportunity through traditional volunteer recruitment mediums such as media or the Internet. McBride, Sherraden, and Lough (2007) also outlined some existing research findings on volunteer resource management practices specific to engaging international volunteers, including the importance of crafting and implementing comprehensive application, screening, training and orientation, cultural and language support, and supervisory methods and processes for managing foreign volunteers.

However, there is still little understanding of and evidence as to why an organization might proactively seek or positively respond to the request for international volunteers. One study by Vian, Feeley, MacLeod, Richards, and McCoy (2007) focused specifically on international corporate volunteers. The study explored perceptions by assessing pre-and post-volunteer capacity of organizations that partnered with international corporate engagement programs. They found that in most cases, organizations perceived their capacity levels to have stayed the same or improved.

While organizations consistently state their mission and purpose of the international volunteer work, the level of detail that an international volunteer program dedicates to volunteer orientation and training varies greatly. The government Farmer-to-Farmer Program (USAID) provides a 178-page volunteer program manual (Gilbert, et al., 2005) with details including program structure, educational guidelines and evaluation plans. Mercy Volunteer Corps provides a 31-page handbook that includes specific expectations for building solid relationships, and ongoing commitment to understand, respect, and meet local interests.

Managing volunteer resources for meeting cross-cultural objectives may vary in some ways from program management in a monocultural situation. Here are six considerations as stated by USAID (Gilbert et al., 2005).

1. Ensure that volunteer programs complement existing programs.
2. Balance the twin program goals of assuring a "good experience" for volunteers with the need to show results against the objectives of the donor (program) and host country.
3. Design volunteer assignments so they work with intermediaries serving groups of beneficiaries rather than individuals.
4. Report results and impacts against both a broad set of objectives as well as against the specific objectives of the volunteer program.
5. Monitor program efficiencies.
6. Consider potential impacts on poverty reduction, equity, and environmental conditions.

Volunteer program managers may learn lessons gained from one program that was striving to reach diverse cultures within a geographic area.

> *The Oregon 4-H Latino Outreach Project model . . . incorporates three critical factors in its approach to Latino outreach. First, that Latino community members possess unique knowledge and understanding regarding what Latino youth need to thrive . . . . Second, once the interests and needs of youth and families are identified, responsive programs are developed (that respect and reinforce the cultural identity of youth; are based on the reality of youth's lives; have high expectations for youth; reinforce existing social capital found in families and ethnic communities; involve active learning; support learning in multi-cultural situations; and invite parent involvement). (And thirdly) . . . the placement of bilingual/bicultural . . . staff . . . at the . . . (local) level for at least three years* (Hobbs & Sawer, 2009, pp. 2–3).

Given the difference "in meaning of the word volunteer, it (is) important to carefully define exactly what (the organization) . . . asks of a volunteer" (Hobbs & Sawer, p. 18).

Organized volunteer program management occurs on every continent. Some countries may be more focused on volunteer recruitment and selection, orientation and training, or evaluation and policy than others. Organizations in Australia, Canada, Norway, and the United States have website documentation that provides program structure, policy, and educational resources for volunteers and volunteer programs.

With the globalization of volunteerism, many NGOs have developed the infrastructure necessary to accept international volunteers of all ages. Many NGOs now employ a volunteer manager and/or formal volunteer policy and systems in place for supporting, supervising, and evaluating volunteers.

Established Volunteer Competencies—Volunteer Resource Management Systems

Volunteer program managers evaluate the needs of the program and volunteers to determine the most effective orientation and training to provide. Some organizations and national programs have established core volunteer competencies to help guide decisions about volunteer development.

Australian Volunteers International has established volunteer competencies including understanding self, coping with change and personal hardship, appreciating cultural differences, willingness to learn an additional language, and effective problem-solving skills.

The national 4-H Youth Development Program of the United States has identified six skill categories and 42 competencies that volunteers need for working effectively with youth in the 4-H program. The six overarching skill categories are: communications, education delivery methods, interpersonal relationships, group management, and understanding youth development (National 4-H Headquarters, 2009).

Legislation Affecting Volunteer Resource Management

There are federal, national, and provincial or state laws in Australia, Canada, Great Britain, New South Wales, and the United States to support or require careful selection of volunteers to represent volunteer programs. The selection process consistently involves an application, criminal background check, and personal references.

National and local governments in some countries have created policies that incent volunteers, by providing tax benefits. Evidence of those policies can be found on several continents, specifically, Australia, Europe, and North America.

Partnerships: Local with International

Parallel with research on the impact of international volunteers on host communities, there is growing evidence for the importance of simultaneously engaging local citizens in order to ensure that many of the benefits of service stay in and are owned by local communities. Partnerships between local and international volunteers are central to community capacity development. These local-international volunteer collaborations were shown to be effective for assessing community needs as they helped to ensure that international volunteer roles and projects were wanted and needed by the local community and did not intentionally or unintentionally replace jobs or volunteer roles that could have effectively been filled by local citizens.

