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“Volunteerism Around the Globe: New Ideas, New Insights”

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Key Words: volunteers, organizational behaviour, community development

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Key Words: volunteering, corporate, program, design, manager

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Key Words: volunteers, occupational therapy students, disability, client-centred care

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Key Words: volunteering, social activism, development, participation

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Key Words: volunteers, democracy, civic, participation, elections

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Key Words: evaluation, impact, assessment, benefits, human capital, social capital

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appropriate health and safety precautions for these situations; interim data collected to date suggest they may not be. Volunteering New Zealand is therefore beginning to develop new guidelines that may be used by employers, their employee volunteers, and host community organisations participating in these projects.

Key Words: employee, volunteers, health, safety, risk management

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Key Words: motivations, disabilities, volunteerism, United Kingdom

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Key Words: volunteers, Germany, arts

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Face-to-face interviews were conducted with the coordinators of 13 palliative care volunteer programs in New Brunswick, Canada in order to obtain information about (1) their programs; (2) themselves; and (3) their program management practices. Palliative care programs have been providing volunteer support services to patients and families in New Brunswick since the mid-1980's. The majority of the palliative care volunteer programs in the province are hospital-based and hospital-funded. All of the volunteer coordinators who took part in this study were women and the majority of them (69.2%) had a university degree. Eight of the 13 coordinators (61.2%) were general volunteer coordinators/managers, for whom the palliative care program was only a small component of their job; 6 of the 13 coordinators (46.2%) were part-time. There was a huge range in the number of paid hours per week coordinators worked (4 to 37.5

hours) and the hourly rate of pay for their position (CAD\$12 - \$30 per hour). The findings also revealed considerable differences in terms of the training of volunteers, volunteer duties, etc., highlighting the need for the development of provincial (or national) standards for volunteers in palliative care to ensure consistent and high-quality end-of-life care.

Key Words: palliative care, hospice volunteer, program management

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This article reports the findings of a study of volunteering by younger persons (age 16-24) in Sweden based on an analysis of data from a 1998 Swedish survey. As in the U.S., half of younger persons volunteer based in Sweden, although the context of Swedish volunteering differs significantly. After discussing the Swedish context of volunteerism, the article presents the differences in background between volunteers and non-volunteers, as well as areas of volunteer participation, activities and tasks carried out, motives for volunteering, and ways by which volunteers become involved. A summary of the results, including a discussion of volunteer commitment by younger Swedes and an agenda for future research follows.

Key Words: youth, volunteers, Sweden

**In This Issue
We Are All World Citizens**

This first issue of Volume XXVI of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration* focuses upon “Volunteerism Around the Globe: New Ideas, New Insights.” While this theme may not seem necessarily original or overly dynamic, I would argue that it is very appropriate and even more poignant as the theme of our first issue of 2009. After all, while *The IJOVA* may be published in the United States, it is not solely an “American journal.” Since its inception in 2006, *The IJOVA*’s mission has been to “connect practitioners, academicians, and consultants in greater service to the global volunteer community.” *The IJOVA* is guided by an Editorial Board with diverse members representing four different countries, and served by volunteer Editorial Reviewers representing five countries.

With military conflicts currently raging in at least four regions of the globe, a looming worldwide economic crisis and/or recession, and accusations of past and contemporary genocides still permeating the public consciousness worldwide, there has been no more critical time in recent memory when we could each benefit from re-focusing upon volunteerism as a means for building understanding and respect among diverse people and ideas around the world. While we are each unique individuals proud of our respective ethnic and/or cultural heritages, we are all also citizens of the world. As such, we must never lose faith and confidence in the ability of volunteerism to heal, alleviate, support, advocate, and create.

The issue opens with four excellent *Features* by authors representing as many different countries. Lesley Hustinx and Femida Handy explore the “think globally – act locally” phenomenon as applied to the Belgium Red Cross. The authors conclude that “holistic community development among volunteers for the Red Cross is a goal more easily attained at the cognitive level than at the affective level.” Timothy Koehnen and Tiago Santos used a case study approach to assess the potential for volunteerism to initiate personal and community development in rural northern Portugal. Their findings strongly suggest that “volunteer-based organizations can serve as a community-learning forum for increasing individual empowerment and social capital in scattered rural communities.” Lucas Meijs, Mary Tschirhart, Esther Ten Hoorn, and Jaffrey Brudney discuss their concept of “volunteerability” within corporate volunteer programs in The Netherlands and United States. “In general, the more legitimate and expected volunteering through a corporate volunteer program appears to be, the greater the willingness of individuals to engage in this type of volunteering.” Finally, Beth Morgan, Heidi Hunter, Samantha Anstey, Anne O’Riordan, Margo Patterson, and Debbie Docherty describe their qualitative research investigating volunteerism among community members with disabilities involved in educating occupational therapy students in Canada. According to the authors, “Four major themes emerged from the volunteers’ narratives: personal development, advocacy, education and dynamic relationship.”

We are honored to include two *Commentaries* written by recognized leaders in global volunteerism and civic engagement. South Africans Karen Cronin and Helene Perold challenge us to revisit important connections between volunteerism and social activism. Based upon a larger, earlier collaborative publication by CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation, the International Association of Volunteer Effort (IAVE,) and United Nations Volunteers

(UNV), the authors conclude that both volunteering and social activism are important strategies for fostering people's participation in social change and human development and have the potential to help foster the scale and diversity of participation needed to confront major development challenges. In the second *Commentary*, Ruth MacKenzie emphasizes volunteers and volunteerism as critical foundations for the democratic process. As president of Volunteer Canada, a national non-profit organization leading the advancement of volunteerism across the country, she is in an ideal position to reflect upon how "volunteers protect and build upon the democratic principles that many other countries have yet to grasp."

Tools of the Trade includes a description of an excellent on-line tool available to volunteer resource managers worldwide. As another recognized leader in international volunteer development, Joanna Stuart from the Institute for Volunteering Research in the United Kingdom introduces us to the Volunteering Impact Assessment Toolkit, developed in 2004 to help organizations undertake their own research to assess the impacts of volunteering. In *Ideas that Work*, author Tim Burns shares both challenges and successes of the national organization for which he serves as executive director, Volunteering New Zealand, in developing national formalised health and safety guidelines for employee volunteering programmes protecting employers, their employee volunteers, and host community volunteer organisations. The practical ideas and insights he shares are highly applicable to any corporate/community volunteer partnership, regardless of nationality.

From the JOVA Annals closes the issue with four previously published articles from the former *Journal of Volunteer Administration (JOVA)*: "Altruism or Self-Actualisation? Disabled Volunteers' Perceptions of the Benefits of Volunteering" by Jane Andrews and originally published in Volume XXIII, 2005; "Volunteering in Cultural Institutions: A Comparison Between the United States and Germany" by Gesa Birnkraut, first published in Volume XX, 2004; "What Coordinators of Palliative Care Volunteers in New Brunswick, Canada Have to Say about their Programs, Themselves, and their Program Management Practices" published in Volume XXIII, 2005 and co-authored by Stephen Claxton-Oldfield and Jane Claxton-Oldfield; and, "Younger Volunteers in Sweden" by Richard Sundeen and Sally Raskoff, first published in Volume XX, 2004.

As an American, and a *proud* American at that, I would be the first to attest that in today's global community, the United States does not own the contemporary concept of "volunteerism," nor do my fellow volunteer resource managers and I have all the correct answers, or know all the best practices in our global profession. This is why I am simultaneously proud and humbled to present this stellar issue focused upon new ideas and new insights in ethical and effective leadership for volunteerism around the world.

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**Are Volunteers Attracted by the Part or by the Whole?
The Case of the Belgian Red Cross**

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Abstract

This article explores volunteer attachments in a large multi-service national volunteer organization, the Red Cross, which seeks to establish a universal standard of reference through locally rooted service provision. We ask whether volunteering for locally run chapters contributes to the strengthening of volunteers' loyalty to the parent organization as a whole, or whether volunteer loyalty is directed primarily at the organization's parts, i.e., the local chapters in which the volunteering takes place. The analysis reveals a complex mixture of holistic and local tendencies. We conclude that holistic community development among volunteers for the Red Cross is a goal more easily attained at the cognitive level than at the affective level.

Key Words:

volunteers, loyalty, Red Cross, Belgium

Introduction and Background

The principle of holism is based upon the idea that the whole is more than the sum of its parts (Phillips, 1977). In light of this principle, this paper explores the question of whether in a large, national organization with different local chapters serving a multiplicity of clients and attracting volunteers from a diverse population, do volunteers see themselves as volunteering for the larger organization, or for the local chapter which directly engages them? We therefore examine volunteer attitudes to determine if "the whole is more than the sum of its parts" at the organizational level. The answer to this question has direct implications for the recruitment and retention of volunteers in large multi-service organizations with many branches.

Red Cross Flanders (RCF) serves the population in Flanders, which is one of the two main regions in Belgium and home to its Dutch-speaking inhabitants (Red Cross Flanders, 2007). The organization engages more than 14,000 volunteers annually. These volunteers offer an interesting case study in holistic community development for a number of reasons. Firstly, RCF serves a variety of populations through its different activities. Volunteers are engaged in services across the country and internationally, in addition to being locally rooted with 300 local chapters. Secondly, known as an organization of the people, RCF attracts volunteers from all segments of the population (Genné, 2003) which is in line with the Red Cross goal of recruiting volunteers who reflect the diversity of the

communities it serves (International Federation Red Cross, 2009).

RCF (like its parent organization, the International Red Cross and Red Crescent) is guided by the seven fundamental principles elaborated in its mission: humanity, impartiality, independence, voluntary service, unity, and universality (Belgium Red Cross, 2006). This framework provides a standard of reference for all of its members, paid and volunteer, ensuring that all activities have one purpose: to prevent and alleviate human suffering without discrimination while protecting human dignity. With the aim of forwarding this goal, RCF undertakes a diversity of activities in the communities it serves, including first aid and other service delivery, health services improvement, advocacy, training, disaster management, and capacity building.

Given the broad scope of the organization, its popularity and reputation in Belgium, and its holistic approach and principles, this article explores whether RCF is successful in building a holistic community of loyal volunteers. Does volunteering for the various independently run RCF chapters, all governed by a central mission, contribute to the strengthening of loyalty to RCF as a whole, or is this loyalty directed only at the local chapters?

The phenomenon of volunteerism emerges from a sense of belonging among individuals to organizations, communities, or other groups (Beck, 1998; Eckstein, 2001; Putnam, 2000; Wuthnow, 1998). Group membership allows volunteers to reaffirm their shared identity and facilitates socialization and the strengthening of group ties. Because volunteers are not financially reimbursed for their time, their involvement in group activities demonstrates a sense of commitment towards the mission of the organization as a whole, rather than purely towards the work undertaken (Cameron,

1999). This logic supports the hypothesis that the loyalty of volunteers is largely directed toward the central organization, rather than toward its various local chapters.

Recent trends indicate that short-term volunteer assignments are becoming more common, with organizations increasingly relying on episodic volunteers instead of traditional volunteers (Handy, Brodeur & Cnaan, 2006; Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003; Inglehart, 2003; Macduff, 2004). Furthermore, the organization itself appears to be shifting from being the central focus of volunteer action to being a kind of enabling structure, or a mediator between a volunteer and a specific project (Meijs & Hoogstad, 2001). This implies that volunteering is becoming more and more structurally detached, with a concomitant de-territorialization of volunteer commitment, as volunteers increasingly resemble consumers or clients in a market-driven model (Evers, 1999). The fact that volunteer agencies are commonly acting as generators of function-based social capital (Putnam, 2000) suggests that volunteers are more likely to show commitment to the local branch in which they volunteer than to the central organization.

In RCF, volunteers are responsible for governing the organization, defining the organizational objectives, and putting them into practice with the assistance of only a limited number of paid staff (Meijs, 1997). RCF chapters are obliged to meet standards that specifically relate to the services they provide, the recruitment of volunteers, and funding. In addition to the core services mentioned earlier, volunteers are involved in a variety of programs that vary depending on local needs and facilities, but often include emergency relief, international humanitarian legal aid, tracing missing persons, and reuniting families (Belgium Red Cross, 2006). To address the needs of the local community, RCF operates through

its chapters. Each chapter is involved in several activities and must contribute sufficient financial resources to ensure the continued functioning of the organization.

Two crucial threads run through all programs across the various chapters. Like all Red Cross volunteers worldwide, RCF volunteers must adhere to the same mission, which is to improve the situation of the most vulnerable people. The RCF seeks to unite a large diversity of volunteers and activities through its mission with its Seven Fundamental Principles. This unity is explicit in the RCF's declaration of intent: "Red Cross Flanders is more than a philosophy, an organization, or institution. It is an active movement of convinced, competent, and trained volunteers who are motivated by their desire to help others free of charge" (Rode Kruis-Vlaanderen, 2008, ¶ 8). Given the single guiding mission of the RCF, its intent of unity, and the many chapters that locally engage volunteers, there could be an interesting interplay between the various ways in which the mission is interpreted locally and how this affects volunteers' attitudes in the various regions.

One way to test whether RCF volunteers have a greater sense of being part of the organization as a whole or rather to their local chapter is to examine attitudes of loyalty among volunteers. If volunteering builds a holistic community in RCF, irrespective of where it occurs, we should expect no differences in measures of loyalty among volunteers to various chapters of the Red Cross. If, on the other hand, loyalty is built at the local level, then measures of loyalty should vary across individual chapters as the unique characteristics of each local unit contribute to the development of loyalty among its volunteers. From the perspective of holistic community development, the crucial question is whether volunteers regard themselves as attached to

the parent organization or to the local chapter that directly engages them. We hypothesize that if, controlling for socio-economic variables, no differences exist in attitudes and measures of loyalty, then we may conclude that RCF does indeed reflect a holistic organizational culture.

Methods

To explore RCF volunteers' attitudes on loyalty we use scales developed by Hustinx and Lammertyn (Hustinx, 2003, 2005; Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2004). Personal in-home interviews were conducted with 652 RCF volunteers who make up a representative sample of the organization as a whole. The respondents were selected from central volunteer records on the basis of a multistage sampling procedure. In the first step, the sample was geographically limited by means of a random selection of 50 (out of 270) local chapters of the RCF (equally spread over the five Flemish regions). All volunteers were interviewed using a standardized questionnaire. The age and gender characteristics of the sample are representative of the volunteer population studied (for a more detailed discussion, see Hustinx, 2003, pp.120-133).

As the key measure of local uniqueness, we used five Flemish regions (Limburg, Antwerp, Flemish Brabant, East and West Flanders) instead of the 50 separate RCF chapters. We aggregated local multiplicities not only for the sake of methodological clarity, but also because the five Flemish regions represent distinct geographical, political, and cultural entities (see www.flanders.be for details). Geographically, they differ in levels of urbanization. The research area included the three cities of Brussels, Antwerp and Ghent, centered in the regions of Flemish Brabant, Antwerp, and East Flanders (resp.). The outer regions, Limburg and West Flanders represent more rural areas. The regions

directly elect their own councils that shape their respective political environments, and each region has its own unique culture, identity, and dialect. Inhabitants of each region perceive their respective residents, problems, and lifestyles differently and hence interpret the types of actions appropriate for helping vulnerable populations uniquely. For these reasons, we consider it legitimate to aggregate the 50 separate chapters into five homogeneous regions when examining the uniqueness of local volunteer experiences in chapters.

To explore RCF volunteers' attitudes and loyalty we used two analyses. First, we examined organizational characteristics that are of value to the volunteer. In a large organization with a diversity of activities and chapters, what organizational characteristics do volunteers value, those

that reflect the whole or the part? This measure would give us some initial insight into our research question. The respondents were asked to choose one item that they viewed as most important from a list of eight organizational features.

Fifty-four per cent of the respondents rank the service activity of their chapters first (Table 1). In addition, 20.8 % of responses mention the (refresher) courses and high quality standard of the services provided which relate to the specific units in which the volunteers participate. In contrast, the mission of RCF as a whole and the opportunity to be part of an international organization are notably less valued by the RCF volunteers. The Chi-square test shows that this ranking does not differ across the five regions. The findings provide an initial challenge to the centrality of RCF as a

Table 1
Most Important Organizational Characteristics to RCF Volunteers in the Five Regions

	LIMB	ANT	FL BRAB	EAST FLA	WEST FLA	TOTAL RCF
The service activity in which you participate as a volunteer.	51.42	52.09	51.62	47.12	67.49	54.34
The high quality standard of the assistance in your program.	10.49	6.88	19.91	11.37	8.21	10.55
The courses and refresher courses offered	10.51	13.91	8.91	9.98	8.71	10.29
The Fundamental Principles of the Red Cross mission	5.39	6.92	5.42	11.88	5.39	6.94
The public opinion, the reputation of the Red Cross held by the public.	6.98	9.75	5.35	9.49	2.84	6.89
The good and the smooth working of the Red Cross.	8.69	5.38	6.14	6.01	3.32	6.09
The large number of activities to choose from as a volunteer.	6.26	4.56	2.65	5.15	4.05	4.79
The opportunity to be part of an international organization.	0.00	0.50	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.10
(n)	(163)	(120)	(72)	(117)	(136)	(608)

χ^2 test — $\chi^2 = 35.89$, $df = 28$, $p = 0.14$

whole among the factors that volunteers see as important (Table 1). It is clear that the characteristics that volunteers value most are the service activity in which they participate and the benefits that they themselves receive from the activity, both of which underscore the importance of their particular local attachments. These are followed in importance by characteristics reflecting a more holistic attachment to RCF, as expressed by its mission and principles or by public opinion of the organization.

We next asked respondents to rank, using a Likert-type format, a series of statements that indicated their agreement with the mission of RCF and their loyalty to the organization, as part of a broader assessment of the attitudinal and motivational bases of Red Cross volunteering (for a more detailed discussion, see Hustinx, 2003, 2005; Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2004). In total, 147 items were subjected to an initial iterated principal factor analysis with squared multiple correlations as prior communality estimates and an orthogonal (varimax) rotation method. A Scree Test suggested 11 meaningful factors with 57 remaining items. The rotation to a final factor solution involved an oblique (promax) rotation. All items had factor loadings greater than .35 and a simple structure in which items have high loadings on one factor only (Hatcher, 1994; Kim & Mueller, 1994).

The factors retained for the purposes of this analysis evaluate the volunteers' levels of loyalty and attachment to the mission of the organization as a whole. The items for these scales are as follows:

a) Loyalty (Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$, factor loadings of items between brackets)

1. As a volunteer, I use every means necessary to ensure the continued existence of the Red Cross (0.36).

2. If I see other Red Cross volunteers, I feel strongly related to them (0.44).

3. When a Red Cross volunteer appears in the media, I'm proud of being a Red Cross volunteer myself (0.49).

4. It is important to make clear to other volunteers that they should adhere to what the Red Cross expects of them (0.39).

5. I like other people to know I'm a Red Cross volunteer (0.55).

6. I always try to convince other people to volunteer with the Red Cross (0.62).

b) Importance attached to mission of RCF (Cronbach's $\alpha = .70$, factor loadings of items between brackets)

1. What appealed to me most were the fundamental principles of the mission of the organization (0.72).

2. The variety of programs of the Red Cross appealed to me (0.59)

3. The Red Cross plays an important role in our society and I wanted to be part of it by volunteering (0.54).

4. I value the international collaboration within the Red Cross movement (0.51).

By summing respondents' scores on the retained items per factor, individual scale scores were generated and converted into the original 5-point scales by dividing the summated scores by the number of items. Our analysis compared the converted mean scores on these two scales across the five regions. If the thesis of holistic volunteering holds, we would expect to see no differences between the regions with respect to the scores. This null hypothesis is represented symbolically as: $H_0: M_1 = M_2 = M_3 = M_4 = M_5$, where M_i represents the means of the different regions.

Table 2
 ANOVA and Tukey's Studentized Range Test for Pair-wise Differences between the Five Regions

	F	Mean	SD	Regions' Mean Scores (SD)				
				LIMB	ANT	FL BRAB	EAST FLA	WEST FLA
Mission RCF	2.43	3.24	.96	3.33 (0.96)	3.06 (0.89)	3.20 (0.79)	3.32 (0.94)	3.09 (1.13)
Loyalty RCF	7.91 ***	3.65	.77	3.78 (0.78) b, c	3.34 (0.88) a	3.47 (0.79) d	3.67 (0.68) b	3.69 (0.74) b

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

Note -Tukey's Studentized Range (HSD) test for pair-wise differences in mean scores. Different superscripts (a vs. b), (c vs. d) point to significant differences between the specific volunteer programs at a .05 significance level

We used a one-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) with the dependent variable being the two scales and the independent variables being the five regions in which RCF volunteers engage. Where the overall ANOVA test was significant, we used the Tukey's HSD multiple comparison test to indicate which pairs of groups are significantly different. (We used the Tukey's HSD because the various regions have unequal numbers of volunteers.)

Table 2 reports the ANOVA summary table and the pair-wise comparisons of mean scores between the regions. We found significant differences between mean scores for the measure of loyalty by region; the null hypothesis was thus rejected with respect to the loyalty scale. However, volunteers in the various regions do not differ in their valuation of the mission of the RCF.

It nonetheless should be noted that, in spite of their statistical significance, the differences in mean levels of loyalty are not very pronounced. We tentatively conclude that the RCF is holistic in its mission, but that loyalties are built at the local level. The organization's mission does not appear to be a very important factor determining

volunteer involvement with RCF, seeming instead to be little more than a very open and generic statement that appeals equally and at low levels across the board, and only at a cognitive level.

Although significant differences were identified between the regions for loyalty, the measures of association and comparisons of mean scores (Table 2) do not explain which aspects of the complex organizational and volunteer diversity within the regions account for this variation. To understand which factors exactly contribute to the region-based differences in organizational attachment, we would need to separate the effect of the regions from the effect of other variables that may be highly correlated with them, which would require multivariate analysis. These factors would include gender, age, and education of the volunteers, as well as likely variations in length of service and intensity of involvement. We assessed the impact of volunteering on attachment to the organization controlling for the effects of individual characteristics (Table 3). The results of the regression models indicate that volunteers' loyalties towards the RCF differ, even when

controlling for gender, age, education, and the length of service and hours of volunteering. This implies that loyalty is a function of the unique characteristics of the local setting that build and strengthen volunteers' organizational attachment, rather than a function of the mission or values of RCF as a whole.

On the other hand, RCF may be perceived as a holistic organization with respect to its mission, since differences in background profiles and volunteer experiences only have a weak explanatory power in volunteer's attachment to the mission. The predictive power of the regression model for the importance attached to the mission of the RCF is very low (.04), whereas the regression model for loyalty produces an acceptably high

proportion of explained variance (.23) (Lattin, Carroll, & Green, 2003). This corroborates the findings from Table 2.

In examining the net effects of the predictor variables (i.e., the impact of each predictor variable on the dependent variable independently of the impact of the other independent variables in the model), significant results emerged for both regression models. Two findings lead us to conclude that the length of service and intensity of involvement represent better measures than the geographically aggregated measure of regional variation. First, the standardized regression coefficients reveal that time spent volunteering has a greater impact on local volunteer experiences than does the region in which the volunteering occurred.