McBride and Daftary (2005) also cited the need for local involvement, finding that one of the most important indicators for successful international volunteer impact was the shared ownership of activities and objectives by other local and international actors. This partnership model ensures that activities are culturally appropriate, imbued with local knowledge and awareness of attitudes, and potentially more sustainable after international volunteers returned to their home communities. Pratt (2002) found that collaboration between local and international volunteers increased sense of ownership among local volunteers while simultaneously encouraging international volunteer identification with, and bonding to, local community efforts.

International Youth Volunteers

The number of youth volunteers is growing rapidly in all segments of service, and particularly among the international volunteer population. As reported by the Center for Social Development in March, 2010, "Young people aged 24 and under were the age group most likely to volunteer internationally in 2008." (Lough, 2010, p. 4). And yet, most of those who volunteered abroad in 2008 were from the youngest age category (age 15 to 24) and had no college experience, thus were likely to have been high school students. According to data from Spain's Ministry of Work and Social Affairs, 91% of the Spanish volunteer corps is comprised of youth, 10% are under age 10.

Nonprofit groups are organizing specifically around the purpose of engaging youth in volunteerism. The Environment and Rural Development Foundation in Cameroon has partnered with other organizations to establish ". . . a new capacity building program for the younger generation of youth graduating from universities and professional schools in and out of Cameroon that will help shape and facilitate their entry into the world" In Singapore, a collaborative model of government, non-government organizations (NGOs), as well as community, religious, and self-help groups have been mobilized to provide a wide range of needed services, specifically youth needs. The Singapore National Youth Council is empowering young people to participate in national education programs, international exchanges, and projects which help youth thrive and succeed in a global environment, and benefit their community as well.

McBride et al. (2006) discuss service programs as differing in three ways: a) the type of organizational sponsor, b) the specific activities undertaken by the volunteers, and c) the scope of activity. Specifically, in volunteer programs focused on civic service, they indentify three overarching objectives (to) ". . . engage in needed public work, promote social justice, and create opportunities that advance cross-cultural understanding and active citizenship through interaction among the volunteers and host communities" (p. 308).

Reasons that youth choose to volunteer in civic service are as diverse as the countries they call home. The newest technology, access to models of volunteer resource management systems, and current political and social activity has influenced the choices available to youth volunteers around the world, particularly in civic service.

Globalization

Easy access to affordable technology has had a huge impact on international youth volunteerism. One of the factors contributing to international volunteerism among young people is the transformation of communications via the Internet (Cravens, 2006; Lowenstein, 2002). Global dissemination of information has helped young people see opportunities, examine issues, explore interests, and for them to share their civic service. Technology advances have proved a powerful resource for NGOs and community groups attempting to spread ideas and mobilize international support and involvement (UN Department of Public Information, 2002).

Social Justice and Citizenship Responsibility

The desire to contribute to the well-being of others—from economic justice to the environment, to preventing the spread of HIV/AIDS, to aiding with other social issues—has led to increases in international volunteerism among youth (Lacey & Ilcan, 2006). This not only includes international travel or cross-border volunteerism by youth in civic service, but it also reflects what the volunteering youth are doing in their own country as a form of civic service.

Mutual Benefit

Youth are also volunteering for their own mutual benefit. In a Zimbabwean situation, Patel, Perold, Elwein, Carapinha, and Carapinha (2007) reported that participants in the Zunde raMambo project do not consider themselves as volunteers or those who help others, as they are in essence also helping themselves in their own community problem.

Task ownership and responsibility has been associated with higher levels of program effectiveness and goal achievement in youth service programs. Youth involvement in the planning of service-learning projects, substantive responsibilities during implementation, and interaction with community members are associated with improved self-concept, political engagement, and pro-social attitudes.

Expectation

Civic service may not be voluntary, but rather a mandatory expectation or requirement for high school or university graduation. In Mexico, for example, Servicio Social is a mandatory program which places university and technical students in 6-12 month internship experiences as a part of their graduation requirement from the university (Johnson, Benitez, McBride & Olate, 2004).

Employability

Young people are also motivated to engage in civic service in order to develop skills and gain work experience, with the likelihood of gainful employment (Patel et al., 2007). International volunteerism is increasingly perceived as a vehicle to help distinguish oneself professionally in a competitive global economy (Lowenstein, 2002). Working or volunteering abroad is gaining increasing recognition among employers and society at large.

Benefits and Impacts of International Volunteerism

While the literature on international volunteerism is still emerging, the research that does exist thus far has focused largely on the impact international service has on the individual volunteer, rather than the impact volunteer service has on the community or organizations (Lewis, 2005; Sherraden, Lough, & McBride, 2008).

Personal and Professional Development

Many international volunteers have identified increased personal and professional development to be a benefit of global service. Lough, McBride, and Sherraden (2009) found that volunteer alumni of two international service programs reported personal benefits and outcomes including increased intercultural understanding, personal and professional transformation, strengthened commitment to civic engagement, expanded international professional and social networks, greater employability, as well as increased effectiveness at current job.

Disadvantaged Volunteers

McBride and Lough (2008, p. 1) also found that "disadvantaged volunteers often develop a strong sense of self-reliance and autonomy, disassociating themselves from negative labels and stereotypes in their home country context, and experience 'role-reversal' that helps them gain a greater sense of participation and contribution by serving abroad."

Social Capital

Randel, German, Cordiero, and Baker (2004) argue that international volunteering has contributed to an increase in social capital for both developed and developing societies via such factors as:

- Greater international understanding and solidarity
- Stronger links between organizations and communities
- Promoting partnerships among volunteers and local citizens
- Modeling community engagement
- Greater public understanding of globalization and development
- Opportunities for personal and professional development (particularly for young people)
- Building capacity for international organizations
- Move to incorporate developing world issues into developed world policy agendas
- Increased access to information
- Greater interaction between and among global cultures
- Expanded community and global networks
- Decreased racism and xenophobia

For example, Campbell and Smith (2006) found that international civic service expanded the knowledge-base of volunteers on issues like conservation and ecology. Similarly, McGehee (2002) found that participation in Earthwatch expeditions expanded social networks by interacting with fellow volunteers, residents, and researchers and bonded via the intensity of their shared experience, creating a larger network of like-minded individuals around the globe. This expanded network was then found to have a positive significant effect on social movement participation by volunteers returning home.

Partnerships

Randel et al. (2004) states that host organizations have the potential "to play a minor or major role in determining program objectives, selecting volunteers, choosing activity, or supervising volunteers" (p. 403) citing that those volunteer-sending organizations and programs that are accountable to local community members and organizations may be more successful in meeting community needs as well as providing a model where "volunteers do not act as managers and experts, but colleagues and team members, thereby encouraging mutual learning and reciprocity in skill sharing, while minimizing paternalism and reducing competition" (p. 403). Sherraden et al. (2008) also determined that there appears to be both positive and negative relationships between engaging international volunteers and organizational capacity. On the positive side, international volunteers could potentially leverage the impact of local staff and volunteers providing new skills and perspectives (or even just an extra set of hands), offering opportunities for host organizations to become more internationally and culturally competent, and helping to expand connections to local and global individual and partner networks. Alternatively, the time and resources required for engaging international volunteers could become a drain on the organizations. Similarly, without effective volunteer resource management, international volunteers could end up serving as ineffective partners, hindering an organization's ability to achieve its mission as well as potentially damaging its reputation.

Cultural Understanding

Additional identified benefits for international volunteers include a broader world lens and more nuanced understanding of complex global social and environmental issues, greater cultural competency, an expanded worldview and global context, personal and professional skill enhancement, versatility and development, and the ability to assist with increased understanding of and interaction with foreign cultures and global interdependence in their home communities (Davis Smith, 2007; et al., 2007; Sherraden et al., 2008; Unstead-Joss, 2008).

Community Development

Several identified societal benefits may result from international volunteerism, particularly where employed as a method of international aid and assistance. For example, Sherraden et al. (2006, p. 172) found that volunteerism as a mechanism of community development can advance foreign policy using a different resource; instead of providing traditional financial assistance, international voluntary service focuses on "skill and technology transfer."

One methodology for measuring community impact of international service has been to explore the perspectives of former volunteers. In one such study, Lough et al. (2009) found that a majority of volunteer alumni from two international service programs believed their presence to be welcome, with 82% perceiving that their participation did not cause problems in the host community and 94% believing that the host community wanted or requested their assistance.

Sherraden et al. (2008) also found that international volunteers may affect positively and/or negatively a community's social, economic, environmental, civic, and political development as well as intercultural and international relations. However, the authors also noted that the direction, strength, relationships, and positive/negative orientation of these impacts are still relatively unknown.

There are clear differences between countries who have well-developed volunteer resource management systems and those who do not. The factors most different are whether or not internal volunteer programs a) exist, b) deal with a large or modest budget, c) depend on government funding, and/or d) have paid staff.

In research conducted by McBride, Johnson, Olate, and O'Hara (2011), found that youth who were contributing to the betterment of their community also made significant gains in their own positive youth development. If young people realize this potential, they may increase their resiliency and set a trajectory for continued life success and contributions (Damon, 2004). Positive youth development (PYD) is an approach that builds the productive capacity of young people, embracing their current potential to make substantive contributions.