Table 3
Impact of Individual and Volunteer Characteristics on Attachment to the Organization

	MISSION	OLS regression R ² =0.05, F = 3.78, p = .0001	LOYALTY	OLS regression R ² =0.24, F = 21.81, p < .0001
	B (SE)	β	B (SE)	β
Intercept	15.71 (0.88)	.	21.38 (0.96)	.
Sex (ref=male)	-0.16 (0.32)	-0.02	0.23 (0.35)	0.02
Age (continuous)	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.09	-0.003 (0.01)	-0.01
Education (continuous)	-0.57 (0.15)	-0.17***	-0.89 (0.16)	-0.21***
Length of service (continuous)	0.07 (0.02)	0.16***	0.11 (0.02)	0.20***
Monthly hours of volunteering (continuous)	-0.17 (0.14)	-0.05	1.15 (0.15)	0.27***
Regional variation (ref=Limburg)				
Antwerp	-0.76 (0.45)	-0.08	-1.86 (0.49)	-0.17***
Flemish Brabant	-0.25 (0.56)	-0.02	-1.01 (0.61)	-0.07
East Flanders	0.11 (0.47)	0.01	-0.43 (0.51)	-0.04
West Flanders	-0.74 (0.46)	-0.08	-0.33 (0.49)	-0.03
Adj. R ²		0.04		0.23
N		619		620

* p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001

The analysis indicated that the longer the volunteer stays, the more s/he learns about the organization as a whole (mission), and the more likely s/he is to accept the organization's mission cognitively. Yet, loyalties are principally built through long-term and intensive participation. Thus, the more intense the participation by the volunteer, the greater the volunteer's loyalty (and vice versa.) Secondly, regional variation explains differences in levels of loyalty only. A sharp regional contrast exists between loyalty levels in the provinces of Limburg and Antwerp. This might be explained by the fact that Antwerp is Flanders' largest and most economically developed urban area whereas Limburg is among its most rural areas. (Brussels, the capital city, was not included in the survey.) The findings reflect the common reality that in more rural areas, people still build stronger ties at the local level. Volunteering is thus still firmly rooted in a locally bound community of reference, but may be less so in more urbanized regions (Hustinx & Lammertyn, 2003; Okun & Michel, 2006; Omoto & Snyder, 2002).

The likelihood of success in holistic community building efforts may also depend on the type of volunteers RCF recruits. We find education negatively and significantly correlated with either scale. It may be a spurious relation, or it may suggest that higher educated people are less likely to be swayed by mission statements, and may evaluate their experiences more critically.

Conclusions

This paper explored whether volunteers in a large multi-service organization with many chapters and myriad locally initiated activities have a sense of being part of the organization as a whole. We have argued that RCF is an interesting case as it seeks to unite a diverse population of volunteers through its mission. The

question addressed was whether RCF has succeeded in creating a holistic volunteer community with loyalties extending beyond its local diversity. It was hypothesized that this success would be evident if volunteers showed similar attachments to the central organization irrespective of the regions in which they volunteer.

This hypothesis was tested using two attitudinal scales measuring the importance volunteers attached to the mission of RCF and their loyalty to the organization. The 50 separate units that engaged volunteers were aggregated as a measure of local variation that best captured the differences in politics, culture, and language. Our empirical findings revealed a complex mixture of holistic and local tendencies among RCF volunteers. At one level, RCF is somewhat successful in building unity among its volunteers regarding its mission, but at another, volunteer loyalties show the salience of the local variations.

Initial analysis indicated that the organizational characteristics most valued by volunteers were their own service activities at the local level, and not to the RCF's mission or reputation. These latter characteristics appealed to volunteers at a relatively low and mainly cognitive level. Further analysis corroborated this - regional variations and volunteer participation had little bearing on the importance of the mission. Thus, RCF succeeded in building a holistic volunteer community at a cognitive level with regard to its mission.

Loyalty, on the other hand, was strongly interwoven with local volunteer experiences. Loyalty correlated with participation at the local level and with region (as seen by the difference between urban and rural regions). This suggests the likelihood that it is the characteristics of the local experiences of volunteering that strengthen attachments among volunteers, and not the characteristics of the

organization as a whole. It also seems to indicate that the importance of the mission is a cognitive measure and is relevant to the whole, but loyalty, a measure of affective commitment, is germane to the parts, that are the chapters in which they engage.

In sum, large multi-service organizations are most likely to succeed in building a holistic volunteer community if they emphasize adherence to, and communication of, the mission among the volunteers of their local chapters. Although there is a value attached to the mission of RCF, it is not of central importance to the volunteers. A mission statement, with its universal guiding principles, cannot succeed in nurturing loyalty on its own; volunteers build loyalties through participation and affective organizational commitment. High levels of embeddedness in a relatively closed community of reference and frequent and longer-term involvement in volunteer activities are the factors most likely to generate strong organizational attachments.

Our findings suggest that volunteer loyalty cannot be attained through broad statements of principles and mission. Loyalties are earned on the ground by providing volunteers with experiences and services that they enjoy and value. As the competition for volunteers becomes more acute (Wymer & Starnes, 2001), our findings suggest that they may disavow universal statements about mission in favor of considerations regarding what experiences or services they may receive at the local levels. Hence, marketing that is attuned to the local differences is more likely to succeed than a 'one type fits all' call for volunteers.

Our findings correlate well with research on the relationship marketing paradigm explored in literature on volunteer recruitment and retention, where the relationship between the individual and organization is found to be an important

organizational attribute that builds volunteer loyalty. Arnett, German, and Hunt (2003) suggested that organizations improve marketing success by strengthening the ties between the organizations and identities that people find important. This research suggests that these identities and ties have to be relevant at the local level, because loyalty is about affective commitment and experiences. Thus, it is not simply sufficient to emphasize shared values between an organization and its volunteers.

In a large, complex, national or international organization with many chapters that respond to local conditions, a strong mission statement may be necessary to keep all various units on the same page and its reputation intact; however, it is not sufficient to garner the loyalties of individual volunteers. Policies designed to strengthen the ability of chapters to satisfy volunteers through locally attuned activities are justified. This will require attention on the ground to local differences and the consideration of these differences in the development of strategies to recruit and retain volunteers. It is reasonable to conclude that, for large multi-service national or international organizations, becoming a holistic volunteer organization is a goal more easily attained at the cognitive level than at the affective level.

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Assessing Volunteer-Based Cultural Organizations in Portugal: What Potential?

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Abstract

The case study evaluation addresses organizational behavioural components within volunteer-based cultural organizations in rural mountainous communities in northern Portugal. The assessment of the organizational components resulted in specific suggestions for increasing non-formal educational planning for these volunteers articulated to organizational concerns and community development. The established volunteer-based-platform permits consideration of non-formal educational programs to increase community and organizational decision-making capacity, empowerment, and reflection for alternative leadership styles.

Key Words:

volunteers, organizational behaviour, community development

Introduction

In the summer and fall in Portugal, there are many cultural and social events tied to religious celebrations, traditional agricultural gatherings, and of course local fairs. These religious events and celebrations permit rural villages and towns to maintain a link to the cultural past as well as to draw an influx of tourists with links to the ancestral community population. An important component of these gatherings by clans and families are the musical and dancing folk groups that are a part of these cultural and social traditions. Musical and cultural organizations have a role in these celebrations by linking visitors to the local rural identity and the community. As

volunteer-based cultural organizations, they also strengthen the linkages between economic activities such as local employment initiatives associated to tourism (Kayser, 1994).

Through their cultural performances, these volunteer-based organizations create synergy with the local economy involving increased receipts for restaurants, local shops, and hotels. The role of the cultural and musical groups in the process of local development also links to the improvement in the quality of life within these rural areas by the participatory volunteer-based activities. Such cultural and musical activities could also serve as developmental forums to strengthen individual and group

capacities for organizational and local governance through non-formal, volunteer-led educational programs directed at these issues (Eyben & Ladbury, 2006; Koehnen & Cristóvão, 2006).

Methodology

This exploratory research used a qualitative methodology involving a case study design that followed procedures recommended by Creswell (1994) and McNabb (2004). The purpose of the research was to describe and assess potential administrative and organizational difficulties associated with cultural and musical organizations comprised of local volunteers. The case study questionnaire collected qualitative data that described the organizations, explored the organizational behaviour of these organizations, and investigated potential administrative strengths and weaknesses as viewed by an organizational leader. The questionnaire was adapted from a Ford Foundation study by Fowler (1988) as a community organization assessment (Martins, 2006; Santos, 2008). The authors also gathered non-participant observation and secondary data that complemented the case study questionnaire (Isaac & Michael, 1981).

A particular focus of the case study evaluation was to identify felt and unfelt non-formal educational needs of the volunteers within these organizations, as well as additional capacities that could be learned by these musical and cultural volunteers. This research focus reflected a documented need for strengthening administrative, leadership, social capital through volunteerism), and empowerment capacities in these rural areas (Koehnen, 2009; Koehnen & Cristóvão, 2006). Thus, the study also addressed the potential of the volunteer-based platform (i.e., the volunteers within these organizations) for discussing

organizational and community development issues.

A regional board of tourism provided the researchers with a list of cultural and musical volunteer-based organizations in the geographical area of the study, *Serra de Marão*. The *Serra de Marão* envelops the municipalities of *Amarante*, *Cabeceiras de Basto*, *Marco de Canaveses*, *Mesão Frio*, *Mondim de Basto*, *Murça*, *Santa Marta de Penaguião* and *Vila Real*. These municipalities represent a mountainous low-density population area with scattered communities. From the total list, the authors identified 39 volunteer-based organizations from which to collect case study data. The questionnaire was sent by post to the 39 organizations. Leaders from 18 of the organizations responded resulting in a 46% response rate.

Findings

Organizational Features

The data revealed that 55% (n = 10) of the responding volunteer-based organizations were musical folk groups, 28% (n = 5) were cultural and recreational associations, and 17% (n = 3) were community cultural centres. The organizational leader in all folk groups was an actual volunteer, and the responding folk groups included children, young people and senior citizens in traditional cultural activities. These volunteer-based organizations were all non-profit or non-governmental organizations (NGOs). Seventy-eight percent of the responding organizations were founded during 1977 and 1987. This historical period for Portugal followed a peaceful governmental revolution and entry into the European Union.

Two predominant dimensions defined the responding volunteer-based organizations: those with fewer than 25 members (53%) and those with between 25 and 50 members (27%). This confirms that

organizations are made up of a collection of volunteers who come together to accomplish activities and in this case related to cultural and musical activities. The survivability of these volunteer-based organizations in a low-density region appears to be stable despite a negative population growth (-2.2) and an aging index of 143 senior citizens per 100 children (a ratio of the population greater than 65 and children zero to 14 years old) for the area of the study (Instituto Nacional de Estadística, 2006).

Assessment and Discussion of Organizational Purpose, Identity and Structure

The mission or purpose of the responding volunteer-based organizations was represented by what the organization intends to accomplish, and these entities signify cultural and musical preservation. The assessment of purpose was explored using four questions that had a numerical five-point scale, with five being highest. Table 1 presents the leaders' responses regarding organizational mission/purpose using a different quality measurement for each question. The organizational leaders' responses to the four questions indicated that

the average mean score was respectable (4.0) for the general assessment of organizational purpose. The leaders assessed a mean of 3.8 for the clarity by members to the organizational purpose. The leaders also assessed that the organizational purpose was, in general, uncontested by members (mean = 3.8); believed that the organizational purpose was realistic (mean = 4.4) and that the membership legitimately chose the organizational purpose (mean = 4.1). The members supported the purpose for their organization by performing at the cultural events and even indirectly supported tourism.

Similarly, organizational identity was assessed (again using a five-point numerical scale with 5 being highest) and a different quality measurement for one of the three questions (Table 2). The leaders responded with a mean of 3.7 that the organization expresses an individual identity in what it does. As to ownership of the organization, it is controlled by the members and not by outsiders (mean average was 4.6). The operational organizational decisions are more or less controlled through a participatory manner by members (3.9). Obviously, the musical groups perform in a participatory manner.

Table 1
Leaders' Perceptions Concerning Mission or Purpose

Assessment of Organizational Purpose	Leaders' Responses (5 point scale)					Mean	s.d.
	5	4	3	2	1		
1. For the members, the organization's purpose was <i>clear to unclear</i> .	33%	50%	6%	-	11%	3.8	1.21
2. The purpose of the organization was <i>uncontested to contested</i> .	29%	36%	29%	-	6%	3.8	1.07
3. The purpose was chosen in <i>realistic to unrealistic</i> terms.	39%	61%	-	-	-	4.4	0.50
4. The purpose was <i>completely to not at all</i> chosen legitimately by the membership.	65%	6%	18%	-	11%	4.1	1.41

The organizational identity reflected organizational ownership, cooperation and consensus among the volunteers to the purpose of the organization. This is important for creating a positive relationship among the volunteers instead of incompatible relationships with an overwhelming number of disagreements. These volunteers can be a platform or social system to identify potential rural and community impressions and problems.

Organizational structure was assessed (again using a five-point numerical scale with 5 being highest) with the same quality measurement for the four questions (Table 3). The question of whether leadership was selected and legitimately controlled by members had a mean response of 4.4. As to organizational tasks, the respondents assessed that tasks are consistently defined by the purpose of the organization (mean = 4.6) and that tasks are frequently delegated according to member skills (mean = 3.9). The leadership style reflects a more vertical, top-down communication process and is also associated with maintaining control and order and using a more autocratic/less participatory leadership style (Pina e Cunha, 2000).

The organizational structure was

reflected in the tasks to be completed and the management style, while linking the performance to organizational purpose (Kinicki & Kreitner, 2006). The respondents frequently believed that the organizational structure was tailored to the organizational purpose (mean average of 4.1 in a five-point scale). Organizational structure can be identified as the horizontal, vertical or mixed administrative style. The administrative style will also reflect the type of leadership in the organization.

Discussion and Implications

These volunteer-based cultural organizations share an organizational identity and history. Organizational identity is supported and maintained by organizational volunteers who represent a platform for possible non-formal educational interventions in these rural areas. These groups of volunteers can be a part of forums to discuss community development activities. The volunteers could be motivated through non-formal educational programs to not only improve their organizational capacities, but also to initiate group discussion to enhance learning about the decision-making process in community development.

Table 2
Leaders' Perceptions Concerning Identity

Assessment of Organizational Purpose	Leaders' Responses (5 point scale)					Mean	s.d.
	5	4	3	2	1		
1. The organization <i>very much to not at all</i> expresses an individual identity in what it does.	47%	29%	24%	-	-	3.7	0.83
2. The <i>members to outsiders</i> control the organization.	61%	33%	6%	-	-	4.6	0.62
3. Operational organizational decisions are <i>very much to not at all</i> controlled through participatory manner.	22%	55%	18%	6%	-	3.9	0.80

Table 3
Leaders' Perceptions Concerning Organizational Structure

Assessment of Organizational Purpose	Leaders' Responses (5 point scale)					Mean	s.d.
	5	4	3	2	1		
1. Leadership is <i>very much to not at all</i> selected and legitimately controlled by members.	65%	11%	18%	6%	-	4.4	0.98
2. Tasks are <i>very much to not at all</i> defined by purpose.	72%	22%	-	6%	-	4.6	0.78
3. Tasks are <i>very much to not at all</i> allocated according to member's skill.	33%	33%	28%	-	6%	3.9	1.08
4. The organization is <i>very much to not at all</i> tailored to its purpose.	44%	28%	28%	-	-	4.1	0.61

The volunteers reside in low-density, rural areas that are represented by decision-making that involves only a few members of the population. For this reason, the Social Development Institute (a national Portuguese organization) identified the need for social change at this level (Koehnen, 2009; Koehnen & Cristóvão, 2006).

These volunteer-based organizations are dependent on external financial support which comes primarily from the local government. The respondents revealed that there was a very high (43%) or high (19%) level of dependence for outside funds (62% of the respondents). These funds are associated to capital and recurrent expenditures and not on volunteer labor. The dependence upon outside funds establishes a need or consideration for non-formal educational programs that could strengthen volunteer members' capacities to identify additional sources of funds and other means of financial support and procurement.

The voluntary-based organizations' successes in the recognition of cultural heritage were expressed in the relatively positive assessment of the various organizational behavioural components such as identity and purpose. The assessment also indicated some constraints in organizational structure and other aspects. The findings

identified sufficient organizational limitations and concerns to further discuss the inclusion of specific non-formal educational programs and modules. Such non-formal educational programs could strengthen membership capacity in these volunteer-based cultural and musical organizations.

The volunteer-based-platform can be a solid foundation for educational interventions to strengthen empowerment and social capital in these rural areas. The established volunteer-based platform can be the gateway for additional educational interventions for youth development, organizational administration, and community development in order to increase members' empowerment, social capital, and other community development capacities. The interventions could be directed at these volunteer-based-platforms, while inviting other citizens of these communities to participate in the learning process and discussion.

Volunteer-Based-Platform: Can it Complement Additional Interventions?

Numerous authors (Koehnen & Baptista, 2007; Koehnen & Cristóvão, 2006; Koehnen, Baptista & Portela, 2004) have recognized the importance of non-formal

educational programs for rural populations in Portugal. Continuing education for these populations needs to be addressed to both improve the quality of life and the livelihoods of the rural population. Volunteer-based cultural organizations can be a targeted non-formal educational group for improving community and local development capacities and reducing exclusion. The non-formal educational objectives can complement other community educational felt and unfelt needs of volunteers. Non-formal educational programs could be considered an educational intervention to permit reflection upon and discussion of an alternate organizational structure that involves more members of the organization (i.e., volunteers) in the decision-making process.

A non-formal educational program consisting of a series of modules about the strengths and weaknesses of the horizontal organizational structure could be developed. One specific module could deal with increasing organizational participation by discussing all aspects in the implementation and use of a volunteer advisory council. Boyle (1981) identified the purposes of advisory councils in local organizations as: 1) collecting and analyzing data associated to community and organizational concerns; 2) identifying both community and organizational problems, needs and resources; 3) collective decision-making about development activities for the community, and 4) informing the local population about the problems that need to be resolved. The volunteer advisory council is a tool to assist members and non-members in increasing their capacities to participate in the management of volunteer-based organizations as well as increasing social capital and civic performance in their communities. In order to make additional improvement in the administration of volunteer-based organizations, the non-

formal educational planning process can consider other modules that could discuss different leadership styles (e.g., autocratic, democratic, participative, distributed, etc.) in organizations, group problem-solving and decision-making processes, and even funding procurement.

Non-formal educational programs can also be addressed for the improvement of the decision-making process and governance in community development. The volunteer-based-platform can be used to launch non-formal educational programs to address social action programs that are implemented by the local population. The educational module can explain and discuss social change and the social action process along with the steps to implement within the community. These volunteer-based organizations could serve as the catalyst for the local development process to be more participatory, increasing political empowerment.

Beal and Hobbs (1964) outlined the following steps in the social action process that should not be considered linear, but rather open to back-stepping and grouping of the steps: 1) analysis of the existing social systems; 2) convergence of interest; 3) analysis of the prior social situation; 4) delineation of relevant social systems; 5) initiating steps; 6) legitimization; 7) diffusion; 8) definition of need by more general relevant groups and organizations; 9) decision to action by relevant social systems; 10) formulation of objectives; 11) decision on means to be used; 12) plan of work; 13) mobilizing resources; 14) action steps; and 15) evaluation. This community development mechanism can be a learning process for mobilizing the local population, and increasing community problem-solving capacities, volunteerism, governance and empowerment (Luttrell, Quiroz, Scrutton, Bird, 2007; Koehnen & Cristóvão, 2006). This process is also particularly important in

increasing the outreach for volunteer-based organizations. The social action process would assist such organizations in improving inter-organizational communication with other institutions. According to Luttrell, Quiroz, Scrutton, and Bird (2007, p. 5), “relational empowerment moves beyond the concept of individual or collective empowerment to include a consideration of the importance of individuals (or groups) developing the ability to negotiate and influence the nature of the relationships with other institutions.” These empowerment relationships link to the importance of forming partnerships for community development (Koehnen, Baptista, & Portela, 2004).

Conclusion

The relevance of non-formal educational programs is related to a philosophy of continuous education and community-driven development in rural areas. Community-driven development can be attained when a majority of the community members have increased their social capital and participate in the decision-making process. In low-density rural regions in Portugal, governmental leaders tend to dominate the decision-making process as well as other developmental dimensions (Koehnen, 2009; Koehnen & Cristóvão, 2006).

Volunteer-based organizations can serve as a community-learning forum for increasing empowerment and social capital in these scattered rural communities. The developmental role of non-formal educational programs in rural communities in Portugal needs to be engaged by appropriate governmental policies and frameworks. These scattered communities require continuous educational programs in order to move them from communities that are inactive in their community development process to more vitalized communities. In

this respect, the membership from these volunteer-based organizations and the local population need to become more active in the decision-making process.

A community-based process of empowerment and decision-making reflects a dynamic community with the increased participation by volunteers from volunteer-based organizations and other entities. Citizens who have equal social capital and know-how for decision making can challenge and assist local governmental leaders in these communities. The democratic governmental and civic process can be expanded through on-going non-formal educational programs in these rural and scattered communities.

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Effect of Design Elements for Corporate Volunteer Programs on Volunteerability

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Abstract

Corporate volunteer programs may affect current and future volunteering both through the program and independent of it. This article addresses how corporate volunteer program design and implementation choices affect “volunteerability” (i.e., the willingness and ability to volunteer) and provides insights for both corporate volunteer program managers as well as volunteer resource managers in nonprofit organizations hosting corporate volunteers. Emphasis is placed on program choices regarding the level of corporate commitment, program restrictions, participation encouragement, and benefits emphasized. Predictions of effects are grounded in an understanding of the dynamics of legitimization, resource needs, expectations, socialization, substitution, incentives, and resentment.

Key Words:

volunteering, corporate, program, design, manager

Corporate volunteering, also referred to in the literature and common practice as employee volunteering or employer supported volunteering, is a feature of many contemporary companies (Meijs, 2001; Meijs & Kerkhof 2001; Tschirhart, 2005). As an instrument of corporate philanthropy and corporate

community involvement, corporate volunteering fits under the umbrella of corporate social responsibility (Burke, Logsdon, Mitchel, Reiner & Vogel, 1986). Corporate volunteers provide service to nonprofit organizations through their workplace or with the assistance of their employer. In this article, we explain how

corporate volunteer programs can influence “volunteerability,” the ability and willingness to volunteer both through the workplace and independently (Meijs, Ten Hoorn & Brudney, 2006).

Corporate volunteer programs have both short- and long-term effects on volunteerability, managers of corporate volunteer programs, and volunteer resource managers in nonprofit organizations hosting corporate volunteers may influence these effects. This premise is grounded in the Dutch and American literature on both organizational behavior and corporate volunteerism, encompassing: 1) a thorough review of 15 exemplar corporate volunteer programs (Meijs & Van der Voort, 2004); 2) interviews with eight experts in the field of corporate volunteering; and 3) discussions with Dutch corporate executives at a conference on volunteerism.

The Concept of Corporate Volunteering

Corporate volunteering is any volunteering that is supported or recognized by an employer. In reality, the distinction between personal and corporate volunteering can become blurred, especially in highly informal, non-pressured, and unrestricted corporate volunteer programs. It may be unclear to an individual employee whether her/his volunteering is personal or work-related, especially if s/he would have volunteered even if the company offered no support or recognition of the activity. This approach is consistent with Meijs and Van der Voort (2004) who suggested, “In corporate volunteering, a company encourages its employees to offer time and expertise as volunteers to nonprofit organizations. These volunteer activities can be undertaken within or outside the employee’s official workload and time” (p. 21). Tuffrey (1998) complemented this conceptualization by describing corporate volunteering as employee community involvement with employer supports that vary by program.

Most observers of corporate volunteering assume that it offers benefits for employees, the employer, and the community (Tschirhart, 2005), and that companies vary in prioritization of beneficiaries (Tschirhart & St. Clair, 2008). Possible outcomes from corporate volunteering include (but are not limited to): employee good feelings and skill development; community improvement; greater financial donations to nonprofits; positive company image; employees’ improved understanding of community needs; and increased market share (Austin, 1997; Benjamin, 2001; Gilder, Schuyt, & Breedijk, 2005; Lee, 2001; Pancer, Baetz, & Rog, 2002; Thomas & Christoffer, 1999; Tschirhart, 2005). Different corporate volunteer program strategies may result in different types of outcomes. For example, Peterson (2004) found that the most effective ways for corporate volunteer program managers to gain employee participation in volunteer programs may not be the same as those most effective in maximizing volunteer hours. Peterson’s findings suggested a need for attention to the linkage of corporate program elements to effects. The focus in this article, however, is on how corporate volunteer program choices may influence individuals’ willingness and abilities to volunteer, now and in the future.

Corporate volunteer programs resemble volunteer centers in that both recruit, select, place, and support volunteers for nonprofit host organizations. In many situations, corporate volunteer programs work in a larger geographical area than does a volunteer center, but this broadened scope is compensated by the fact that potential volunteers (i.e., employees) can be reached through corporate communication channels. Nonprofit organizations seeking sources of volunteers may look to both corporations and volunteer centers as a source of volunteers. Volunteers need to

be matched to assignments, and this matching function may be influenced by the host organization as well as the source of the volunteers. This article primarily emphasizes the roles of the manager of a corporate volunteer program, and secondarily those of a volunteer resource manager inside a host nonprofit organization utilizing corporate volunteers.

Corporate Volunteering Program Choices

There are four important choices to be made when designing and implementing a corporate volunteer program: 1) company commitment, 2) program restrictions, 3) encouragement of participation, and 4) benefits emphasized.

Company Commitments

Company commitment may be manifested in a variety of ways. One important dimension of commitment is the degree to which the company provides employees with time during the work day for volunteering. For example, lower to higher commitment may be shown by moving from simply recognizing and praising employees who volunteer during their personal time, to giving company donations to nonprofit organizations that engage company employees as volunteers. To demonstrate greater commitment, a company may let employees use working hours for volunteer activities. Companies may show a high level of commitment by hiring paid corporate volunteer managers with a budget and space allocated for the promotion and facilitation of employee volunteering. Less formal and resource-intensive support structures for volunteering within a company (e.g., simply having a bulletin board where employees may post a notice about a volunteer opportunity) show a relatively lower level of commitment.

A nonprofit host organization for corporate volunteers is not necessarily a passive partner to the corporate volunteer program. The nonprofit may require a

certain level of commitment before agreeing to work with a corporate volunteer program. For example, the nonprofit volunteer resource manager and the corporate volunteer program manager might negotiate the minimum number of volunteer hours to be performed by corporate volunteers, or to what extent the volunteers' tasks will be facilitated by the company (for example, by having transportation, supplies, or training provided by the company). In addition, a nonprofit volunteer resource manager may show greater or lesser commitment to the company, with commitment demonstrated by how the host nonprofit manages corporate volunteers. As an example, a nonprofit volunteer resource manager may make a special point to recognize a company's involvement with the nonprofit as a source of volunteers, and not just acknowledge individual volunteer efforts. The nonprofit volunteer resource manager might also provide recruitment and training resources for the corporate volunteer program as a demonstration of the nonprofit's commitment to supporting the corporate volunteer program.

There is an additional complexity to the issue of level of commitment to the corporate volunteer program when one considers the potential role that managers of volunteer centers might play in increasing a company's commitment to its corporate volunteer program. Volunteer center managers may negotiate with a company to increase the company's support to employees who volunteer. For example, a volunteer center manager could advocate for compensation of volunteer hours by the volunteer's employer, or for a formal company acknowledgement of a volunteer employee's service. They could also ask a company to direct interested employees to the volunteer center, promote the idea of volunteering, and/or praise employees who are using the volunteer center to find volunteer placements.

Program Restrictions

Companies may limit what they recognize or support in a corporate volunteer program. To illustrate the range of possibilities, they may set no restrictions on employee volunteer activities, or set moderate restrictions on activities, for example, by setting a theme such as youth or health-related activities or by restricting the types of nonprofit organizations that will be acknowledged as corporate volunteer hosts (e.g., many companies do not acknowledge employees' volunteer time for religious activities). For the most highly restrictive programs, the company may allow only a limited number of volunteer activities, and the volunteering may be performed only with the coordination of the corporate volunteer program manager.

A nonprofit host organization may be selective in whom it chooses to work with as a source of volunteers. A nonprofit volunteer resource manager may refuse to work with certain types of corporations. As an example, a volunteer resource manager may not wish for her/his nonprofit organization to be associated with a company whose business mission or product conflicts with the nonprofit's policies, values, or mission (e.g., a nonprofit whose mission is focused on health may have a policy not to be involved with a company that sells tobacco products).

Encouragement of Participation

A company may be more or less aggressive and explicit in encouraging employees to volunteer. A corporate volunteer program may limit pressure to volunteer by simply announcing volunteer opportunities to employees without encouraging them to participate. A corporate volunteer program manager might use social and collegial pressure through invitations to volunteer from peer employees or supervisors, employee sharing of reasons for volunteering, and the use of colleagues formally appointed

by the company to encourage and coordinate participation. There may also be a hierarchical expectancy established with participation goals set by those higher in authority. As an example, being a board member for a nonprofit organization may be expected of partners in a consulting firm. There may also be formal obligations, such as when an employee is told that it is part of the job requirements to volunteer and is given a specific assignment. Implicit encouragement to volunteer may be perceived by an employee even if the employee is not directly asked to be involved in the volunteer program.

A nonprofit host organization may find that having a board member who is employed by a specific company may come with an expectation that other employees from that board member's company will volunteer with the nonprofit and be encouraged by the nonprofit to do so. The corporation may wish to have multiple opportunities for employees to be involved with a nonprofit. By agreeing to host corporate volunteers for one activity, the nonprofit may feel pressured to offer more activities consistent with the corporate volunteer program.

Benefits Emphasized

Corporate volunteer programs vary in their likely outcomes, and a company can decide how to prioritize the three main potential beneficiaries of the program: employees, company, and community. The choice of volunteer projects may vary depending on whether the goal is to maximize employee skill development, company visibility in the community, or value to a nonprofit organization. A project involving the use of high level skills by having a few employees design an information system for a nonprofit may be good for employee development, but have less public relations value for a company than a project which involves a much greater number of employees working together to give gifts to

disadvantaged children. Any volunteer resource manager needs to balance the volunteers' needs and desired benefits, as well as those of the nonprofit and its clients. In addition, a volunteer resource manager in a nonprofit host organization should consider the benefits desired by organizational sources of volunteers, whether the source is a corporate volunteer program or some other type of volunteer clearinghouse.

Effects of Commitment, Restrictions and Encouragement on Volunteerability

Table 1 summarizes potential effects of choices related to commitment, restrictions, and encouragement on both

short- and long-term volunteerability. Short-term refers to volunteerability during the current corporate volunteer activity; long-term refers to volunteerability after the conclusion of the current corporate volunteer activity. The potential effects identified are based upon an understanding of the dynamics of legitimization, resource needs, expectations, socialization, substitution, incentives, and resentment effects. By understanding these dynamics, a manager can make informed choices about how to design and implement a corporate volunteer program, and nonprofit hosts for these volunteers can consider the implications of being involved with these programs.

Table 1
Program Elements and Effects on Volunteerability

Program Choice		Low Level	High Level
Commitment to Corporate Volunteer Program	Short Term	weak legitimization effect on corporate volunteerability	strong legitimization effect on corporate volunteerability
	Long Term	weak resource effect on corporate volunteerability	strong resource effect on corporate volunteerability
Restriction of Diversity of Corporate Volunteer Program Activities	Short Term	strong substitution effect with corporate volunteering more likely to displace independent volunteering	weak substitution effect with corporate volunteering unlikely to displace independent volunteering
	Long Term	weak socialization effect on opinions on community needs	strong socialization effect on opinions on community needs
Encouragement of Participation in Corporate Volunteer Program	Short Term	weak incentive, resource and substitution effects with corporate volunteering unlikely to displace other volunteering	strong incentive effect for corporate volunteering
	Long Term	weak resentment effect for corporate volunteering	possible strong resentment effect reducing volunteerability

Drawing from resource dependency theory (Pfeffer & Salancik, 1978), when a corporate volunteer program is seen as more legitimate, it will attract more participants. A corporate volunteer program manager may encourage perceptions of legitimacy by demonstrating that the company is committed to the volunteer program. Possible mechanisms for improving perceptions of legitimacy include explicit company commitments (such as endorsements by company leaders) and financial and staff investments in the program. While perceptions of legitimacy affect willingness to volunteer, available resources also affect ability to volunteer. Company commitments not only demonstrate company values and norms, but also provide tangible resources that can make it easier for an employee to volunteer. Corporate volunteer program managers may be able to give employees time off from work, and provide coordination support, training, and tools to facilitate volunteer tasks. By deploying more company resources to support volunteer efforts, corporate volunteer program managers are likely to increase volunteerability.

How a corporate volunteer program is designed and managed may affect expectations of employees. Employees working for a company with high commitments to a corporate volunteer program may come to expect this level of support for volunteering from their current and future employers. They may bring a psychological contract (Rousseau, 1995) to their employment situations that includes a set of implicit obligations for corporate volunteering. Corporate volunteer program managers and nonprofit host volunteer resource managers can reinforce or weaken these expectations. They may promote the company as unique in its level of commitment to volunteer service, or present the company as acting according to norms of corporate social responsibility (CSR). By emphasizing rationales for

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company commitments, they may shape employee beliefs and, ultimately, expectations for future company commitments.

A substitution effect may be experienced when current volunteering by employees outside the realm of the corporate volunteer program is replaced by volunteering within the program. By restricting the types of activities that are acknowledged and supported, a corporate volunteer program manager can influence how much substitution is likely to occur. The more restrictive the program, the less likely an employee's personal volunteering will transfer to corporate volunteering. For employees who are highly devoted to a certain cause, if the cause does not fit under the corporate program umbrella, personal volunteering may be chosen over corporate volunteering. For employees without strong volunteering preferences, a highly restrictive program is more likely to shape their volunteer activities. Nonprofit hosts of corporate volunteers should be aware of possible substitution effects. If the host manages to get on a short list of accepted organizations for a corporate volunteer program, the substitution effect may work to the host's advantage but may harm other nonprofits not on the short list that lose volunteers who switch to the company-endorsed volunteer activities.

When explained by a corporate volunteer program manager as worthy, corporate volunteer choices can draw the attention and interest of employees. Socialization to volunteering occurs when employees accept that there are needs to be served in the community, and that they and their co-worker peers should be involved. Employees become socialized to the idea that it is appropriate for them to give their time, talents, and energies to address certain social needs. By sharing stories about benefits and impacts of employee volunteering upon community needs, corporate volunteer program managers help to socialize individuals to perceive volunteering as appropriate and

worthwhile. Nonprofit organizational hosts may also play a part in socializing individuals to the idea of volunteering through their workplaces. By praising companies for their efforts to encourage employee volunteering, nonprofits help to support the idea that corporate volunteer programs are legitimate and worthwhile.

Incentive effects can be used by corporate volunteer program managers to influence volunteerability, especially when participation in the program is linked to perceived career advancement. On the one hand, if employees are not highly encouraged to participate, and/or are given few incentives to do so, they may feel their time is better spent on other activities. On the other hand, if incentives for participation are high, cost-benefit calculations may lead an individual to decide to participate in the corporate volunteer program. However, corporate volunteer program managers should not assume that the more incentives and encouragement of participation, the better the program. Resentment effects may occur if employees feel that their employer is attempting to take over their private time (Tschirhart & St. Clair, 2008). In addition, some employees may feel their volunteer service is degraded if they are rewarded for performing it. Altruistic motivations may suffer if extrinsic benefits of participation are too high. Managers of any type of volunteer program are likely to be aware of the need to give incentives to volunteers. Understanding the need to prevent negative effects of incentives is probably less well-developed, but is also important.

Effect of Benefits on Volunteerability

Table 2 summarizes potential effects of benefits to employees, company, and community on corporate and personal volunteering. In general, the greater the benefits, the greater the willingness and ability to engage in corporate volunteering. However, there are important nuances that must be considered. Individuals and

nonprofits are likely to prioritize corporate and personal volunteering according to which offers the greater benefits to them. Companies have the challenge of showing that they benefit from a corporate volunteer program without seeming to be too self-serving. Corporate volunteer program managers who demonstrate benefits to employees, company, and community are most likely to support their program's sustainability. Placing the highest emphasis on how a program helps the company is likely to backfire with employees who feel discomfort with the idea that an employer is asking an employee to donate time for the company's benefit (Tschirhart & St.Clair, 2008). Offering too many extrinsic rewards to employees may frustrate employees who believe that volunteering should be altruistic and not instrumental, and who do not wish personal recognition through the company for their volunteer efforts (Tschirhart & St. Clair, in press). Nonprofit organization hosts of corporate volunteers can benefit from being aware of the possible negative effects on current volunteers not involved through corporate programs if they give too much praise and other rewards to corporate volunteers. In addition, they should be sensitive to comparisons that volunteers not engaged under a corporate umbrella may make if they feel they are not treated as well as volunteers serving the nonprofit through corporate volunteer programs.

Conclusions

Corporate volunteer programs can lead to both individuals volunteering for the first time, and for current volunteers, volunteering more hours. Given individuals' limited time and competing demands upon their time, by increasing investments in corporate volunteer programs we may end up trading one form of volunteerism for another. Such claims have surfaced before. As an example, some critics charged that the 1997 Presidents' Summit for America's Future

Table 2
Benefits from Corporate Volunteering and Effect on Volunteerability

Benefit	Low	High
Employee	Negative effect on willingness if employee benefits less from corporate than independent volunteering	Positive effect on willingness if employee benefits more from corporate than personal volunteering Positive effect on volunteerability if skill and knowledge development
Company	Negative effect on willingness if employee believes company gains little from program	Positive effect on willingness if employee believes company gains much from program. However, there is a potential negative effect by too instrumental use of corporate volunteering
Community	Negative effect on willingness if feeling of ineffective use or value of volunteer time	Positive effect on willingness if feeling that making a positive impact on community If nonprofits see greater benefit from use of corporate volunteers than independent volunteers, they may choose to restrict opportunities for independent volunteering in favor of corporate volunteer opportunities

(a national event organized in the U.S. to increase volunteering to help youth) changed existing volunteers' priorities (or organizational accounting for volunteer contributions) rather than stimulated more volunteers or volunteer hours (Brudney, 1999). More troubling is that corporate volunteer programs have the potential to reduce individuals' willingness to volunteer. One possibility is that the motivation to volunteer becomes too extrinsic and, over time, decreases satisfaction with volunteering. Another possibility is that the more interesting opportunities become the domain for corporate volunteers, leaving other volunteers with less attractive tasks.

More research is needed to critically explore the conceptual ideas presented in this article. Empirical studies using varied samples are warranted. Although the ideas presented were developed with input from practitioners, and grounded in theoretical frameworks,

additional research would help to reveal any interactions among program design elements and threshold factors. Currently, there is little quantitative or qualitative data on the concept of volunteerability, and how corporate volunteer program choices influences it.

This discussion of the dynamics of volunteerability serves as a useful foundation for corporate volunteer program managers, nonprofit volunteer resource managers, and volunteer center managers to think systemically about corporate volunteering specifically, and volunteering in general. Overall, we suggest that volunteer resource managers consider how their program affects long-term as well as short-term volunteerability. In general, the more legitimate and expected volunteering through a corporate volunteer program appears to be, the greater the willingness to engage in this type of volunteering. Volunteer resource managers have multiple ways to encourage

perceptions of legitimacy and establish expectations. Willingness alone does not determine volunteerability; ability is also important. By providing resources for participation in a corporate volunteer program, volunteering through the workplace can be increased. Still, there are limits to how much time is available for volunteering, and encouraging corporate volunteering, or volunteering with specific nonprofit hosts, may be detrimental to more independent volunteer efforts and to nonprofits that are not connected to corporate volunteer programs. Finally, corporate volunteer program managers and nonprofit host organizations must consider possible negative effects of offering too many incentives for participation in a corporate volunteer program, and over-emphasizing the benefits to companies of these programs.

Rigorous empirical studies are needed to offer guidance on the effects of specific levels of program commitment, restriction, encouragement, and benefits. However, we are confident that high and low levels of each will have differential effects on volunteerability. Volunteer resource managers should be aware of possible short-term and long-term effects, and monitor and adjust program elements to achieve desired results.

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Volunteers as Partners: Fostering Client-centred Care

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Abstract

This study provides insight into the experience of volunteering from the perspective of community members with disabilities who are involved in educating occupational therapy students. Setting the stage for the study is a first person perspective highlighting the personal significance of volunteering as an educator of health care students. This qualitative research study used semi-structured interviews to discuss volunteerism and the lived experience of disability. Four common themes emerged: personal development, advocacy, education and the dynamic relationship. These themes are illustrated in the Volunteer Experience Model and discussed in relation to other volunteering opportunities and experiences found in the health care literature. This study provides evidence for further research relating to teaching roles for people with disabilities.

Key Words:

volunteers, occupational therapy, students, disability, client-centred care

Introduction

This article describes the viewpoints of volunteers involved in an occupational therapy course titled *The Lived Experience of Disability* at a Canadian university. The course was designed to promote the development of empathy and deepen occupational therapy students' understanding of disability with the aim of understanding and adopting the concept of client-centered practice (Jamieson, Krupa, O'Riordan, O'Connor, Paterson, Ball, & Wilcox, 2005). Volunteers actively engage in educating students about their lives by assuming an educator role in this dynamic relationship. Occupational therapy is a health profession concerned with promoting health and well-being through occupation. "Occupation includes everything that people do during the course of everyday life, including the occupations through which people look after themselves, enjoy life and contribute as members of society" (Canadian Association of Occupational Therapists, 2003).

In *The Lived Experience of Disability* course, pairs of students are matched with a volunteer community member who has a disability. Volunteers assume a mentoring role by meeting with students regularly over a six-week period, engaging in different activities and roles in a variety of venues. Meetings may include touring a volunteer's home to identify accessibility issues, chatting at a downtown café while observing the reactions of community members, meeting the volunteer at their place of work or leisure, using the transportation system or engaging in experiential opportunities such as using mobility devices in the community. Meetings are planned to convey to students the activities and roles assumed by volunteers in their daily lives. They provide students with a realistic view of the experience of living with a disability, as

volunteers involved in the course impart their knowledge within community settings. Through journaling and tutorials, students reflect on these educational experiences. Past research using this approach has demonstrated the importance of partnership to student learning and has focused on the lived experience from the students' perspective (Borcherding & Baldwin, 2001; Paterson, O'Riordan, Jamieson, O'Connor, Krupa, & Wilcox, 2000). The purpose of this research was to examine the essence of volunteering from the viewpoint of 14 volunteers involved in *The Lived Experience* course. To set the stage and to provide some context, one of the authors of this manuscript Debbie Docherty, an experienced volunteer and advisory committee member in the course, provides her own following viewpoint:

As a volunteer in this course over the past 8 years, I have experienced the predictable benefits of volunteerism, including a sense of personal contribution, fulfillment, involvement in my community and intellectual stimulation. There are also unanticipated benefits. The most gratifying experiences have been the teachable moments: that instant when the student and I, through conversation and demonstration reach a point of common understanding, at a deep level, of the experience of disability. This "ah ha" moment leaves me with the certainty that understanding has occurred at a significant level. I am not the paid professional educator burdened by the design of the curriculum or evaluation of the student in a formal academic sense. I cannot overstate how liberating it is to be freed from the administrative constraints of the course. I am

however responsible as a volunteer, to engage with the students, to share openly my experience of living with a disability and to offer feedback to both the students and the course instructor about how I think the students interacted with me. While feeling positive about giving of myself and my time, I am simultaneously contributing to the enhanced learning and competence of the very health care professionals I will need to rely on. Over the years of volunteering I have refined my tutoring style, and challenged the students through experiential activities and discussions about their biases or expectations regarding the abilities of individuals living with a disability. In our society individuals living with a disability are too often marginalized. Their involvement in and contribution to the civic and social life of their community is dismissed, curtailed or discounted. This occurs both through attitude (negative biases about the competencies of individuals living with a disability) and the built environment (which prevents physical access to those with mobility or visual impairments). This course provides a unique and meaningful opportunity for volunteers to engage in an activity that gives a sense of purpose to their lives.

Methodology

This study was conducted as part of a large action research project called, Queen's University Inter-Professional Patient-centred Education Direction (QUIPPED) seeking to create an inter-professional educational environment. The purpose of the exploratory action research

project was to enhance the ability of learners and faculty to provide patient-centred care, while recognizing the contribution of the health care team within a respectful and collaborative framework. Action research is "iterative, rigorous and collaborative, involving a focus on both organizational development and the generation of knowledge. Its iterative characteristic implies a cyclic process of intervention, with the conduct of ... several cycles of activities that are designed to address the problem(s) experienced in the organizational setting" (Davison, Martinsons & Koch, 2004, p. 68). The research discussed in this paper was one of many activities carried out in this 33-month action research project from 2005-2008.

Participants

Participants were recruited from volunteers involved in *The Lived Experience of Disability* course. Of the 17 volunteers involved in the course, 14 consented to participate, representing 82% of potential participants, ranging in age from mid-twenties to mid-sixties. Participants experience a diversity of disabilities including physical and mental health challenges. Participants were divided into three groups based on their level of experience in the course: new volunteers (seven), experienced volunteers (five) and experienced volunteers who were also members of the course advisory committee (two). The advisory committee, including three experienced volunteers and the course coordinator, works collaboratively in planning and making decisions about all aspects of the course. The groups were formed in order to determine whether or not the length and depth of involvement impacted the volunteering experience.

Confidentiality, risks and benefits were discussed with participants before commencing the interviews. Participants

were assigned a number from P1 to P14 to identify and label the data collected, ensuring confidentiality. Ethics approval was obtained from the university's research ethics board.