PYD interventions are identified by their promotion of the "Five Cs," namely competence, confidence, character, connection, and caring (Roth & Brooks-Gunn, 2003).

Lerner (2004) identified aspects of interventions that are most likely to lead to these five positive youth development outcomes: the programs involve adult-youth relationships, youth skill building activities, and opportunities for youth participation in and leadership of community-based activities. Lerner, von Eye, Lerner, Lewin-Bizan, and Bowers (2010) adds that youth who have positive youth development experiences, over a course of time, leads to their abilities to "contribute" back to their communities.

Across the 533 programs in the Latin America and the Caribbean study conducted by McBride et al. (2011), the average program required educated and skilled youth to commit to 12 hours each week for 22 weeks a year in completing the necessary tasks for developing and implementing a service program. When comparing these programs to the three positive youth development intervention elements from Lerner (2004), the youth appear to be leading community-based activities and engaging in activities that would build their skills. What is unclear through these programs, however, was whether or not youth were being guided or facilitated by adults or other role models as a majority of programs were "staffed" by youth as well. Overall, the level of youth ownership was overwhelming, as youth were contributing actively to the design, implementation, and evaluation of these programs as well as actually delivering the programs. The youth were not only developing others through the educational activities, trainings and other means, but their own roles in program leadership and administration was developing them as well. Interestingly enough, the majority of the programs reported that the primary focus was not on the skill or technical development of the volunteers but rather on the collective values as being most important (Tapia, 2007). In that way, they want the youth volunteers to embrace their role as agents of change, above and beyond being changed themselves. The benefit to communities who embrace the three positive youth development interventions within their youth serving programs is shared in the following quotes:

> *Civic service can lead to positive social, economic, and political changes in those who serve, as well as those who are hosts and host communities.* (McBride et al., 2006, p. 316)
>
> *Thoughtful, informed program development is crucial to ensure the achievement of benefits and amelioration of negative effects. Community-driven models of program development emphasize the inclusion of host communities, including sponsoring organizations and community participants.* (McBride, et al., 2006, p. 315)

Thousands of organizations worldwide are actively seeking and accepting foreign volunteers to assist with their program delivery and capacity development, yet there is a paucity of research on why organizations might bother seeking or accepting international volunteers in the first place.

Exploring the impact of international volunteers on host communities has been one of the more difficult research agendas in the field to advance. Given the enormous variance in cultural, social, environmental, political, and economic norms and realities among global communities developing replicable measurable indices and benchmarks has been daunting. Therefore, most of the research on international volunteer benefits for host communities has thus far been explored via individual case studies.

While researchers and volunteers acknowledge many positive outcomes, there can be negative implications in international volunteer programs as well. Unequal access to volunteer opportunities, power relationships, exploitation, and government interference can be limiting factors in international volunteer resource management. "Sensitivity to issues of bias, exclusion, control and cultural exploitation will be important in service development and implementation. As the field develops, a critical eye is warranted to ensure that negative consequences are ameliorated or avoided" (McBride et al., 2006, p. 317).

Economic Impact of International Volunteer Programs

As a whole, nonprofits and volunteer organizations have substantial economic presence in many nations. In Canada, more than 10,000 charities are registered. There, the economies most impacted by those charities are: 1) sports and recreation, 2) religious activity, and, 3) social services. The Corporation for National and Community Service (2010) reports the top four volunteer activities in the United States are: 1) raising funds 2) collecting and distributing food, 3) providing general labor, and 4) teaching or tutoring.

Kim Tong-Won, Professor of Social Welfare at Sungkyunkwan University in South Korea, observes, "In advanced countries, where the gap between the rich and the poor has widened with economic development, individuals or private organizations tend to fill the gaps in society, and Korea seems to be following a similar path". (World Volunteer Web). Experts in South Korea attribute the increased numbers of Korean volunteers to heightened public awareness, an increase in wealth, and more free time available due to fewer required work hours during weekends.

There is very little evidence on the economic costs and returns for host organizations of engaging international volunteers. For example, McBride et al. (2007) found that despite evidence that host and volunteer-sending organizations often share program costs, engaging international volunteers often still results in a significant investment of time and resources for the host organization. Also given that volunteer-sending organizations may potentially focus on providing experiences that meet their volunteers' personal goals while host organizations might focus more intensively on the outcomes of service for their organization and community, there are also concerns that organizational biases might influence program development. Where this might occur, international service could potentially play out as volunteers being placed in unsatisfying roles, projects, host organizations, and communities not being most effectively served by foreign volunteers. However, there is little data to put these concerns into context from an organizational perspective.

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