Data Collection

A qualitative methodology was employed utilizing semi-structured interviews to collect data by allowing participants to narrate their volunteer experiences (Figure 1). Interview protocols recommended by Krueger and Casey (2000) provided helpful guidelines.

A research advisor was present to assist as needed. Interviews, held in a quiet, non-threatening environment with refreshments provided, were 60-90 minutes in length. Transportation was arranged for participants if necessary. An interview guide (Figure 2) was used to facilitate discussion among the participants. Interviews were taped and transcribed, and field notes taken. Member checking was utilized as the participants reviewed the transcripts to verify accuracy. Redundancy was achieved

as later interviews confirmed themes that emerged from earlier interviews.

Analysis

Open coding was used to capture the themes described by participants. Researchers independently read and coded the transcripts to achieve triangulation. Transcripts were also read and coded by the research advisors. Brainstorming sessions occurred between the researchers and advisors to discuss inter-relationships between codes and determine common themes. Every effort was made to ensure trustworthiness as advocated by Krefting (1991). A conceptual model was developed to illustrate the themes that emerged from the participants' narrated experiences.

Findings

This study was exploratory in nature, and the findings may not be inferred to any larger group or population other than the participants in this study. Four major themes emerged from the volunteers' narratives: personal development, advocacy, education and dynamic relationship.

Figure 1. Conceptual schema of data collection.

ROUND 1

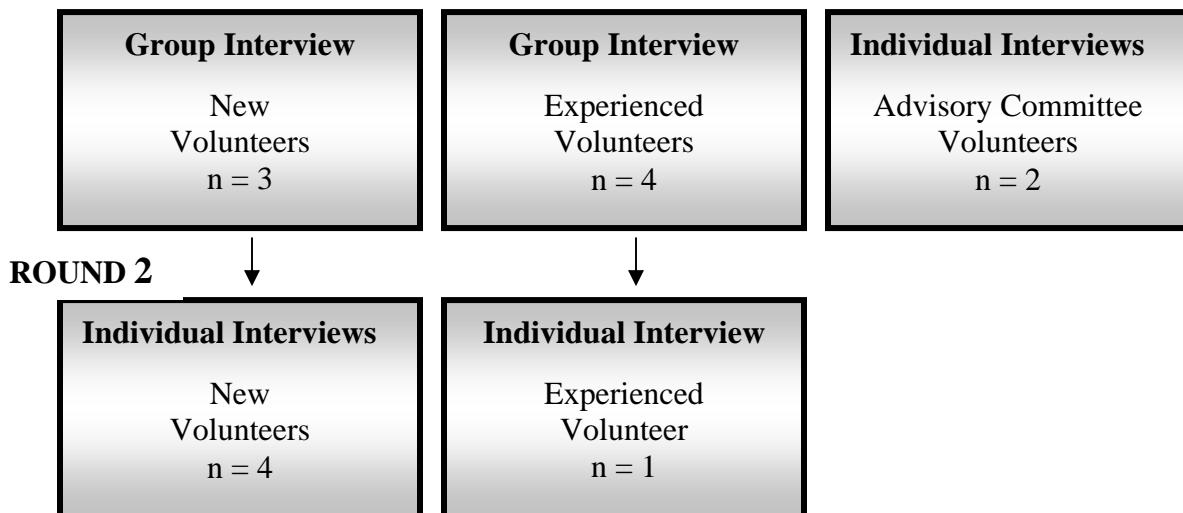


Figure 2. Interview guide.

The interviews will begin with a brief introduction to the purpose of the study and how the information gathered will be used. Participants will be informed of confidentiality and of their right to refuse to answer any questions and/or withdraw from the study at any time. Volunteers will also be provided with all necessary contact information should any questions arise after the interview is complete. *Duration:* Approx. 60-90 minutes

1. How did you become a volunteer for “The Lived Experience of Disability” course?
2. How long have you been a volunteer for the course?
3. What was your motivation to become involved and/or continue in the course?
5. What do you enjoy about volunteering for this course? What are the challenges?
6. How would you describe your role in the course?
7. How have your experiences with students affected your overall view of volunteering?
8. How do you feel you are contributing to students’ understanding of disability? Please provide an example.
9. How does change in a student’s perspective of disability affect you?
10. How do you feel your participation in the course affects your overall view of disability?
11. Do you feel that this experience has changed you? How?
12. Has this experience changed your perception of your own life or the lives of others?
13. How did you become involved in planning the course with the instructor? *
14. What do you enjoy about the planning aspect of the course? *
15. How do you feel your participation in planning affects the course? *
16. How does this participation affect your overall volunteer experience? *

* Questions for volunteers advisory committee members

Personal Development

The first major theme that emerged was the concept of personal development. Changes that occurred within the participants as a result of their volunteering experience with the students were discussed. Participants expressed an increase in their level of confidence, self worth and self-awareness through self-reflection, as well as enhancement in their sense of contribution to community. One beneficial outcome expressed by some participants was an increase in confidence level in either their personal lives or ability to share their experiences of disability with others. For example, one participant said, “I think that having more confidence about being able to

use my disability as a teaching tool was heightened”.

Participants also reported that being a volunteer made them more aware of their own disability, how they function and the depth of the challenges they encounter in their daily lives. Discussing their experiences with students facilitated an appreciation for their current situation and reflection on what they have been through in their past. One participant said: “students give me a new opportunity to consider my life in a new way this year versus last year, in relation to how is your disability affecting you now”.

Another aspect of the personal development theme was the feeling of contributing to the community. Participants

viewed this experience as making a difference in their lives, the students' lives and influencing their communities. One participant said, "I feel really positive about myself. I feel I've made a difference. . . . not all of us are going to be like super-human volunteers . . . but most of us do little things many times and that's what I hope I am doing".

Advocacy

The second major theme that emerged was the concept of advocacy. Participants spoke about taking this opportunity to advocate for themselves and other people with disabilities. Creating a positive image of people with disabilities was identified as a key component of the experience. Participants aimed to portray this image while interacting with students. One participant discussed the importance of projecting this image to students: "One of the greatest things is knowing that you will hopefully change someone's perspective or ideas of what they think someone with a disability's life is all about".

Participants also expressed that society tends to develop myths or misconceptions about people with disabilities. Volunteers discussed the importance of ensuring that students realize people with disabilities are not defined by their disability. One participant said, "Disability doesn't define your life. You know, it's a piece of you just like blond hair and green eyes . . . it's something that defines your personality a little bit but it's not everything that you are". Another said, "They get to see us being successful in whatever it is that we are doing . . . the disability is one thing and one part of how I define myself but clearly it's not everything".

Finally, participants expressed the importance of utilizing this experience to change perspectives of disability. They

perceived this opportunity of spending time with students as a way to advocate for people with disabilities. One participant discussed the importance of changing students' perspectives of disability: *Instead of getting angry it makes me think at least someone is out there with a different mindset. It may be a small step but it's an important step in changing the world so that people are treated equally and people will help those who ask for it without question.*

Education

The third theme was education. Participants discussed their role in teaching and challenging students, as well as the influence they have on future health care professionals. Participants noted the importance of practical experience for students. One participant stated, "I feel very strongly they can't rely on textbooks . . . they can just use them as guidelines. Every individual they deal with is different . . . they must be aware of that and always think outside the box." The volunteers expressed that witnessing the lived experience of disability enriches student learning and provides insight into disability in a way that textbooks or professors cannot.

One of the highlights of the volunteer experience was presenting students with a challenge to determine their response to a particular situation. The challenges often involved students taking part in simulated activities to show them what it might be like to have a disability. One participant said:

I borrow a couple of wheelchairs from a medical supplier and we go to the mall for a couple of hours and the students push themselves around in the wheelchairs to get the perspective of how people can

sometimes treat you when they know you're disabled.

The education theme also involved student learning. Many participants felt they took on the role of a teacher when interacting with the students. This role added meaning to the overall volunteer experience of participants. One participant discussed taking on this educator role: "I liked the set up of the course. It allows people with disabilities to become teachers and engage students in all kinds of different social interaction." Participants discussed the importance of this volunteer experience in influencing how students are going to practice as occupational therapists in the future. They felt the education they provide to students would give them the tools required to work with people with disabilities. One participant remarked: "The people that we are working with are going to become professionals . . . and being able to influence the outcome of their experience and how they will treat the people that they work with in the field is rewarding."

Dynamic Relationship

The fourth theme was the dynamic volunteer-student relationship. Many of the participants discussed the mutual learning that occurred between them and the students. The experience was not merely volunteers imparting information, but rather a shared exchange with students. One participant talked about this dynamic relationship and said, "There is a sense that we have all got something to learn from each other." Furthermore, the participants enjoyed the socialization that occurred as a result of this dynamic relationship. "I love being with bright young keenly interested people . . . I get more out of it I think than I give."

Differences among New and Experienced Volunteers

Minimal differences emerged between the new and experienced volunteers, including the members of the advisory committee. Differences were noted in the challenges faced by new volunteers. They felt uncertain about students' personal and professional background, as well as what to expect from the experience. The main challenge for experienced volunteers was creating new learning opportunities for students, as well as themselves, to avoid repetition or boredom.

The Volunteer Experience Model

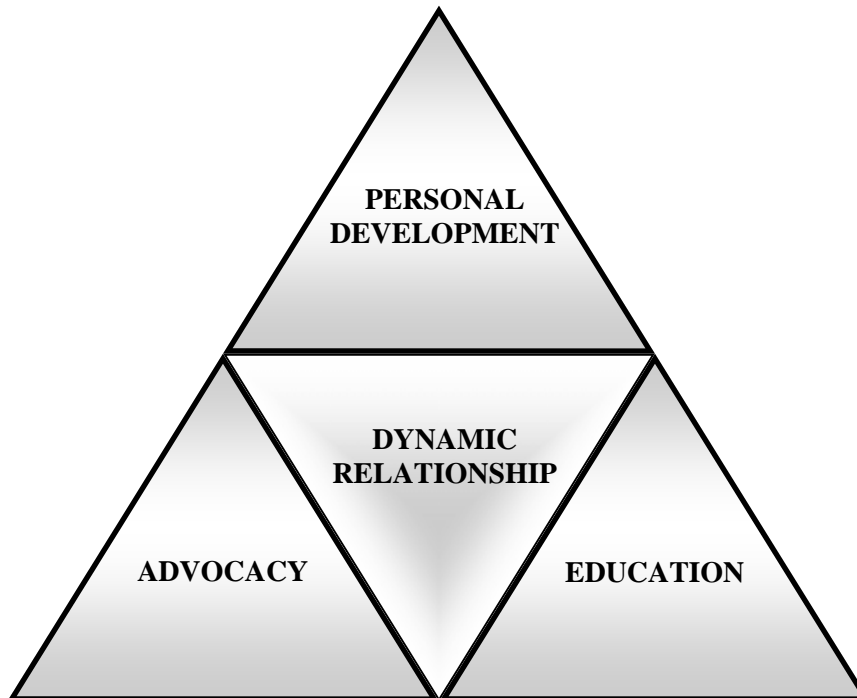
The Volunteer Experience Model (Figure 3) illustrates these themes and demonstrates that the dynamic relationship between students and volunteers is central to their experiences. This model is a visual depiction of the narrated shared experiences of the volunteers engaged in this study. The placement of the triangles is essential in understanding the overall volunteer experience. The personal development triangle is placed at the top of the model because it is the individual component of the experience. From an individual perspective, personal development refers to the internal changes that occurred as a result of the volunteers' involvement with students. These changes enabled an increase in self-confidence, self-worth, self-awareness through reflection and a sense of contribution to the community. When viewing the volunteer experiences from a systems level perspective, the concepts of advocacy and education emerged. Therefore, advocacy and education are placed at the bottom of the model and refer to the system changes. System changes are thought to be changes that occur to both the student and to the future health care system. Participants saw this experience as an opportunity to create a positive image of

disability and to change students' perspective of disability. The importance of the volunteers' role in teaching future health care professionals and the impact this would have on the students' future practices in the broader health care system were also discussed. Ultimately, it was believed that through advocacy and education, the volunteers would influence the manner in which students practice as professionals. Thus, these changes in the students would have a positive effect on how they interact with individuals with disabilities in their future practice.

The dynamic relationships component is placed in the center of the model to depict

how the other three components are influenced by this interaction between volunteers and students. The dynamic relationship was described as the shared learning that occurs between the student and volunteer. The participants often commented on the significance of the educational and social aspects of their visits with students. Both aspects were considered strengths in the experience. The volunteers enjoyed getting to know students on a more personal level, while also being provided with the opportunity to engage in activities that promoted learning.

Figure 3. The Volunteer Experience Model.



Conclusions

This research contributes to the growing body of knowledge on the importance of engaging in volunteering activities, as well as the benefits associated with volunteerism. More specifically, this research provides insight into the volunteers' experience and provides support for future research on volunteerism as an occupation for persons with disabilities at both individual and systems levels. A Volunteer Experience Model was developed to illustrate major themes that emerged from participant accounts with a prominent finding being the dynamic relationship between student and volunteer. This concept is important to future practice as it suggests that therapists can be taught as much from their clients as they can teach their clients. This data reflects experiences from a specific group of individuals within a specific setting. Future research initiatives could examine the application of the Volunteer Experience Model to other volunteer groups and settings.

Acknowledgments

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Beth Morgan completed her undergraduate degree in Kinesiology at McMaster University, Canada in 2003. Much of her time outside of school was spent working for local agencies that support adults and children with various disabilities. Her Master of Science in Occupational Therapy degree was completed in September 2006 at Queen's University, Canada and she has been working as an occupational therapist at Bloorview Kids Rehab since graduating. She is currently working with the Spina Bifida/Spinal Cord team and Seating Services.

Heidi Hunter completed a Bachelor of Arts (Honours) in Psychology at Wilfred Laurier University, Canada. Prior to pursuing a Master of Science in Occupational Therapy at Queen's University, Heidi spent 4 years working with persons with intellectual disabilities. Currently, Heidi is working as an occupational therapist in a community setting for Comcare Health Services and is focused on taking the lessons learned from the volunteers in *The Lived Experience of Disability* course and applying them to enhance her daily practice.

Samantha Anstey graduated from Brock University, Canada with a Bachelor of Arts in Community Health. She worked as a rehabilitation assistant with the paediatric population before graduating from Queen's University in 2006 with a Master of Science in Occupational Therapy. As a student, Samantha participated in *The Lived Experience of Disability* course and contributed to the QUIPPED Project. Currently, Samantha is working at Rehabilitation Solutions as a member of the Hand and Upper Extremity Specialty team.

Anne O'Riordan graduated from the University of Western Ontario, Canada with a Bachelor of Science in Occupational Therapy. She worked as an occupational therapist in the field of mental health for 15 years before joining the faculty of the School of Rehabilitation Therapy, Queen's University to work in clinical education. Anne has coordinated *The Lived Experience of Disability* course since its inception in 1999. Currently, she is the Clinical Educator for the Office of Interprofessional Education and Practice at the Queen's University.

Dr. Margo Paterson is Associate Professor and Chair of the Occupational Therapy Program, School of Rehabilitation Therapy, Queen's University, holding a Master of Science in Community Health and Epidemiology from the Queen's University and a Ph.D. in Health Sciences from the University of Sydney, Australia. Margo was co-principal investigator with colleagues from medicine, nursing and other disciplines on a \$1.2 million Health Canada grant for the Queen's University Inter-Professional Patient-centred Education Direction (QUIPPED) project.

Debbie Docherty completed a Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Social Work before enjoying 33 years as a social worker. Late in her career, she completed a Master of Social Work from McGill University. She also discovered the joys of volunteer teaching at Queen's University in the Faculty of Health Sciences, along with participation in an Occupational Therapy course, *The Lived Experience of Disability*. Debbie's credibility in this regard has been earned through a 20 year course of living with Multiple Sclerosis that forced a somewhat early departure from paid employment but led to a satisfying second career as a volunteer.

Volunteering and Social Activism: Pathways for Participation in Human Development

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Abstract

Volunteering and social activism are sometimes understood as separate spheres of action. Yet activities such as advocacy, campaigning, and awareness-raising can be associated with both volunteering and social activism. This commentary explores the dynamic relationships between volunteering and social activism in relation to social change and development by looking at diverse forms of people's participation in society. In particular, the authors consider how volunteering and social activism contribute to people's participation in meeting development commitments such as the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The authors draw upon a 2007-2008 study commissioned by CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation, the International Association of Volunteer Effort (IAVE,) and United Nations Volunteers (UNV), which engaged over 100 volunteer-involving organizations and tapped the experience of individuals from 54 countries. The authors conclude that both volunteering and social activism are important strategies for fostering people's participation in social change and human development and have the potential to help foster the scale and diversity of participation needed to confront major development challenges.

Key Words:

volunteering, social activism, development, participation

Authors' Note

*The following commentary summarizes the main themes and findings of a 2008 publication, *Volunteering and Social Activism: Pathways for Participation in Human Development*, and draws heavily from the original published text. The authors wish to acknowledge the three collaborating organizations that published the original report: (1) CIVICUS: World Alliance for Citizen Participation; (2) the International Association for Volunteer Effort (IAV); and (3) United Nations Volunteers (UNV). The three organizations have a long-standing relationship which dates back to the 2001 International Year of the Volunteer, and seek to promote a greater understanding of the value of volunteering for society. The full publication may be downloaded in English, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish at:*

<http://www.worldvolunteerweb.org/resources/research-reports/global/doc/volunteerism-and-social-activism.html>

The 2008 publication, *Volunteering and Social Activism: Pathways for Participation in Human Development* offers an innovative conceptual framework for understanding volunteering and social activism in relation to fostering development. By identifying dynamic relationships between volunteering and social activism, the authors challenge conventional perceptions of volunteering and social activism as mutually distinct activities. The reader is asked to consider a range of individual activities as diverse as visiting the elderly, organising a local community meeting, raising awareness about HIV/AIDS, teaching a young girl to read, or advocating for policies to reduce poverty. Using the lens of participation, the authors argue that, together, volunteering and social activism both make vital contributions to promoting people's involvement in human development and social change.

The paper is structured in four parts. Part one considers how volunteering and social activism are understood. The authors argue that sometimes the full range of volunteering is not adequately recognized or valued. While charity is one aspect of volunteering, other activities such as advocacy, campaigning, lobbying, and awareness-raising can also involve volunteering. Similarly, while social activism certainly involves public disobedience, it also encompasses activities like advocacy and awareness-raising. This apparent overlap points to some commonality between volunteering and social activism, which can produce a mutually supportive relationship between the two spheres of activity.

Three areas of commonality between volunteering and social activism are discussed next in part one. First, volunteering, like social activism, can be purposely oriented towards social change.

For example, volunteering is sometimes directed at influencing agenda-setting, policy-making, decision-making, and representation. This departs from some perceptions of volunteering as solely concerned with addressing the symptoms (rather than the causes) of social problems. Secondly, volunteering and social activism are also key mechanisms for enabling participatory development, a process critical for sustainable development. And thirdly, volunteering and social activism foster myriad opportunities for participation by people from a wide range of circumstances and backgrounds.

Part two identifies four key ways in which volunteering and social activism support one another in fostering participation. Here, the authors focus on the unique and valuable contributions of both volunteering and social activism. First, volunteering can help people start engaging with social change and development issues. However, the most significant finding is that most engaged individuals participate in multiple types of activities, ranging from traditional forms of volunteering to political activism, and that their participation can change at different points in their lives. Second, the role of social activism in providing leadership, defining areas for engagement, and mobilizing individuals is highlighted. Social activism is recognized for its role in helping to direct and channel individual efforts for change. Third, the authors point out that social activism relies on the contributions of volunteers to effect the change it seeks. And fourth, one of the most critical ways in which volunteering supports social activism is by helping it reflect the local needs of the communities it seeks to assist.

Part three focuses on how volunteering, including aspects of social activism, can foster people's participation in development, particularly in achieving the

eight Millennium Development Goals, or MDGs (End Poverty 2015 Millennium Campaign; 2008). The MDGs respond to the main development challenges of our time and were officially derived from the Millennium Declaration adopted by 189 Heads of States at the UN Millennium Summit in September 2000. Based on time-bound and measurable targets, the MDGs seek to: (1) reduce extreme poverty, (2) attain universal primary education, (3) promote gender equality and women's empowerment, (4) reduce child mortality, (5) improve maternal health, (6) fight epidemics like HIV/AIDS, (7) attain environmental sustainability, and (8) create a global partnership for development. World leaders have agreed to achieve the Goals by 2015.

One important finding is that volunteering helps promote social inclusion by providing opportunities for marginalized groups, such as poor women, to engage in participatory development processes. In this way, volunteering helps to fulfill the MDGs one and three, focused upon eradicating extreme poverty and promoting women's empowerment. Through volunteer-led advocacy efforts, the beliefs and behavior of ordinary individuals, as well as those who control resources, can be changed. This contributes to promoting environmental sustainability, MDG seven, and also MDGs four, five, and six, all of which relate to improving health, particularly among women and children. Finally, participation through volunteering can help equip individuals, including young people, with the confidence, skills and knowledge necessary to effect change in their world. By facilitating informed participation in development, volunteering can contribute to achieving all of the MDGs.

In part four, the authors recommend four approaches that can deepen and sustain people's participation in development and

social change. First, the creation of new and diverse opportunities for involvement is fundamental to promoting participation. Volunteer centers can assist by offering opportunities for participation, which reflect a wide range of volunteer activities. Secondly, investing in good volunteer management is crucial for expanding opportunities for involvement. This entails developing volunteer opportunities which are wide-ranging and flexible so that people from diverse backgrounds can participate. Third, recognition of volunteer contributions by volunteer resource managers as well as by volunteer-involving organizations is important for widening and sustaining participation

The fourth recommendation is that each sector has a role to play in creating an enabling environment for people's participation. Governments should support the development of programs that promote participation, particularly in relation to national development priorities. Civil society should advance a greater understanding of the intrinsic value of participation. Furthermore, the instrumental value of both volunteering and social activism should be recognized and deployed in the work of civil society organizations. The private sector should invest in corporate social responsibility so that employees can participate in a range of volunteer opportunities, including activities that advance social change and development. Finally, the United Nations and other international agencies should facilitate the creation of an enabling environment through support to their private and civil society partners.

A key message throughout the paper is that participation, in its multiplicity, is fundamental to achieving development goals. Indeed, both volunteering and social activism are powerful vehicles for fostering engagement. In this way, both forms of

participation are an empowering and positive force for development and change. The authors conclude with a challenge to all spheres of society: Recognize the combined potential of volunteering and social activism to broaden and sustain people's participation in human development and social change. Only in this way, they argue, can the vast potential of people's participation be unleashed for the advancement of human development.

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Recognizing the Role of Volunteers in Building Democracy

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Abstract

It is easy to take for granted the fundamentals of our invaluable democratic process, and in particular, the volunteers who ensure its health and vibrancy. During election campaigns in many countries like Canada, we see levels of voter participation that are reflective of an apathetic citizenry. This commentary suggests that in order to respond to cynicism and indifference towards the democratic process, one should look at the volunteers who participate behind the scenes, both during and in-between elections. A federal election in Canada, for example, brings together more volunteers than any other event, making it the largest episodic volunteering effort in the country. From the various tasks related to campaigning to the organization of advocacy and awareness activities related to specific policies, these volunteers protect and build upon the democratic principles that many other countries have yet to grasp.

Key Words:

volunteers, democracy, civic, participation, elections

Throughout the world, volunteers play an invaluable role in building, uniting, and defending their respective nations. In Canada, with the help of 12 million citizens who contribute almost 2 billion hours of their time over the course of a year (Statistics Canada, 2006), this collective movement of volunteerism spans across many boundaries. It contributes to our nation's economy, it benefits our environment, it creates safer communities, it is linked to better physical and mental health, it uses the skills and talents of new Canadians, and it makes people feel proud to be Canadian. This is indeed the power of volunteerism. It is also a cornerstone of democracy.

During elections, while citizens and political parties contemplate the issues as they relate to the future of the country, it is often easy to take for granted the fundamentals of our invaluable democratic

process, and in particular, the volunteers who ensure its health and vibrancy. Today, it seems as though election campaigns are focused more on who wins and who loses. With the help of the mainstream media, average citizens are taken on a wild ride of volatile polling numbers, often ridiculous political punditry, and the odd scandals that only seem to build up a sense of cynicism towards our democratic process. After all of this is done, citizens breathe a sigh of relief as the long days of campaigning come to an end.

What's particularly concerning is that the whole notion of politics is putting democracy at risk as has been demonstrated in Canada, which has experienced some of the lowest voter turnout rates in history. Recognizing and highlighting the role of volunteers in safeguarding democracy has a vital role to play in perhaps turning civic *disengagement* around. The story behind

democracy - more than just voting, but the process of campaigning, political work, activism, protesting – is one that shows the critical components of democratic involvement: volunteering, participating, and/or being engaged.

When we look closely behind all of the bravado and posturing of political campaigning, we see an active citizenry that holds our democratic system together. Behind every local and national campaign, countless volunteers are assigned tasks which vary from making phone calls, knocking on doors, or delivering pamphlets to informing local media, organizing rallies, and researching policies. The list of tasks, which is endless, indicates the cross-cutting roles that these individual volunteers play in driving the democratic process. In Canada, a federal political campaign brings together more volunteers than any other event, making it the largest episodic volunteering effort in the country.

The role of volunteers in supporting democracy is not, however, solely relegated to involvement in political campaigning. Volunteers play an important role in building civic participation and encouraging such participation in the holistic democratic process. In Canada, organizations such as Equal Voice and Apathy is Boring rely heavily on volunteers to deliver their message during election campaigns. The first focuses on increasing the participation of women in the political process; the second encourages young Canadians to vote and exercise their rights as citizens. These organizations demonstrate that the role of volunteers is not solely focused on partisan politics or support for a specific candidate, but rather makes a tremendous impact in moving our democratic process forward.

While they are completely different in their goals, social awareness organizations and political campaigns share the same need for volunteers who will go

beyond the basic duty of a citizen, thus shaping the country's future. While the range of activities can vary from delivering one pamphlet to a neighbour to putting a name on the ballot and running as a candidate, they are all examples that make one of our organization's main mantras come alive – the value of one, the power of many.

Further, it is important to recognize that democracy, voting, and civic participation are constructs that millions of us in the global village have the privilege of enjoying and benefitting from while at the same time, millions of others do not. While not necessarily an advocate of the “use the right to vote, or lose the right to complain” viewpoint, not voting and not participating in the political process is rather impertinent when the right to do so is denied to so many around the world.

During Canada's federal election last fall, Canadians witnessed this power as millions of volunteers rallied behind a message for hope and change in the United States. After the election of Barack Obama as the American president, Canadians were still in awe of the way Obama's campaign united and mobilized an entire country towards a focused cause. Members of the media and political commentators credited his marketing strategy; others, his charisma. But ultimately, without his volunteers, Obama's vision for a better America would have been nothing more than an empty dream.

All of this being said, we need to realize that volunteerism doesn't just happen. During our country's election, Volunteer Canada, as the national voice for volunteerism, led a national awareness campaign to highlight the role of volunteers not only during elections but in all aspects of our communities. We also contacted each candidate of every major political party and asked them to think of the unthinkable:

imagining their campaign with no volunteers. As a way of recognizing their volunteers, we asked them to sign a pledge to support volunteerism and acknowledge the need for government to support a national infrastructure to engage and mobilize volunteers.

Wherever we are, and whoever we are – Democrat, Republican, Liberal, Conservative, right, left, red, blue, green – let us all look beyond our political beliefs and thank our volunteers. While working in different capacities during and in between

elections, these volunteers continue to build upon the democratic foundations that are the envy of the world.

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About the Author

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The Volunteering Impact Assessment Toolkit: What Difference Does Volunteering Make?

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Abstract

With the growing interest and increasing demand for volunteer-involving organizations to monitor, measure, and document the impact and benefit of volunteer programs, the Institute for Volunteering Research developed the Volunteering Impact Assessment Toolkit in late 2004 to help organizations undertake their own research to assess the impacts of volunteering. Providing a framework and set of tools for managers of volunteers, the toolkit has been used to inform the development and improvement of volunteer programs and to provide evidence for funders on the benefits of volunteering for volunteers themselves, volunteer organizations and their staff, service users, and the wider community. This article introduces the toolkit, discusses how it can be used, and identifies some of the challenges of assessing the impacts of volunteering.

Key Words:

evaluation, impact, assessment, benefits, human capital, social capital

Introduction

For some time, managers of volunteer resources have been under growing pressure to demonstrate the impact and benefits of volunteer programs socially and economically (Anderson & Zimmerer, 2003; Gaskin, 1999; Gaskin & Dobson, 1996; Hager & Brudney, 2005; Rabiner et al., 2003; Safrit & Merrill, 1998; Safrit, Schmiesing, King, Villard, & Wells, 2003). They are increasingly being called upon to evidence the difference volunteers are making, with demands for volunteer involving organizations to become more effective, efficient and transparent (Ellis & Gregory, 2008; Kendall & Knapp, 1996). The impetus for this is coming from a number of different directions both within and outside volunteer-involving organizations, including from “funders, public sector bodies charged with regulating them, individual employees, donors, service users, and by volunteers themselves” (Ellis Paine, 2000, p. 2). Few volunteer

organizations are able to ignore the growing chorus of demands to demonstrate value, impact, and benefit of volunteerism.

To help organizations respond to these demands to measure and demonstrate the impact of their volunteering programs, the Institute for Volunteering Research in the United Kingdom developed the Volunteering Impact Assessment Toolkit. Published in late 2004, the Toolkit provides guidance and tools to enable managers of volunteers to assess the impact of volunteering within their organization. The actual Toolkit may be accessed at <https://ecommerce.volunteering.org.uk/PublicationDetails.aspx?ProductID=V309>. This article explores the foundations of the Toolkit, how it has been used and some of the challenges of carrying out volunteering impact assessments within organizations.

The Toolkit's Framework

The Toolkit takes a relatively simple approach to assessing impact. First, it

identifies the main stakeholders affected by volunteering, including volunteers, the organization, the users/beneficiaries of the volunteerism; and the wider community. It then looks to classify the key ways these stakeholders might be impacted by volunteering. Considering the vast number of potential benefits (and drawbacks) of volunteering, the Toolkit categorises these impacts into five key areas or “capitals” to represent a stock of something which might be accumulated over time. These capitals are defined as:

- Economic capital: financial or economic effects of volunteering (e.g., improved employment prospects for volunteers);
- Physical capital: products or outputs of volunteering (e.g., increased quantity and quality of services provided by an organization through involving volunteers);
- Human capital: personal development and skills accrued as a result of volunteering (e.g., new skills developed by volunteers);
- Social capital: relationships, networks and trust developed through volunteering (e.g., the forming of friendships between volunteers and service users); and
- Cultural capital: the sense of cultural and religious identity and understanding developed through volunteering (e.g., a better understanding among staff within an organization of different faiths and cultures as a result of volunteer involvement).

The Toolkit encourages managers of volunteers to consider the broad range of impacts volunteers could have and to then decide which stakeholder groups and impacts are priorities to measure. Thinking about the different capitals helps to

categorize impacts in a logical, structured, and useful way while also ensuring that less obvious benefits (such as the impact of volunteering on cultural identity) are not forgotten. To illustrate, Figure 1 shows some of the potential impacts of volunteering on volunteers under each of the five capitals. For each stakeholder group, there are series of tools including questionnaires and focus group topic guides which are designed to reflect the five capitals. For example, if a manager of volunteers wanted to ask service users what impact volunteering had on them, they would find specific questionnaires and other tools that may can be adapted (a CD Rom with all of the tools is provided in the toolkit). The questionnaires use a five- point attitudinal scale to reflect potential positive and negative impacts and changes of volunteering. Figure 2 shows an example of questions that could be used with volunteers to measure human capital assets. Once a manager of volunteers has identified which stakeholders and impacts to focus upon, the Toolkit guides them through (1) possible methods and tools that could be used in conducting the impact assessment, (2) how to conduct the assessment, and (3) how to analyse the results, and ultimately provides suggestions of how to present and disseminate the results.

Using the Toolkit

Volunteer involving organizations have used the Toolkit for a number of different (and often, multiple) purposes. Most commonly, managers of volunteers have drawn on the results of impact assessments to inform the development of their volunteering programs and to provide evidence on the impact of volunteering to existing or potential funders. Commenting on this, one manager of volunteers who has used the toolkit to assess the impact of volunteering in their hospice recently noted, “We had never done anything to measure

our services on the voluntary side. There was lots of feeling that we provided a good service, that it was well supported and well thought of but there was nothing measurable.” Similar comments have been made by other managers of volunteers who have recognised the need to demonstrate in a more systematic and transparent way the difference volunteering is making. Commenting on their use of the toolkit, one

Volunteer Centre manager said, “It’s enabled us to have some hard statistics to back up the things we’ve always said but it’s also opened our eyes to things we didn’t know.” Other organizations have used the results of their volunteering impact assessments to provide feedback to volunteers, to recruit new volunteers, and to raise the profile of their program and organization.

Figure 1. Potential impacts of volunteering on volunteers using the five capitals framework

Economic Capital	Physical Capital	Human Capital	Social Capital	Cultural Capital
The economic benefits and costs of volunteering to volunteers	Products/outputs gained by volunteers	Personal development and skills gained by volunteers	Social relationships, networks and trusts developed by volunteers	Development of cultural and religious identity and understanding by volunteers
Specific examples of possible impacts on volunteers				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Access to free training • Increased earning power • Financial costs through being out of pocket 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Training courses • Social events 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased confidence and self esteem • Increased skills base • Improved health and well being 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased contacts and networks • Increased sense of trust in others • Increased involvement in local activities 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Increased sense of community, faith or religious identity • Increased participation in cultural activities

Figure 2. Sample Toolkit questions assessing potential human capital

2. Listed below are some of the ways that people gain personally from being a volunteer. Have any of the following increased or decreased for you? Please tick the box that applies to you.

	A	B	C	D	E	F
	Increased greatly	Increased	Stayed the same	Decreased	Decreased greatly	Not relevant

<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="border: 2px solid red; border-radius: 50%; width: 20px; height: 20px; margin-right: 5px;"></div> <div style="font-size: 0.8em;"> a) My personal development (e.g. confidence, self-esteem, self-management) </div> </div>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="border: 2px solid red; border-radius: 50%; width: 20px; height: 20px; margin-right: 5px;"></div> <div style="font-size: 0.8em;"> b) My skills-base (e.g. from teamwork through to computer literacy) </div> </div>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>
<div style="display: flex; align-items: center;"> <div style="border: 2px solid red; border-radius: 50%; width: 20px; height: 20px; margin-right: 5px;"></div> <div style="font-size: 0.8em;"> c) My general health and well-being </div> </div>	<input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/> <input type="checkbox"/>

Issues and Challenges

Undertaking volunteering impact assessments is not without challenges. The Toolkit aims to save managers of volunteer resources and time by providing guidance and templates which can be taken and adapted. However, the exercise can be time intensive, and it may be necessary to take a piecemeal approach to impact assessment. Rather than try to assess the impact of volunteering on every stakeholder in one attempt, volunteer organizations may look to undertake their assessments gradually over time. Managers of volunteers are encouraged to integrate impact assessments into volunteer programs (and build in resources accordingly) rather than they being an add-on, ad hoc exercise.

It is also vital for organizations to learn from volunteering impact assessments and understand that they are not merely an exercise to be undertaken to satisfy funders and regulators. Organizations that have used the Toolkit have been able to utilize the results of impact assessments to improve programs as well as to demonstrate to volunteers, service users, and the wider community the impact of their programs.

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About the Author

Joanna Stuart is Head of Research at the Institute for Volunteering Research (IVR) in the UK. She is primarily involved in managing and undertaking research on volunteering, including most recently a large scale study exploring the capacity of organisations to involve and manage volunteers. Joanna leads the Institute's volunteering impact assessment work, providing training and support to organisations looking to measure the impact of volunteering. Before joining IVR, Joanna worked with the University of Westminster in the UK as a Research Fellow on issues relating to social exclusion and community participation in decision-making.

Health and Safety Guidelines for Employee Volunteering Programmes in New Zealand

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Abstract

Formalised employee volunteering has arrived and is growing in New Zealand. In many instances this involves groups of employees undertaking projects which may involve skills, equipment, and/or settings quite different from their usual workplaces. There are special health and safety issues involved and the question has been asked as to whether the participating employer organisations and the host community organisations know about and follow appropriate health and safety precautions for these situations; interim data collected to date suggest they may not be. Volunteering New Zealand is therefore beginning to develop new guidelines that may be used by employers, their employee volunteers, and host community organisations participating in these projects.

Key Words:

employee, corporate volunteers, health, safety, risk management

Introduction

As in other industrial countries, New Zealand has experienced the introduction and growth of formal employee volunteering programmes during the last few years. The practice of allowing employees time away from work, often on pay, to undertake an unpaid volunteer role for a community organisation is not new (Benjamin, 2001; Brown & Ashcraft, 2005; Pirtle, 2004). However, in New Zealand it has previously been allowed on an *ad hoc*, individual basis with the employer likely having no pre-established policies addressing for whom, how, and/or when this should be allowed.

Increasing numbers of businesses (as well as some government agencies and larger non-profit organisations) are developing specific employer volunteering programmes. These programmes may entail simply allowing staff members paid leave to work for a community non-profit organisation of their choice. However in many cases, groups of employees are undertaking specific projects as peers and teams.

Data regarding the growth in employee volunteering is only starting to be collected formally, and so is currently limited. However, annual data collected by Volunteering New Zealand from regional volunteer centres provide an indication of the growth starting to occur in such programmes. Volunteer centres are taking on a brokering role, matching groups of employee volunteers with suitable community organisations needing assistance with a project. In the two years data have been collected from New Zealand's 14 volunteer centres (Volunteering NZ, 2008), six centres in each year reported some involvement. However only four could be considered to have established and growing programmes.

The data were collected for the years ending 30 June 2007 and 2008. In both years, the number of companies participating was the same: 72. There was growth, however, in the number of projects undertaken, from 147 in 2007 to 188 in 2008 (a 28% increase) and even greater growth in the staff numbers involved:

1,500 in 2007 compared with 2,641 in 2008 (a 76% increase).

Accident Compensation Cover Raises Larger Health and Safety Issues

The New Zealand Department of Labour (the government agency responsible for policy issues related to New Zealand's accident compensation scheme) noted this increase and questioned what type of accident coverage should apply to employees being paid by their employer yet away from their normal work place while on a community volunteering project. The basic question was considering which part of New Zealand's current accident compensation scheme covered such employee volunteers. The main issue was what wages (if any) would be paid an employee during the first week of absence, if absent from work following an accident while undertaking employee volunteering and being paid for that time.

Follow-up discussions with a group of key employers involved in employee volunteering raised the question, "What is being done to prevent potential accidents, or at least minimize their likelihood?" There was recognition that specific health and safety risks existed in employee volunteering activities. For instance, it is quite typical for a group of employees who usually work in an office to go into an outdoor situation as employee volunteers, working with equipment that has potential to cause injury. Or, there are other potential hazards where they are working as volunteers.

Going into new and unfamiliar environments as employee volunteers also adds other dimensions to good health and safety practices. Employers have new responsibilities to ensure that their employee volunteers are properly briefed on where they are going and potential safety hazards they may encounter, and that they are given any special training needed for the task to be done and provided with the correct equipment if needed. Equally so, a community

organisation hosting employee volunteers has the responsibility to ensure the employer is provided with all necessary information about the project, the site where the volunteer work is to take place, and any potential hazards that could be encountered. The host organisation also has a responsibility to minimise any potential risks at the volunteer work site. The participating employee volunteers must accept responsibility for following the guidelines provided in preparation for the volunteer project and to work in a safe manner.

Development of Employee Volunteering Health and Safety Guidelines

However, the discussion group acknowledged that these steps might not always be followed. There was no data on whether companies involved in employee volunteering were using any special health and safety guidelines for their employee teams. There was agreement that guidelines which could be used by any organisation participating in employee volunteering would be of value, and that such guidelines should cover the responsibilities of the employer, their employee volunteers, and the host community organisations.

As a first step, there needed to be a better understanding of what was currently happening. Volunteering New Zealand has thus been conducting an on-line survey seeking responses from companies and other organisations participating in employee volunteering. Survey questions include one asking if the company has formalised health and safety guidelines for the employee volunteering programme. While the survey is still underway, the clear majority of respondents to date do not have any such guidelines. This in itself indicates a need for and critical value in developing guidelines which establish key principles and procedures to be followed by employers, their employee volunteers, and host community organisations.

Volunteering New Zealand will undertake the development of the guidelines, working in conjunction with those who have been involved in employee volunteering programmes including volunteer centres, participating companies, host community organisations, and individual employees who have participated in volunteer projects. Legal aspects will need to be reviewed and input will be sought from the Occupational Safety and Health unit in the Department of Labour. It is envisaged that the guidelines will be printed in limited numbers yet made available online through the Volunteering New Zealand website, with links to other websites likely to be accessed by those needing this information. Funding to meet the costs of the project has been made available by Mobil Oil New Zealand who assisted Volunteering Australia in producing a similar resource a few years ago. The guidelines are expected to be published by the end of 2009.

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About the Author

Tim Burns became the first full time Executive Director of Volunteering New Zealand in May of 2005. He has brought to the position extensive experience in the management of national organisations, public communications, and government relations. He has also been a volunteer over many years, mainly in governance and committee roles but also in sports and church activities. One of these roles was chairing the establishment committee and serving as foundation President of Hospice New Zealand, the national organisation for hospices and palliative care services in New Zealand.

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**Altruism or Self-Actualisation?
Disabled Volunteers' Perceptions of the Benefits of Volunteering**

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Abstract

Since the election to the British Government of "New Labour" in 1997, voluntary action and volunteering have become highly political issues. Despite this, volunteerism amongst the disabled population remains a largely invisible phenomenon. This paper aims to address this issue by drawing attention to the various beneficiaries of the voluntary activities of a group of wheelchair-users volunteering within different organizational settings within Great Britain. The paper then offers practical guidance for managers of volunteers about the management of disable volunteers.

Key Words:

motivations, disabilities, volunteerism, United Kingdom

Introduction

Since the election to the British Government of "New Labour" in 1997, voluntary action and volunteering have become highly political issues (National Council for Voluntary Organisations, 2002; Brown, 2005) with numerous government-backed scheme, such as the current "year of the volunteer" initiative, aimed at promoting volunteering amongst various sections of the community across the United Kingdom (Nausbaum, 2005). Despite such initiatives, volunteerism amongst the disabled population remains a largely invisible phenomenon. This paper aims to address this issue by drawing attention to the various beneficiaries of the voluntary activities of 47 wheelchair users volunteering within different organizational settings in the UK.

Although there exists a considerable amount of literature analyzing the individual and collective motivations of volunteers

(Liao-Troth & Dunn, 1999; Wardell, Lishman, & Whalley, 2000), very few studies have identified benefits of volunteering that are not associated with motivation. Whilst not focusing specifically upon the benefits of volunteering, studies by Hustinx and Lammertyn (2004) and Hadden (2004) both suggest that volunteering benefits the individual volunteers themselves, the organizations in which they are engaged, and the different communities in which the voluntary work occurs. However, there have been no previous studies focusing solely upon the experiences of physically disabled volunteers. By focusing upon the experiences of wheelchair users who volunteer, this paper aims to address this issue; furthermore, it is hoped that by drawing attention to the positive aspects of the volunteerism of disabled people, the paper will also raise awareness of what is, on the whole, an "invisible" group of volunteers; and will this encourage

volunteer managers to actively recruit more disabled volunteers.

The Study

Following an approach based upon grounded theory methodology (Glaser & Strauss, 1968), a total of 50 people were interviewed during the course of the study, 47 of whom were wheelchair users who volunteered (three were non-disabled managers of volunteers). All of the disabled volunteers, (from hence referred to as the volunteers), used a wheelchair whilst volunteering.

During the course of the study the volunteers discussed their activities in a total of 41 different voluntary and public sector organizations. The interviews, which were semi-structured in nature, concentrated on three main themes: volunteering and volunteerism, disability and volunteering, and the management of disabled volunteers.

Findings: Benefits of Volunteering

In many respects the main beneficiary of the voluntary activities discussed during the interviews was often seen to be the individual volunteer being interviewed. The four other beneficiaries also identified during the course of the study were: Other disabled people; The general public; The organizations in which the volunteers were engaged; and, External organizations, agencies and projects.

In addition to drawing attention to the fact that volunteers themselves are beneficiaries of the volunteer activities identified, the study also highlights the nature of the benefits received and the means by which such benefits were channeled.

All but two of the volunteers described how they personally benefited from their activities. Such benefits were primarily twofold and described in terms of

being either psychological or functional in nature.

Psychological Benefits

For many of the volunteers the most tangible personal benefit of volunteering was a belief that it has a positive impact on their personal psychological well-being and mental health: "Mentally I think it's definitely had an effect. It's given me an interest . . ." (Angela). "Yes. It keeps me alive, keeps me interested. It's stimulating . . ." (Pat).

Others articulated the psychological benefits of volunteering in terms of increased self-esteem and self-worth: "Yes, it makes me feel great. Not useless. If I didn't do it I'd feel useless . . ." (Harry). "It gives me self worth really. . . . It gives me something to get up for . . ." (Emily).

It was evident that one of the psychological advantages of volunteering was enjoyment: "I find the more I do the more I enjoy. . . . I'm helping myself by helping others." (Doug). "I love it. I enjoy it. I enjoy meeting people . . . getting out there . . ." (David).

Psychological benefits associated with improved mental health and increased self-esteem were identified by almost all of the volunteers. However, for many, such individually-experienced benefits were perceived in terms of their previous work experiences and were thus more functional in nature.

Functional Benefits

Some of the younger volunteers had never been able to secure paid employment. For such volunteers one of the main benefits of volunteering was that it provided an enjoyable substitute for paid work: "I can't do a paid job... I thought volunteering was the next best thing . . ." (Emily). "It's very challenging...I'd like to do it full-time but I'm trapped . . ." (Robert).

The majority of the volunteers had, however, previously worked full-time. For these individuals, volunteering filled the personal void that is indicative of extended periods of unemployment and prolonged economic inactivity often forced upon those living with a chronic health condition or disability. For such people volunteering replaced paid work: "I felt as if I had to keep my mind occupied. I couldn't just sit at home and do nothing. . . ." (Jack). "After I finished work I was looking for something to do. Full-time work became very difficult . . ." (Alan).

Like Alan and Jack, many of the volunteers viewed their activities as being analogous to paid employment—providing them with the opportunity to maintain work-related skills: "I didn't want to lose my counselling [SIC] skills so I decided to volunteer... I know we give a good service, it's been beneficial to me" (Christine). Christine's assertion that she benefited from the service provided by the organization, in which she was engaged, mirrored the self-help philosophy of that organization. Like Christine, many of the volunteers were involved in activities manifested by notions of self-help and social reciprocity (Titmuss, 1970; Reynolds & Stone, 1999).

Benefits for Other Physically Impaired People

Self-help Activities

The belief that by volunteering they were helping others in a similar position was expressed by many of the volunteers: "We provide transport for disabled people. I use the service myself. . . ." (Jackie).

Another discussed how he had trained as a "disability benefits advisor" after benefiting from such a service himself: "[The organization] helped me through the most traumatic period of first becoming disabled . . ." (Andrew).

One of the most tangible services

offered by the volunteers involved peer counseling: "I like to encourage people to look beyond themselves, their wheelchair . . ." (Diane). "It's about confidence, people who become disabled need to regain their confidence . . ." (Angela).

Several of the organizations of disabled people that were visited during the study were originally founded on a self-help basis. Such organizations provided many of the volunteering opportunities undertaken by the volunteers—who reciprocated by providing services for other disabled people.

Advocacy and Volunteerism

Although none of the volunteers were directly involved as advocates, the services offered by some were of an advocacy nature: "When times get tough and I feel I can't do this, I think I've got to, there's 13,000 wheelchair users out there in the country . . ." (Jo). "I'm also trying to get public transport more accessible, . . . trying to help others get out and about . . ." (Henry).

One volunteer believed his political position afforded him an advocacy and representative role: "I won't be beaten. I want to help people with disabilities. My position [as a local politician] allows this." (Boris).

The perception that by volunteering, individual volunteers were making a positive impact on the lives of other disabled people was constantly repeated; many also believed that their activities benefited the wider communities in which they were engaged.

Benefits for the Wider Community

Those not involved within disability-oriented organizations volunteered in some capacity with either children or adults; none were engaged in environmentally-focused activities.

Children and Young People

Five of the volunteers undertook activities that involved working with children and young people. One assisted during history lessons: "The important thing is that I talk to children about an entirely different thing. It's historical . . ." (Shaun). Another described how children benefited from one-to-one attention whilst reading: "I try and sit where I can see what they're reading and I help with the difficult words . . ." (Liz). One of the volunteers, a community-based outreach youth worker, believed his voluntary activities had wide-reaching benefits for the young people to whom he offered support: "Instead of them stealing cars, or whatever, I'll say to them 'Are you interested in mechanics?' . . . If they are I'll get them on a course that's working with cars . . ." (Robert). Robert believed that by diverting the youngsters' attention away from crime and by offering them non-judgemental and empathetic support, he was benefiting the whole community through his voluntary work.

Adults

The majority of the volunteers involved provided welfare, advisory, and educational services to adults within their own communities. From one volunteer's perspective, the skills she had acquired during her previous employment as a human resources manager benefited both of the adult students with whom she volunteered: "I've found that this situation takes every ounce of my experience . . . the students understood where I was coming from . . ." (Jean). Like Jean, several of the other volunteers felt that their employment-related skills benefited the organizations in which they were engaged; thus, the fourth beneficiary of the volunteers' activities identified within the study were the organizations in which they were engaged.

Organizational Benefits: Volunteers' Own Organizations

The organizational benefits of volunteerism are reflected in the academic literature (McCurley & Lynch, 1998). From the perspectives of the disabled volunteers interviewed as part of the study, such benefits were indicative of the employment and life-related skills they felt able to bring to volunteering activities.

Employment Related Skills

Many of the volunteers had previously held highly skilful and responsible occupations. As such the skills they were able to bring their organizations varied greatly. One volunteer described how her financial expertise enabled her to become the treasurer of her organization: "Because I have skills, bookkeeping skills, it's natural that I should become involved as treasurer . . ." (Julie). Another believed her organization benefited from the practical skills she was able to offer: "I'm computer-literate. I was a typist previously, which helps. I'm good on the telephone . . ." (Pat). Other employment-related skills offered by the volunteers included management, accounting, nursing and physiotherapy.

Life Experience and Disability

For one volunteer, a woman who had been disabled during childhood by poliomyelitis, her own life experiences enabled her to empathise with and encourage the disabled service-users of the organization in which she volunteered: "Basically it's about being myself. Being able to share my experiences and being able to encourage other people to have a go and get their confidence together." (Diane).

Another felt that her personal experiences of disability during both childhood and adulthood enabled her to offer a high quality peer counseling service: "I have been disabled for many years and

was a disabled child. On the counseling side, that makes a difference.” (Angela).

Such distinctive insight into what it feels like to be a disabled person was only one of the personal skills the volunteers believed benefited the organizations in which they were engaged. Others felt that the main skills they were able to offer their organizations reflected other areas of their life experience such as good interpersonal and communication skills: “I’m a people person . . . I’m very sensitive when filling out welfare benefit forms . . .” (Karl). “My main skills are my ability to communicate well with others and generally get on with people . . .” (Sarah).

Throughout the study, previous life experience was identified as being one of the key benefits the volunteers felt they were able to offer the organizations in which they were engaged. Such individual skills and experiences also benefited those external organizations and agencies that the volunteers were required to work within as part of their voluntary duties.

Organizational Benefits: External Organizations, Agencies, and Projects *Life Experience and Disability*

The majority of the volunteers were required to attend meetings within other organizations and agencies whereby they liaised with various health-care and social-work professionals. One volunteer described how he used his life experience to benefit the employees of those agencies in which he was engaged on behalf of his own organization: “I have a lot of experience dealing with officials such as social workers and health workers . . .” (Simon). Others felt that their personal experiences as a patient and service user benefited the external agencies within which they volunteered as representatives of their “home” organizations: “Mainly my skills are as a disabled person, as a wheelchair user, as a

patient, as a client” (Jo).

The nature of their activities meant that the majority of the volunteers frequently acted as representatives on behalf of their organization's (paid) management. Thus it was important for them to maintain a professional persona whilst displaying an ability to see beyond their own disability and personal circumstances.

It is evident that the benefits of volunteering varied greatly between individual volunteers and depended upon a number of factors including the type and location of the organization in which they were deployed, the sort of voluntary work undertaken, and the nature of the individual volunteer's disability.

Discussion of Findings

Having analysed the volunteers’ perspectives in relation to their volunteering, it is possible to divide the benefits of volunteering into two different areas: personal and external. The following paragraphs now consider these two areas of benefit and also draw attention to some of the perceived drawbacks of volunteering.

Personal Benefits of Volunteering

This paper commenced by drawing attention to the positive impact that the volunteers believed volunteering had on their psychological health. This positive benefit was in stark contrast to some of the negative health-related difficulties identified by the volunteers during the course of the interviews. Such health-related difficulties were often manifested by an exacerbation of an individual's disability-related symptoms, such as increased levels of fatigue and pain. From the study it is difficult to assess whether for the majority of the volunteers the benefits of volunteering in respect of improved psychological health out-weighed any negative impacts on their physical and mental well-being. However, the fact that at

the time of the interviews all of the disabled study participants were heavily involved in volunteering suggests that from their perspectives, the health-related positives of volunteerism far outweighed the negatives.

One of the main personal benefits of volunteering, which was strongly connected to improved psychological health, was enjoyment of the activities undertaken. The importance of enjoyment as a motivational factor for volunteers is highlighted in the literature.

However, for the wheelchair users interviewed as part of the study, it would appear that stereotypical views conceptualising volunteering as being a wholly altruistic activity are not totally accurate; with only one exception, all of the volunteers did so because they enjoyed it—none expressed wholly selfless motivations.

Whilst enjoyment of volunteering was a significant factor shaping the volunteers' experiences, for many volunteers, their enjoyment was manifested in the opportunity to utilise and maintain employment-related skills. For such individuals, volunteering was seen as a replacement for paid work. In this respect, through their voluntary activities, the volunteers were able to help themselves reduce any social isolation experienced as a result of their disability. Although there have been no previous studies examining the experiences of wheelchair users who volunteer, the perceived need to continue contributing to society following the end of paid employment supports previous study findings into the volunteering experiences of older volunteers (Greenslade & White, 2005; Kam, 2002).

For some of the study participants, volunteering represented an integral part of their individual (medical) rehabilitation—it helped them come to terms with disability. Social research focusing upon the rehabilitative role played by volunteering is

somewhat scarce and tends to emphasise the positive benefits of volunteerism for people with mental health problems (Lum & Lightfoot, 2005; Musick & Wilson, 2003). There is clearly much scope for further research in this area.

External Benefits of Volunteering

One of the unforeseen issues to arise out of the study was that a small minority of the volunteers became involved in voluntary work after they themselves identified a gap in the services provided to disabled people within their own geographic areas. Such social entrepreneurship was described by five of the volunteers, all of whom were located in rurally isolated areas characterised by high levels of social and economic deprivation. The organisations founded by these volunteers provided much needed social, welfare, and leisure services.

Whilst some of the volunteers felt compelled to set up a service because of a perceived lack in social welfare and other service provisions, others began volunteering because they felt the need to put something back into their communities. The high number of volunteers engaged in service with not-for-profit agencies reflects a recent growth in social welfare and disability-focused service provision within the UK by the not-for-profit sector

(Baldock, Manning, & Vickerstaff, 2003; Scott & Russell, 2001). This in itself has resulted in an increased number of services being offered by volunteers.

Conclusion

By highlighting the personal benefits of volunteering for volunteers themselves, this paper adds to knowledge about volunteering; it also contributes to disability literature by showing how personal experiences of disability may be used as a positive force to help both disabled people themselves and others within the wider

community. The paper draws attention to the distinct contribution made to society by wheelchair users who volunteer, thus contradicting commonly-held stereotypes of disabled people as solely being the recipients of others' voluntary action. It reveals that severely disabled people can (and do) make a significant and noteworthy contribution to contemporary society.

In conclusion, for the volunteers interviewed as part of the study, the benefits of volunteering represented a complex mixture of individual altruism, social reciprocity, and the opportunity to achieve self-actualisation.

Volunteering enabled the wheelchair users to address and overcome any social isolation experienced as a result of disability, moreover, the distinct nature of their previous life experiences greatly benefited the organizations in which they were engaged as well as the wider society as a whole.

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About the Author

Jane Andrews completed a Ph.D. thesis at Aston University in Birmingham, UK. Her thesis includes an empirical analysis of the volunteering experiences of wheelchair users within Great Britain (England, Scotland, and Wales).

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**Volunteering in Cultural Institutions:
A Comparison Between the United States and Germany**

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Abstract

While volunteering in the arts in the United States is already a very important factor for the arts sector, this development has just started in Germany. This research is the first to take a look at the standard of volunteer activities and volunteer management in the arts not only in the United States, but also in Germany. A quite important factor is the different history of volunteerism and the founding of the arts institutions in both countries. Negative and positive potentials as well as strengths and weaknesses of volunteer activities in the arts are focused in comparison between the United States and Germany.

Key Words:

volunteers, arts, Germany, United States

Introduction

Volunteering in the arts is only a small portion of the voluntary sector, but a very vital one for cultural institutions in the United States. In Germany there is a strong tradition of volunteering, mostly though in the social or socio-cultural field. There is also a high rate of volunteers in small arts institutions in rural areas. But very few of the higher level arts institutions in Germany utilise volunteers. The following research results aim to show the actual standard of volunteer effort in the arts in the United States and in Germany, and to describe the chances and risks of these activities for the institutions and the volunteers.

Historical Background

The history of volunteering in the United States and in Germany is

paradoxically very different and very similar at the same time. Many of the developments that resulted in the strong communitarianism in the United States arrived with European immigrants. In Germany and in all of Europe there is a very long tradition of taking responsibility for the community one lives in—to take responsibility in political and social fields. In the late 18th century, many registered societies and charities were founded, most whose sole purpose was to educate their members. A multitude of music and literature societies were founded as well as amateur choirs (Gall, 1989). Since then, Germany has maintained a very strong network of registered societies for the recreation and education of its citizens. In these societies there always has been and still is a lot of volunteering. Though Germany has a strong tradition

in volunteering in the amateur arts field and the socio-cultural field, major arts institutions have almost no volunteers. A reason for this might be that in the early days the ruling aristocracy founded most of the arts institutions in Germany (Birkraut, 2003). Every noble court had its own musicians, painters and actors. But in the 19th century there were also a lot of initiatives originated by interested citizens who founded theatres and financed opera houses. After a while, the city government partly or wholly financed these institutions. In 1918—after the First World War all noble court institutions were transferred into the hands of the state. This development has continued today where most of the major German arts institutions are heavily subsidized by the state. German arts institutions still have concerns about private money and the influence of private donors on the arts, so the government took over much of the responsibility of the single citizen for the arts. This had a strong influence on the attitude of institutions towards volunteerism but also on the attitude of the single citizen regarding volunteering for arts institutions. In the United States there has been, from the beginning, a very strong tradition to help the community. It was a vital part of the Puritan religion to take charge of one's own life but also to give back to the community. Americans are more or less still educated in this sense: "You are going to get a lot in this life but you have to give a lot back, too. (S. Stevens, personal communication 2001).

Donating money shows this, as does spending time for the institutions one cares for. This illustrates differences between the founding of arts institutions in the United States and Germany. Devoted citizens not only donated the

first funds but also initiated the support of the community and founded most of the arts institutions (Dobkin Hall, 1992). As for most arts institutions in the United States, first there was the community's wish to found a symphony orchestra and then they started raising money and hired professional artists. Support and financing of these arts institutions remained in the hands of citizens and were not handed over to the government. To this day, the citizens still have the responsibility for arts institutions; without citizen support, they could not exist.

The Research Outline

A qualitative design was used for the research. More than 60 interviews, each about one hour in length, were conducted with volunteers from arts institutions. The qualitative research was aimed at recording the engagement of volunteers in cultural institutions in the United States and Germany. The research focused on the attitude of the institutions and their volunteers to specified problem areas. It also concentrated on the evaluation of the volunteers and their integration into the organizations. The interviews were held with partially standardized interview guidelines. The main topics of the interview guideline focused on the following questions:

- the collection of data and facts, the organization and content of the individual programs
- the recruiting process
- the relationship between employees and volunteers, especially volunteers and artists
- threat of loss of positions, professionalism and responsibility
- results of volunteer activity

- introduction of management theories
- basic advantages and disadvantages of the engagement of volunteers, and,
- motivation of the volunteers.

Further interesting topics that occurred during the interviews involved the profession of manager of volunteers, corporate volunteering and the general trend of volunteerism.

The research concentrated on four types of cultural institutions: symphony orchestras, art museums, operas and theatre. In each city the institutions with the highest profiles were interviewed, i.e., in Chicago, interviews were conducted with the Chicago Symphony Orchestra, the Lyric Opera, the Goodman Theatre and the Arts Institute.

The interviewees were always managers of volunteers. In Germany, in institutions without volunteers, the person who would be most likely responsible for a yet to be founded volunteer program was interviewed. In most cases this was the head of communication or the marketing manager. In each institution volunteers were also interviewed.

Results

Based on the interviews, a variety of results has been found, some of them self-explanatory and some of them surprising. In this article, a broad overview of the general results is given.

Who has Volunteer Programs?

While all 26 interviewed institutions in the United States engaged volunteers, only eight out of twenty institutions in Germany had a volunteer program, with six being museums.

How Many Volunteers Were Involved?

In the United States, the number of volunteers ranged from 70 up to 1,600. The German institutions had between 1 and 170 volunteers. Figure 1 shows that there is no clear pattern between what kind of arts institution uses how many volunteers. Museums and symphony orchestras in the United States tend to have more volunteers than do theatres and opera houses. The figure includes all 26 American institutions that were interviewed (Museums: Seattle Art Museum, Denver Museum for Nature and History, Dallas Museum of Art, National Gallery of Art, Smithsonian Institution, Philadelphia Museum of Art, Metropolitan Museum of Art, The Arts Institute of Chicago. Opera houses: San Francisco Opera, Washington Opera, Metropolitan Opera, New York City Opera, Lyric Opera of Chicago. Symphony orchestras: San Francisco Symphony, Seattle Symphony, Dallas Symphony, Philadelphia Symphony, Chicago Symphony). There was no significant relation between the number of staff and the number of volunteers.

When Were the Programs Founded?

The programs in the United States were founded mostly in the 60s and 70s, but there were some that were as old as 98 years, founded in 1904. The existing volunteer programs in Germany were mostly founded in the 90s, the oldest founded in 1976 (Figure 2).

There are parallel phenomena here, because both countries went through hard economic times in the described periods, suggesting that volunteering often has its origins in difficult economic times.

Profile of the Volunteers

In United States institutions the

average volunteer is female, in her sixties and with a fairly well established background, education and financial situation.

Fields of Volunteer Work

Volunteers in arts institutions in the United States work in a wide variety of jobs, including fundraising, archiving, guiding or giving pedagogical lectures, helping the curator, doing translations, selling tickets, and ushering.

A clear role of the manager of volunteers is finding the appropriate job for every volunteer and not the other way around.

The research shows that American art institutions have specialized their volunteer programs in different areas:

- In theatres and operas volunteer work is concentrated on admissions and ushering. This, however, is only the case in institutions that are not unionized. Volunteers are frequently given free admission as a reward.
- The symphony orchestras engage most of their volunteers in fundraising, and in the last few years also in education. Symphony orchestras in the United States use education programs as an active tool to strengthen the bonds with the community.
- Museums focus on informational guest services and also develop broad educational activities with the help of volunteers. Volunteer guides are a special type of volunteer because of the long and rigorous training they have to go through before they start working. Guides often go through one or two years of training including weekly lectures by curators, one to

two days of library work per week, and written and oral exams. For these positions volunteers have to sign long-term commitments (for example, a three-year contract at the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City). Despite the difficult requirements and the long training period, there are waiting lists for these positions.

The six institutions in Germany that work with volunteers are museums. They engage volunteers in museum shops, at information desks and for guided tours.

Integration into the Organization

Volunteer programs are integrated into cultural institutions in the United States in a variety of ways. Some are subsumed under the personnel department (Seattle Symphony), some belong to the development department (Philadelphia Orchestra, Chicago Symphony). Some have their own department directly under senior management (Metropolitan Museum of Art). Sometimes the volunteer activities are included in the organization as special events (Oregon Shakespeare Festival, San Francisco Symphony) or in the sales activities of the shops (New York City Opera). There are many different possibilities that have developed over the years, which are not always favored by the acting managers. It is the person who initiated the volunteer program in the institution who almost always made the initial decision. Interestingly enough, once a decision about the organizational setting is made it does not change even if the initiator is no longer part of the organization and/or the management feels that their volunteer program is not located

adequately in the organization.

The German institutions also do not have uniform prerequisites. Only the Stuttgart has a job description characterizing the duties as volunteer coordination. All the others belong to the first generation that has initiated volunteer programs and are thus the precursors of these projects.

Structure of Volunteer Programs

The structure of volunteer programs plays a very important role in their success. The bigger a program gets, the better the organisational aspect has to be; the clearer the needs of the institution and the needs of the volunteers are identified, the more efficient the program is. Figure 3 shows the various instruments/processes that are used by American and German institutions. In Germany, however, these structures are often not used for the management of volunteers.

Attitudes About Volunteerism

In Germany there is a general concern that the work to operate a volunteer program is greater than the benefit. Most of the institutions do not see any potential areas of work for volunteers—which clearly illustrates that the major arts institutions in Germany are still quite well staffed. Moreover, there is a concern that the volunteers will not represent the institution properly. An impressive result from the research was the trust American institutions have in their volunteers. Most of the managers of volunteers interviewed—especially in the education and the guide programs—have their volunteers represent their institutions to all of their visitors, potential donors and customers.

In Germany, the institutions do not see potential work fields for volunteers

and thus do not see any potential volunteers either.

The institutions already working with volunteers in Germany experienced an enthusiastic response to their first call for volunteers. While expecting no more than 20-30 people, the actual turnout was 200-300 people.

Arts institutions in the United States gave no reasons against volunteerism. Most of the American institutions stated that the programs executed and supervised by volunteers simply would not exist without their support.

Advantages and Disadvantages of Volunteer Programs

Two main advantages were named by the American institutions: 1) volunteers are their ambassadors in the community and with potential sponsors; and 2) volunteers serve as motivators of a multitude of programs that only exist because of them.

Of course, the advantage of the massive financial gain of having 1,500 volunteers working for the institution without raising the personnel expenses cannot be denied.

The disadvantages were that founding a volunteer program requires an investment in time and money. There is a certain dependence on the volunteers. If volunteers stop working on a project, this results in additional work for the staff. Sometimes it appears to be easier to work with paid employees than to work with a volunteer.

In general, German institutions that already work with volunteers named the same disadvantages. They explicitly stressed the fact that time and money have to be invested in a volunteer program before it pays off.

Volunteer Manager as a Professional

In the United States, the profession of manager of volunteers has been fighting for acceptance since its beginnings 40 years ago. Many of the managers of volunteers found themselves in this job either because it was vacant or because it was the only way to be promoted. The acceptance, importance, and interpretation of the position varies greatly in different institutions. The reasons for this probably lie in the many important personal attributes that are necessary for the position of manager of volunteers: "Creating and communicating a shared vision; embracing diversity while nurturing pluralism; accepting change and managing ambiguity; acting within shared values and championing ethical behavior; linking effective, management to personal leadership; reflecting." (Safrit & Merrill, 1999)

Many managers of volunteers in the United States are aware of a wide field of professional training but don't see the necessity to participate in special training (Pirde, 2001). Networking between managers of volunteers in different cultural institutions is a fairly recent development thanks to the initiative of a few.

In all the American institutions that were interviewed there was a special, permanent manager whom volunteers could address. The positions differ, however, in the paid status of the manager, the number of staff in their division, and whether the management of volunteers is only a part of their job (Figure 4).

Only two institutions had a "volunteer" coordinator of volunteers. In the case of six coordinators, their work with volunteers constitutes only a small part of their position, and there were two

half-time positions. All others devoted themselves full-time to working with volunteers, and had up to seven additional paid staff in their division (four institutions had over five employees, and five institutions had up to three co-workers).

The manager of volunteers position has existed in the interviewed institutions from 36 years to less than five years. Seven institutions have had the position for more than 20 years. Three reported having the position from ten to 20 years, six have had a manager from five to ten years, and three have had the position for less than five years. These facts illustrate the long tradition and importance of the position in cultural institutions in the United States; they also show that compared to the social sector, i.e. hospitals, in the United States the profession of manager of volunteers in the arts in Germany is fairly young. One can also see the different attitude of management towards volunteer work in the United States compared to Germany.

Only one of the institutions interviewed in Germany had a part-time employee working exclusively with the volunteers. This half-time position at the Staatsgalerie Stuttgart was initially financed by the Robert Bosch foundation and was limited to three years (the end of 2002). At that time the museum integrated the position into their financial budget. Other institutions that work with volunteers have similar structures as in the United States. They have "volunteer" managers of volunteers and part-time positions. If you regard the newness of working with volunteers in big arts institutions, it is impressive that the few institutions actually working with volunteers also see the necessity to have at least part-

time staff that are concerned with the management of volunteers.

Implications and Follow-up

Arts institutions in the United States are part of a much more economic market than is the case in Germany. Most institutions are dependent on the relationship with the community: on their visitors through ticket sales but also on private funding through time and/or money. Volunteers are seen as a vital part of the activities of the institutions. They are the ambassadors of the institution to the community. Volunteers are part of the unique selling point that each institution has to display in the United States market in order to survive the competition. Institutions and citizens both want volunteer activities as part of their life and both sides appreciate taking on responsibilities.

The German institutions still have a long way to go. As they are still being subsidized by the government, they might be in a better financial situation than United States arts institutions. But with budgets stagnating and/or sinking, and a rough economic situation that also affects ticket sales, the institutions have to find new ways of connecting with their audience. Volunteerism might be a way for them to change old habits. Another argument is that fundraising and education programs still are not developed as much as possible. Here is yet another chance to enhance existing or create new activities, possibly with the help of volunteers.

Volunteer effort can be most effective if a strong structure is implemented before starting to utilize volunteers. It is necessary to find the right place within the organisation and to

have a maximum backup by the senior management of the institution.

For American institutions, this research allows a different perspective and shows that apart from all the success volunteer programs have, there still is the need for even more professionalism and improved networking. Long-range and strategic planning still have to be implemented as normal instruments for volunteer programs. The level of volunteering in the arts accomplished so far has to be the starting point for even higher efforts.

Note: The author thanks Susan Ellis, Connie Pirtle, and Sydney Stevens for their input through personal interviews in 2001.

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About the Author

Gesa Birnkraut, Ph.D. earned a Masters in Business Administration and Arts Management and researched the topic of volunteering in arts institutions, comparing the United States and Germany in her doctoral dissertation. She was general manager of the Institute for Arts and Media Management in Hamburg, Germany and launched her own consulting company for arts management and volunteer management in 2004.

Figure 1. Number of volunteers in the different programs of the interviewed institutions.

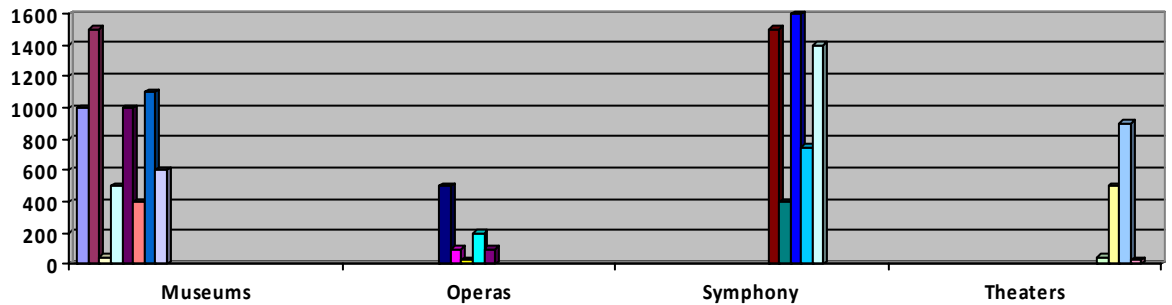


Figure 2. Number of volunteer programs founded over the years.

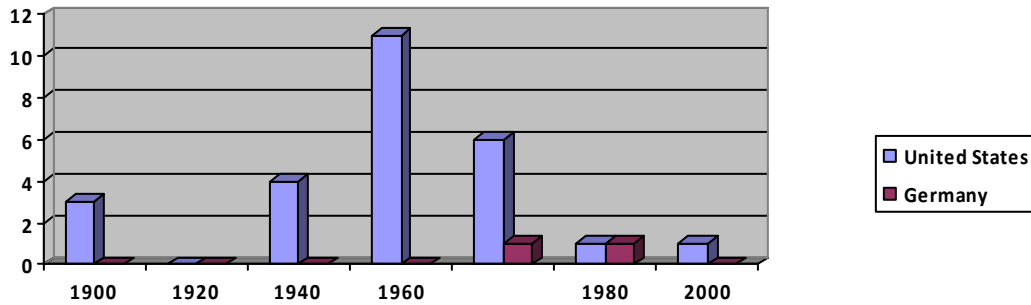


Figure 3. Percentage of volunteer programs using the described instruments

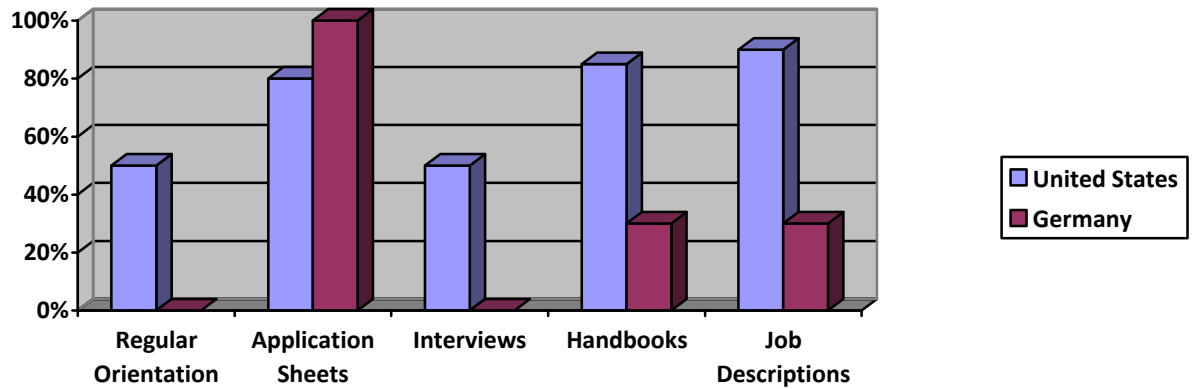
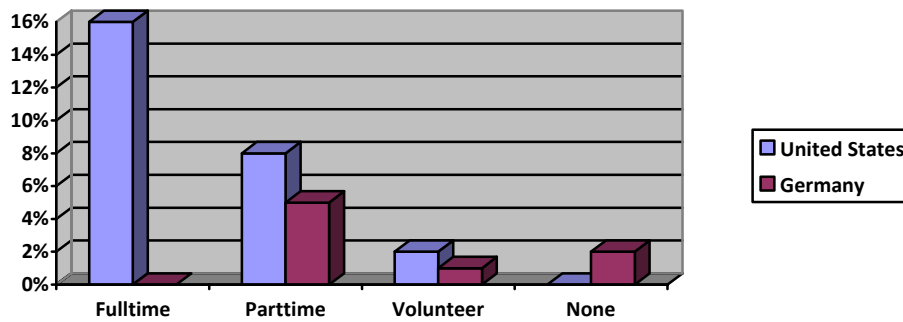


Figure 4. Percentages of institutions that employ managers of volunteers.



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What Coordinators of Palliative Care Volunteers in New Brunswick, Canada Have to Say about their Programs, Themselves, and their Program Management Practices

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Abstract

Face-to-face interviews were conducted with the coordinators of 13 palliative care volunteer programs in New Brunswick, Canada in order to obtain information about (1) their programs; (2) themselves; and (3) their program management practices. Palliative care programs have been providing volunteer support services to patients and families in New Brunswick since the mid-1980's. The majority of the palliative care volunteer programs in the province are hospital-based and hospital-funded. All of the volunteer coordinators who took part in this study were women and the majority of them (69.2%) had a university degree. Eight of the 13 coordinators (61.2%) were general volunteer coordinators/managers, for whom the palliative care program was only a small component of their job; 6 of the 13 coordinators (46.2%) were part-time. There was a huge range in the number of paid hours per week coordinators worked (4 to 37.5 hours) and the hourly rate of pay for their position (CAD\$12 - \$30 per hour). The findings also revealed considerable differences in terms of the training of volunteers, volunteer duties, etc., highlighting the need for the development of provincial (or national) standards for volunteers in palliative care to ensure consistent and high-quality end-of-life care.

Key Words:

palliative care, hospice volunteer, program management

The Canadian Hospice Palliative Care Association (CHPCA, 2002) defines hospice palliative care as care that "aims to relieve suffering and improve the quality of living and dying" (p. 17). The philosophy of hospice palliative care (referred to as "palliative care" in the remainder of this article) emphasizes care that not only

addresses the physical needs of dying persons, such as pain control and symptom management, but also the emotional, social, spiritual, cultural, and practical needs of patients and families who are living with a life-threatening illness. In addition to the help and support provided, for example, by doctors, nurses, social workers, spiritual

advisors, complementary therapists, family members, home support workers, neighbours, and friends, trained volunteers are an indispensable part of Canadian palliative care.

Across Canada, there are approximately 650 palliative care programs, with many of these offering training programs for volunteers (CHPCA, 2004). The work these volunteers do is very important and can make a real difference in the lives of the patients and families they support. The volunteer role may include accompanying patients to hospital or doctor appointments, reading to the patient, listening to life stories, helping the patient with letter writing, providing respite breaks to family members, and so on (Black & Kovacs, 1999; Brazil & Thomas, 1995; Downe-Wambolt & Ellerton, 1986), although often it is not “doing” but “being” (i.e., being a quiet presence or simply holding the patient’s hand) that is most important.

Volunteers play a vital role in supporting patients and families and are often in a better position to spend more time with families and their dying loved ones than most of the other members of the palliative care team (e.g., doctors, nurses) (Briggs, 1987). The volunteers, in turn, are supported in their work by the coordinator of volunteers (sometimes called the volunteer manager or director of volunteers). Although there have been studies conducted to identify the role of palliative care volunteers (e.g., Brazil & Thomas, 1995; Downe-Wambolt & Ellerton, 1986), there is a lack of research to understand the work done by the coordinators of palliative care volunteers.

Typically, the coordinator of volunteers is responsible for, among other things, recruiting and training volunteers, assigning volunteers to patients, and providing ongoing support and training

opportunities. Other responsibilities include receiving palliative care referrals, overseeing the running of the palliative care office, community relations (e.g., speaking engagements), and meeting with board members (Rothstein & Rothstein, 1997). As Doyle (2002) states, the work of the coordinator “calls for managerial, organizational, and leadership skills and an informed and profound understanding of hospice and palliative care, how it is provided and who its patients and providers are” (p. 7). The coordinator also provides a link between the volunteers and the other members of the palliative care team “and must assume responsibility for keeping information flowing” (Lafer, 1991, p. 165).

Given the aging of Canada’s population, and the increasing number of Canadians facing a life-threatening illness, the demand for effective palliative care services is going to grow. According to the CHPCA (2004), more than 220,000 Canadians die each year, with an estimated 160,000 of these needing palliative care services. According to a 2001 report prepared by Hospice Saint John and the New Brunswick Hospice Palliative Care Association (NBHPCA), over 6,000 people in New Brunswick die annually and over 4,000 of these deaths are the result of a life-threatening illness.

At the present time, very little is known about the palliative care programs in New Brunswick that offer volunteer support. The purpose of this research was to produce a general picture of the palliative care volunteer programs in New Brunswick and to understand who the coordinators of these programs are and what they do in their work. This was done by visiting and conducting one-on-one interviews with the coordinators of these programs in order to obtain information about (1) their programs; (2) themselves; and (3) their program management practices.

Method

The Context

In 2002, a list of palliative care volunteer programs in New Brunswick was compiled by (1) contacting hospitals in New Brunswick's seven health regions; (2) searching the CHPCA's directory of hospice palliative care services in New Brunswick; (3) placing a news item in the NBHPCA's fall 2002 newsletter, inviting coordinators of volunteers who had not been contacted regarding the study to get in touch with the first author; and (4) word of mouth. A total of 14 palliative care volunteer programs were identified. Thirteen of the 14 coordinators of volunteers (92.9%) were visited and interviewed about their programs, themselves, and their management practices; one coordinator was not available for interview.

Procedure

All 13 coordinators of volunteers (referred to as "coordinators" in the remainder of this paper) were interviewed in person; all interviews were tape recorded and the interview responses were transcribed verbatim. The interviewer, a former coordinator of palliative care volunteers, traveled to the participants' offices to conduct the interviews. The main topics covered during the face-to-face interview included (1) description of the palliative care volunteer program (e.g., how long the program has been running, how it is funded, number of clients/families helped per year, number of volunteers); (2) the coordinators themselves (e.g., educational background, their role as coordinator, what is the most/least rewarding part of their work); and (3) their management practices (e.g., recruitment, screening, training).

Participants

The 13 coordinators were all females, with a mean age of 47.5 years (SD

= 12.3). The youngest coordinator was 27 years old; the oldest was 76 years old. Nine of the 13 coordinators (69.2%) had a university degree and four did not. The mean length of service as coordinator was 5.8 years (SD = 5.2), with a range of 1 to 15 years. Eight of the 13 coordinators (61.5%) were responsible for all of the volunteer programs in the hospital, while five (38.5%) were responsible for the palliative care volunteers only.

Nine of the 13 palliative care volunteer programs (69.2%) are funded by the hospitals in which they are based and are part of the hospital's general volunteer programming. Of these programs, eight of the coordinators are general coordinators of volunteers and oversee all of the voluntary services in the hospital. Six of these nine coordinators work full-time; two work part-time and one is unpaid. For most of the full-time general coordinators, it was difficult for them to say how many of their paid hours were spent specifically coordinating palliative care volunteers (e.g., "the palliative care program is only one small component of my job"). Of the four non-hospital-funded palliative care volunteer programs, one coordinator works full-time, two work part-time, and one is paid for four hours per week. Hourly rates of pay for the coordinator's position ranged from CAD\$12-\$30 per hour. In addition to their paid hours, nine of the 13 coordinators indicated that they also put in volunteer hours in palliative care (between 1 and 20 hours per week).

Results and Discussion

Palliative Care Volunteer Programs in New Brunswick

Based on the responses of the coordinators, the oldest palliative care volunteer programs in the province of New Brunswick are Hospice Saint John, which has been running "since 1984" and Hospice

of Charlotte in St. Stephen (which started in “1984 or 1985”). The newest palliative care volunteer program is located at the Miramichi Regional Hospital (which had been running for about a year at the time of the interview). Some of the coordinators were not certain when their palliative care volunteer programs started running.

The coordinators of the hospital-funded programs are not under pressure to raise funds in order for their programs to continue. Three of the four non hospital-funded programs (23.1%) have their offices based at their local hospital, but are run independently and are responsible for raising funds themselves from the community and through charitable donations. The other non hospital-funded program operated out of a crisis centre. When asked if there was money in the budget for themselves and their volunteers to attend conferences and workshops, 12 of the 13 coordinators (92.3%) said “yes”, although most qualified their answer by adding, for example, “it’s a very limited budget.”

Not all of the coordinators could answer the question concerning the number of patients/families helped per year. For those who could, estimates ranged from between 10 and 200 patients/families per year. The mean number of active palliative care volunteers in the 13 programs was 21.1 (SD – 16.5), with a range from 6 to 70.

Eleven of the 13 coordinators (84.6%) indicated that, when a patient has died, their program offers some kind of bereavement support service to family members either directly or through another program – bereavement support is emotional support to help the bereaved. This can be offered in different ways, for example, a volunteer offering an empathic ear, sending a letter of condolence, sending a letter or card on significant dates, making follow-up phone calls to the family to find out how

they are doing, attending memorial services, or making a referral to a social worker or psychologist. Four programs offer support through group work, with a further three coordinators stating that plans for a bereavement support group were “in the pipeline”; two coordinators said that their program did not offer bereavement support.

Coordinators were asked if their program was able to meet the needs of clients from other cultures and backgrounds (New Brunswick has English, French and Native Canadian cultures). Specific concerns raised by some of the coordinators included the lack of French-speaking volunteers (about one-third of the people who live in New Brunswick are French speaking) and native volunteers. Six of the 13 coordinators (46.2%) said “yes,” their program does meet the needs of clients from other cultures and backgrounds (e.g., “we do have several bilingual volunteers,” “we have people to talk about the Micmac culture, etc.”), while some stated that they “don’t really live in a culturally diverse community.”

In summary, the majority of the palliative care volunteer programs in New Brunswick are hospital-based and hospital-funded. In all but one of the hospital-funded programs, the volunteers are managed by a general volunteer coordinator who oversees all of the voluntary services in the hospital. As mentioned in the NBHPCA newsletter (2003), “New Brunswick is underdeveloped in the area of community hospice palliative care programs, with only four community hospice programs working with the medical/clinical team to relieve suffering and improve the quality of living and dying” (p. 3). Almost half (49.6%) of New Brunswickers live in rural areas (Statistics Canada, 2005) where access to palliative care services is more limited.

The Coordinators of Volunteers

There were a number of common responses when the coordinators were asked to describe their role. These included recruiting, screening, interviewing, educating and supporting volunteers, attending rounds and meetings, “providing a link between the volunteers and the nurses, doctors, etc.,” and “making contact with the families and assessing the needs in order to make a good match between client and volunteer.”

When asked what was responsible for bringing them into this work, five of the 13 coordinators (34.5%) mentioned personal experience with someone who was dying. Three of the coordinators (23.1%) had previously been volunteers themselves. A couple of the coordinators admitted that they “kind of fell into it” and another said she had heard that palliative care “wasn’t just a job, it was a way of life.”

In response to the question about what they find to be the most challenging aspect of their work, seven of the 13 coordinators (53.8%) mentioned dealing with volunteers (e.g., “trying to make everybody fit somewhere and feel comfortable”). Other challenges mentioned by coordinators included the following: funding, especially when money is not available for volunteer expenses; recruitment; getting others (e.g., “the nursing staff”) to recognize the services as valuable; getting feedback from the volunteers, the “red tape and bureaucracy in the health care system”; families in denial; leaving work behind at the end of the day; the lack of palliative care knowledge among general doctors and nurses and staying “patient-focused.”

When asked what the most rewarding part of their work was, four of the 13 coordinators (30.8%) mentioned seeing personal growth for the volunteers, and three (23.1%) mentioned the expressions of

gratitude and thanks they receive from the families. The least rewarding part of their work, mentioned by four of the 13 coordinators (30.8%) was administrative tasks/constraints. A couple of the coordinators talked about problems with volunteers (e.g., “volunteers not showing up”).

Program Management Practices

The most common method of recruiting volunteers, mentioned by 9 of the 13 coordinators (69.2%), was word of mouth. Other methods included the following: notices in church bulletins; ads in local newspapers; and flyers, pamphlets, and posters.

All of the coordinators indicated that new volunteers were interviewed and screened prior to or after training, or both. Eight of the 13 coordinators were asked specifically about police checks. Five of these eight coordinators (62.5%) said that police checks were not done; two coordinators said “yes” and one coordinator was “not sure”. Eleven of the 13 coordinators (84.6%) said they checked the references of potential volunteers; two (15.4%) said they did not.

In response to the question, “What makes a good volunteer?”, eight of the 13 coordinators (61.5%) said “good listening skills.” Other characteristics mentioned by at least two of the coordinators included compassion; the ability to be quiet, calm and present in the moment; the ability to maintain confidentiality; respectfulness; good communication skills; the ability to be non-judgmental; a sense of humour; and life experience.

Ten of the 13 coordinators were asked specifically about whether their volunteers did any “hands-on” patient care (e.g., lifting, bathing, feeding). Five of the ten coordinators (50%) acknowledged that their volunteers are involved to some degree

in physical care (e.g., “They’re given a nursing skills module and they can do back massages, foot massages”); the other five coordinators (50%) answered “no” to this question (e.g., “No, except for feeding. But they will not lift or turn or give a bath.”)

When asked how they kept volunteers on board, six of the 13 coordinators (46.2%) mentioned offering parties/social get-togethers; five (38.5%) mentioned hosting recognition events (e.g., “pins for hours”); four (30.8%) cited providing ongoing training, workshops, and support; three (23.1%) mentioned taking an interest in the volunteer’s life. Coordinators also mentioned holding regular volunteer meetings, including volunteers in decision making, good matching, and providing ongoing support to the volunteers.

The number of hours of training that volunteers received varied from 6 to 30 hours (not all coordinators could say exactly how many hours of training their volunteers receive.) One program, for example, gives a general orientation to the hospital along with videos and readings for “home study.” In this program, shadowing another volunteer for at least a couple of days is also considered part of the training. Three other coordinators also mentioned using a buddy system (e.g., “we buddy them with two or three palliative care volunteers on their shift so that they can see hands-on what the palliative care volunteers do, how they interact with the family.”) Two other coordinators also mentioned the use of videos as part of the training program, and one program relies exclusively on videos for their training. Most of the programs have a structured approach to training. In 11 of the 13 programs (84.6%), the coordinator, with or without outside “resource people,” facilitates the volunteer training. For one program, the training is given by “people from the outside” and in another, the receptionist hands out the training videos to

volunteers, who take them home to watch. Topics covered in training, mentioned by at least two thirds of the coordinators, included the following: grief and bereavement; communication; spirituality; signs/stages of death and dying; definition of palliative care; and the palliative care team/roles.

All 13 coordinators indicated that volunteers receive ongoing training and education (e.g., “we do have a few in-services every year when I can get some guest speakers.”) In seven of the 13 programs (53.8%), the volunteers serve only in the hospital. In the other six programs (46.2%), volunteers can visit patients in the hospital, “in their homes, ... at a nursing home, or the special care home.”

Of the nine coordinators who were specifically asked whether their volunteers visit everyone in the unit or if they have one particular patient that they visit, five coordinators (55.6%) said they matched volunteers with patients (e.g., “we match a volunteer with that client, usually based on religion and interest.”) The other four coordinators (44.4%) said that their volunteers work shifts and visit all patients who happen to be on the unit.

Ten of the 13 coordinators (76.9%) indicated that they did evaluate their volunteers performance; four coordinators give an evaluation form to their volunteers (for self-evaluation) yearly, two coordinators mentioned doing initial evaluations, and five coordinators indicated that there is no formal evaluation (e.g., “it’s not formal, but you just kind of keep an eye on how they’re doing.”) As one coordinator put it, “My greatest evaluation is a letter that says thank you from the families of the patients that we’ve served. Those are the most important evaluations that we get.”

Only four of the 13 programs (30.8%) included the visiting volunteer in team meetings when a client was being

discussed; in nine of the programs (69.2%), the volunteer's input was not sought. In the opinion of 9 of the 13 coordinators (69.2%), the volunteer should be included (e.g., "they are part of the team . . . they are there 24 hours . . . sometimes they know things we don't"); the other four coordinators (30.8%) thought that volunteers should not be part of the team meetings, (e.g., "because . . . it would cause problems with confidentiality.")

Conclusions

Volunteers are absolutely essential members of the palliative care team, as are the coordinators. At present in New Brunswick, however, a number of inconsistencies appear to exist with respect to the selection, training, and evaluation of volunteers by coordinators. In order to ensure consistency and high quality service, the findings of this study suggest the need for the development of provincial (or National) standards for coordinators to select, train, and evaluate palliative care volunteers. Based on the findings of the current study, the following recommendations are offered.

1. An application form should be completed by any person interested in becoming a palliative care volunteer. The form should request, at a minimum, information about skills, motivation, and what they would like to do to help (e.g., direct patient care volunteer, administrative volunteer).
2. Police checks should be conducted by the coordinator.
3. References should be checked by the coordinator.
4. An informal interview should be conducted by the coordinator before the person is accepted into the program (to screen for appropriateness).

5. A confidentiality agreement should be signed.
6. The training of volunteers throughout the province (country) should be standardized to ensure a common minimal knowledge base, e.g., 24 hours of training with a core curriculum that introduces the volunteer to the following topics: philosophy of palliative care, communication, spirituality, the palliative care team/roles, signs/stages of death and dying, grief and bereavement.
7. Guidelines should be developed regarding what volunteers are allowed to do with respect to hands-on or physical care of patients (e.g., lifting, bathing, feeding).
8. Coordinators and volunteers should be provided with ongoing opportunities for training (e.g., workshops, conferences).
9. Volunteers should be formally evaluated by coordinators on a regular (e.g., yearly) basis. Lafer and Craig (1993), for example have produced a scale of 27 descriptors of appropriate volunteer behavior (e.g., "demonstrates the ability to be a good listener").
10. Coordinators should make sure volunteers are made to feel part of the palliative care team by educating other team members (e.g., doctors, nurses) so they have a greater awareness of, and appreciation for, the important role that volunteers play in the lives of the patients and families they support.
11. Coordinators' and volunteers' input should be sought at meetings when a patient they support is being discussed.

Hopefully, the findings of this study will be helpful to others, in similar communities, who are currently involved in or attempting to start palliative care volunteer programs.

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Younger Volunteers in Sweden

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Abstract

This article reports the findings of a study of volunteering by younger persons (age 16-24) in Sweden based on an analysis of data from a 1998 Swedish survey. As in the U.S., half of younger persons volunteer based in Sweden, although the context of Swedish volunteering differs significantly. After discussing the Swedish context of volunteerism, the article presents the differences in background between volunteers and non-volunteers, as well as areas of volunteer participation, activities and tasks carried out, motives for volunteering, and ways by which volunteers become involved. A summary of the results, including a discussion of volunteer commitment by younger Swedes and an agenda for future research follows.

Key Words:

volunteers, youth, young adults, Sweden

Introduction

Volunteerism among young people in Sweden provides a conceptually interesting comparison with the United States: while the proportions of those who volunteer are similar in both countries, their distinctive traditions, political structures, and access to volunteer opportunities appear to spawn volunteer participation in different activities and areas. An understanding of how this context shapes the meaning and practice of volunteerism provides insights into the comparative differences in volunteer

behavior among younger persons. Specifically, this paper reports the findings of an investigation of volunteering among young persons (16-24) in Sweden and addresses the following general question: Given the character of the Swedish context, what is the nature and extent of volunteerism by young persons in Sweden?

Swedish Society and Volunteerism

In order to understand youth volunteering in Sweden, it is first necessary to appreciate its larger context and meaning. During 1998, over half

(51%) of the Swedish population, ages 16 and over, volunteered at least once to an organization, i.e., "work and activities which are carried out on a voluntary basis, unremunerated (or in exchange for token remuneration) during one's free or leisure time. In some circles this is also called charity work." This proportion ranks among the highest in European countries (Wijkstrom, 1997) and is slightly less than the U.S. (56%) in 1998 (Independent Sector, 1999). The definitions of volunteering in the two studies differ with specific reference to helping behavior in the Independent Sector surveys, e.g., "not just belonging to a service organization, but actually working in some way to help others for no monetary pay" (Independent Sector, 1997). Also, the Independent Sector includes informal volunteering as part of its overall measure of volunteering, i.e., "helping a neighbor or a friend, or organization on an ad hoc basis; spending time caring for elderly person or babysitting children of a friend, but not part of an organized group or for pay", while the Swedish research practice separates formal and informal volunteering.

For comparative purposes, one can identify three broad elements that differentiate Swedish volunteering: (1) the role of the welfare state, (2) the significance of organizations and associations in society, and (3) the volunteer roles of members in these organizations. A distinctive feature of Sweden's nonprofit sector flows from the country's large and comprehensive public social welfare program. Because of the expectation that Sweden's government programs will meet its citizens' social and economic needs, "...there is little room left for service-producing in nonprofit organizations"

(Anheier & Salamon, 1999). Instead, they are more likely to be found in the areas of culture and recreation, education (e.g., folk and adult schools) and research, policy advocacy, business and labor, and housing (Wijkstom, 1997).

A second feature of Swedish society is the numerous nonprofit organizations, popular social movements, interest groups, and associations devoted to representing the interests of their members, providing services and mutual support, and/or making available members' leisure opportunities (Lundstrom & Wijkstrom, 1997; Jeppsson Grassman & Svedberg 1996). See Lundstrom and Wijkstrom for a more detailed description of the Swedish nonprofit sector.) For example, among associations where young people volunteer, members of a sports organization receive training and play on the club's team (K. Nissfeldt, personal communication, June 22, 2000); a temperance group promotes public policy restricting the use of alcohol (F. Wijkstrom, personal communication, June 21, 2000); and a cultural arts group affords its members an opportunity to participate in theatre productions (K. Rosenbach, personal communication, June 16, 2000).

The state encourages the growth of these voluntary associations (Jeppsson Grassman & Svedberg, 1996), including subsidies to 62 non-governmental youth organizations in the areas of religion, temperance, politics, disability, immigrants, and general activities (National Board for Youth Affairs, 1999). Also, most local Swedish associations are part of national organizations that serve as umbrella groups, such as the Swedish Youth Council which consists of 94 youth organizations, which provide support

and representation at the national level (Jeppsson Grassman & Svedberg, 1996). For example, the Swedish Sports Confederation includes 67 federations, each organizing one or more sports, and 22,000 local clubs, and serves as the largest and most comprehensive network of local groups affiliated with a national organization (Swedish Sports Confederation, n.d.).

The role of the member in associations and voluntary organizations is a third characteristic relevant to volunteerism in Sweden. The expectation that members devote time to their organization and are "active rather than passive" (Wijkstrom, 1997) serves as the basis for understanding the Swedish concept of volunteering. Unlike the numerous volunteers in the U.S. who frequently give time to organizations to which they do not belong and which provide service to others who also may not be members, e.g., health clinics, homeless shelters, or food kitchens, nearly 85 percent of all Swedish volunteers belong to the organization to which they volunteer.

Implications for Young Persons' Volunteering

Given this Swedish context of volunteering, we turn now to a specific focus on volunteering by young persons. Research on volunteering in the U.S. suggests that (a) dominant statuses, such as parent's occupation, income, and education, (b) family variables, including whether or not one's parent have volunteered, and (c) size of community are often statistically associated with whether or not a person volunteers (Smith, 1994; Sundeen, 1988; Sundeen & Raskoff, 1994). Also, more altruistic and prosocial attitudes tend to be associated with volunteering among

U.S. teenagers (Sundeen). Further, as a reflection of the Swedish context, we expect volunteering to be greater in recreational, cultural, and political activities and less in social services, health care, education, or more adult oriented activities, as well as to be greater in performing organizational maintenance tasks than direct service provision. Because older persons dominate many associations and organizations, we expect younger volunteers to carry out tasks, reflecting less responsibility for the actual governing of organizations.

Research Processes

The 1998 Swedish national household survey on volunteering (N = 1,104) serves as the source for the data and the statistics we report. The survey sample includes 216 persons between the ages of 16 and 24 who participated in face-to-face interviews in Swedish. The Swedish principal investigators provided a copy of the data set and codebook and an American, who received his Ph.D. in sociology in Sweden, translated the codebook.

We compare younger volunteers and non-volunteers in terms of socio-demographic background and attitudes toward volunteerism. We examine the distribution of volunteers in over 30 types of organizations, the organizational tasks carried out, reasons for volunteering, and how they became involved in the organization. We compare subgroups of volunteers in order to determine whether significant differences exist between volunteers to different types of organizations. As a means of comparing either groups or responses within groups, we employed Chi Square, which is interpreted as a measure of whether or not there is a

statistically significant association between two variables. Also, tests of significance are used in comparing the differences between proportions in the two groups.

In order to supplement the survey data with a more textured understanding of youth volunteering, one of the authors carried out interviews in Stockholm during June, 2000 with fourteen persons (recommended by a Swedish researcher). The interviewees included representatives of 8 types of organizations to which young persons volunteer and two Swedish researchers in the nonprofit and voluntary field. These semi-structured, open-ended interviews were carried out in English, tape-recorded, and lasted between 30 and 90 minutes.

Findings

Extent of Volunteering

Fifty percent of Swedish young persons (16-24 years old) indicated that they volunteered at least once to an organization or association in 1998 and devoted an average of 12 hours per month. An additional 1.4% of young persons did not volunteer to an organization but carried out informal unpaid work for others, e.g., "do you regularly carry out unpaid work (for example driving, buying food, carrying out yard work, cleaning for persons you don't live with or other people you are not related to?"). Fifty-one percent of young persons in Sweden volunteered either to organizations or informally, in contrast to approximately two-thirds of U.S. teenagers in 1996 where 23% carried out some form of informal volunteer work and over half (58%) volunteer to an organization (Independent Sector, 1997).

Differences Between Younger Volunteers and Non-volunteers

The comparison of volunteers and non-volunteers reveals that dominant status does not contribute significantly to the explanation of volunteering, while community size does make a difference. Volunteers are more likely than non-volunteers to live in a middle sized town (as opposed to smaller or larger cities). This suggests that smaller and larger cities may be slightly less conducive to volunteering among young persons than middle-sized cities. In smaller cities, there may be less apparent need or opportunity. In larger cities other leisure activities may attract young persons. There is a comparatively lower level of social capital that connects people to organizations, and/or city life spawns a higher commitment to individual interests and pursuits.

Also, a greater proportion of volunteers than non-volunteers participate in informal helping activities and express agreement with two pro volunteerism attitudes: (1) "[volunteers] . . . give something other than what paid professionals offer" and (2) ". . . engagement in voluntary work leads people to taking a more active role in democratic society." These three findings must be interpreted with caution, because the causal direction of the associations is not clear. For example, informally helping others may bring the young person into interpersonal networks that result in opportunities for formal volunteering or vice versa. A third variable, such as parental volunteer behavior, leads to both informal and formal volunteering. Similarly, the causal direction of the relationship between volunteering and the two pro-volunteer attitudes — the importance of providing something

Table 1
Percentage Difference Between Younger Volunteers and Non Volunteers (16-24 years old)

N (total number)		Volunteers 107	Non Volunteers 109
Males		52.3%	55.0%
Education	Basic	33.6	33.9
	High School	61.7	61.5
	University	4.7	4.6
Household Income	(Median Category)	175-224,999 kr/yr.	150-174,999 kr/yr.
Place of Birth	Sweden	87.9	88.1
	Other Nordic Country	0.0	2.8
	European Country	3.7	3.7
	Non-European Country	8.4	5.5
Parents Raised in Foreign Country	None	77.6	83.5
	One Parent	9.3	6.4
	Two Parents	13.1	10.1
Place of Residence	City (large)	18.7	24.8
	Town	32.7	22.0
	Smaller Town	48.6	53.2
Extent of Parents' Volunteering	Not at all	15.0	21.1
	Limited Extent	25.2	29.4
	Certain Extent	30.8	26.6
	Great Extent	29.0	22.9
People in Household	Median, standard deviation	29.9 (1.6)	2.9 (1.5)
Children in Household	Median, standard deviation	.07 (1.2)	.07 (0.9)
Informal Volunteering		9.3**	2.8
Member of Organization (to which you volunteer)		78.9	n/a
Attitudes	Give Something (agree)	75.7**	60.7
	Moral Obligation (agree)	43.9	42.1
	Active Democracy (agree)	86.0**	72.0
	Government Has No Need (disagree)	74.8	68.2

Levels of Statistical Significance for tests assessing differences between young Volunteers and young Non-Volunteers:

*p<=.10; **p<=.05; ***p<=.01; ****p<=.001 a August 2002 exchange rate: US\$-SK 9.45

b 1. Voluntary workers give something other than what paid professionals offer.

2. Everyone has a moral obligation to carry out voluntary work at some point in his or her lives.

3. Engagement in voluntary work leads to people taking a more active role in a democratic society.

4. If the government took its full responsibility, there wouldn't be the need for voluntary work.

Table 2
Frequency of Volunteering in Types of Organizations, 16-24 Year Olds

Type of Organization	%
Sports	24.5
Cultural	10.6
Student Associations	8.8
Religious (combined)	5.1
Hobby	4.2
Political Parties	3.7
Humanitarian	3.2
Immigrant	2.8
All other areas	Less than 2.0
Informal volunteering (not to an organization or family member)	6.0

other than what professionals offer, and the significance of volunteering for citizenship in a democracy — can be either way. If treated as independent variables, we would conclude that younger persons volunteer because of these attitudes while, if dependent variables, we might conclude that one's volunteer experience provides the younger person with a greater appreciation of volunteering. Clearly, these are areas needing further research.

Volunteer Areas

Table 2 presents the frequency of volunteering by types of organizations among 16- to 24-year-olds. The most frequent areas of volunteer activity among young persons are in sports, cultural, student, and religious organizations. As in the general Swedish population, the area of sports clubs and associations accounts for the largest proportion (24.5%) of young volunteers. Examples of the myriad of sports clubs include football (soccer), equestrian, ice hockey, floor ball, swimming, and tennis, with football being the most

popular among young persons.

Considerable lower than sports, the second most frequent volunteer area — cultural arts (10.6%) — includes cultural, music, dance or theater associations, such as local amateur theater groups affiliated with the Swedish National Association of Amateur Theater and local educational programs devoted to providing cultural activities to young persons, such as *Aktiv Ungdom* (Active Youth). Student associations (8.8%), which are an age specific activity, rank as the third most frequent area of volunteering and religious organizations (5.1%), e.g., the Church of Sweden, other Christian denominations/groups, or non-Christians, rank fourth. Although the Church of Sweden traditionally has been a significant part of Swedish society, "membership is only nominal, [and] only a small minority of the population actually attend church regularly" (Lundstrom & Wijkstrom, 1997, pp. 44-45). While nonprofit sector activities of churches are probably closest to what would be termed "charity work," including social services, health care,

international aid, and adult education (Lundstrom & Wijkstrom), young volunteers in Stockholm to the Church of Sweden frequently limit their participation to assisting in confirmation classes of younger persons (Q. von Essem, personal communication, June 7, 2000). Finally, each of all other types of organizations and associations attract less than four percent of younger persons as volunteers.

Volunteer Activities

Volunteer participation assumes activities beyond solely belonging to the organization (National Board for Youth Affairs, 1999; F. Wijkstrom, personal communication, June 21, 2000). Table 3 presents the frequency distribution of organizational tasks performed by the volunteers. We also compare the young sports volunteers with all other young

volunteers as well as young cultural arts volunteers with all other young volunteers in order to examine the impact of organizational context on volunteer tasks.

As anticipated, young Swedish volunteers tend to be involved in organizational maintenance tasks, rather than direct assistance to clients or members. Most young persons' volunteer behavior focused on assisting (organization) to meet their goals through administrative and practical tasks, such as record keeping, supervising younger members, cleaning, and making coffee. Less frequently, though still accounting for 20 to 25 percent of young persons' tasks, are organizational roles related to leadership, training, fundraising, information dissemination, and other undefined tasks. For example, depending upon their age, younger volunteers to

Table 3
Volunteer Tasks of Young Persons and Among Those Volunteering in Sports and Cultural Organizations, 16-24 Years Old

Tasks	All 16-24 Volunteers (N=110)	Young Sports Vols (N=53)	Other Young Vols (N=54)	Young Cultural (N=23)	Other Young Vols (N=84)
Administration /Practical tasks	31.8%	32.1%	31.5%	34.8%	31.0
Education/training/leadership	25.2	28.3	22.2	34.8	22.6
Collecting money	23.4	35.8 **	11.1	26.1	22.6
Other tasks	21.5	18.9	24.1	13.0	23.8
Information campaigns/public opinion	20.6	13.2"	27.8	26.1	19.0
Governing boards/Decision Making	11.2	7.5	14.8	13.0	10.7
Direct assistance	10.3	5.7	14.8	17.4	8.3

(More than one task could be selected.) Levels of Statistical Significance between young volunteers to specific organizations and other young volunteers: • p<=.10; **p<=.05; ***p<=.01; ****p<=.001

sports groups assist in training, coaching, and refereeing of younger persons' teams, while others participate in fundraising, such as selling lottery tickets and assisting in flea markets, to support the club. The volunteers to the cultural organization described above (*Aktiv Ungdom*) serve as local board members or leaders of dance, music, clowns, art, and theater activities (K. Rosenbach, personal communication, June 16, 2000).

Younger volunteers are least likely to (1) serve on governing boards or in other decision making activities and (2) provide direct assistance, thus reflecting, first, organizational dominance by older adults, greater leadership experience by older members, or a reluctance to be involved in these roles by younger persons, and, second, the societal expectations that direct assistance is the primary responsibility of public social service organizations, the family, and, occasionally, the church.

While the sizes of the sub-samples are too small for extensive analysis, a comparison of tasks carried out in the two most frequent volunteer areas (sports and cultural organizations) shows that young volunteers to sports are more likely to be involved in collecting money and less likely to carry out information campaigns or provide direct assistance than all other younger volunteers. In contrast, the cultural organization volunteers participate least in governing boards and do not differ significantly from all other volunteers. Compared to sports volunteers, they volunteer to a substantially greater extent in information campaigns and direct assistance. These findings suggest that, similar to the U.S. (Sundeen & Raskoff, 1994), the general category of volunteering, while providing an overall picture, does not reveal important role variations embedded in differing volunteer areas and activities.

Table 4
Reasons for Volunteering among Young Persons

Reasons	All 16-24 Volunteers (N=110)	Young Sports Vols (N=53)	Other Young Vols (N=54)	Young Cultural (N=23)	Other Young Vols (N=84)
My personal interests or particular need	64.7%	72.5% *	56.9	81.8%*	60.0
A desire to contribute to the organization's activities	14.7	19.6	9.8	4.3	17.5
A desire to do something positive for other people	14.7	7.8**	21.6	4.5	17.5
Other	5.9	0**	11.8	9.1	5.0
The situation of a family member or particular need	0	0	0	0	0

Levels of Statistical Significance between young volunteers to specific organizations and other young volunteers: * p<=.10; **p<=.05; ***p<=.01; ****p<=.001

Table 5
Who Took the Initiative in Carrying out the Volunteer Activities?

Reasons	All 16-24 Volunteers (N=110)	Young Sports Vols (N=53)	Other Young Vols (N=54)	Young Cultural (N=23)	Other Young Vols (N=84)
I was asked to engage in this work	51.4	58.5	44.4	60.9	48.8
I sought out this work myself	48.6	35.8 ***	61.1	47.8	48.8
I was among the founders who started the organization	6.5	7.5	5.6	4.3	7.1
Don't know	2.8	3.8	1.9	0.0	3.6

(More than one response could be selected)
Levels of Statistical Significance between young volunteers to specific organizations and other young volunteers: * p<=.10; **p<=.05; ***p<=.01; ****p<=.001

Motives of Volunteers

Nearly two-thirds of younger volunteers indicate that personal interests and avocations serve as the basis for volunteering, in contrast to only fifteen percent who wish to contribute to the organization's activities. Apparently, intrinsic and/or individualistic interests in an organization's activities and values, e.g., sports, games, theater, and church, rather than a commitment to the organizational membership or to a greater collective good, serve as the attitudinal bases for a significant proportion of young persons to join and be actively involved. Also, among this group, helping others or one's family does not play central roles in deciding to volunteer. Illustrative of these findings that focus on the importance of meeting individual rather than organizational or community interests through volunteering are the following two observations: "[Young persons] are interested in sports activities, and [active

participation] is another way to be connected to one of the most important aspects of their life" (A Lundin, personal communication, June 8, 2000); "Leadership roles [in a cultural organization for children] enable aspiring young actors to become more involved in theatre activities" (K. Rosenbach, personal communication, June 16, 2000). An additional explanation is that since the majority of nonprofit organizations typically do not serve as venues for the provision of charitable services they are generally not a place to meet one's more altruistic goals.

The data comparing motivation among volunteers to sports and cultural organizations also yield statistically significant and interesting differences. While greater proportions of both sub-groups indicate the desire to follow their own interests compared to all other volunteers, the participants in cultural arts organizations are especially higher.

More than sports, which likely draw numerous young persons out of desire to perfect their individual athletic talents, cultural arts organizations attract young persons pursuing their own artistic and creative needs. Also, a smaller proportion of those providing unpaid labor for sports organizations compared to other volunteers attribute their volunteering to the desire to do something positive for other people.

Recruitment of Volunteers

Few Swedish organizations appear to have formal systems for attracting young volunteers. Typically, young people join an organization in order to participate as a member, and then develop an interest in a more active member role. They may become visible to those in leadership positions who ask them informally to take on a responsibility, such as helping out a sports trainer or coach. Other types of associations with training programs may invite young members to participate in a study circle or short course offered by the organization that will also lead to increased involvement in the group. In the case of the Church of Sweden, young volunteers who assist in the confirmation class have recently completed the previous confirmation class.

Table 5 indicates that about the same proportion of young persons are asked to volunteer as are those who take initiative to volunteer. Nevertheless, differences exist in how volunteers become involved in specific types of organizations. While volunteers to sports and cultural groups are both more likely to be asked than other young volunteers, the sports volunteers tend not to take as much initiative in finding the work. This may reflect a tendency of sports clubs to identify promising younger members,

provide them training opportunities, travel, and gifts, such as uniforms and equipment, in order to retain and encourage them to continue up the club's career ladder, and to be more restrictive in allowing others to participate further in the club's activities.

Summary and Conclusion

Similar to the U.S., approximately one-half of young persons 16-24 years old in Sweden volunteer. However, volunteering among young persons in Sweden may not be a result of dominant status; rather, volunteering emerges as a result of the social environment, including stronger networks of social relations found in its abundance of nonprofit organizations and associations, particularly in middle-sized cities, as well as the states dominance in the production and delivery of social services. In contrast to U.S. youth, whose volunteering tends to concentrate in the areas of religious, educational, and various social and human service organizations, younger Swedish volunteers participate primarily in sports, recreational, cultural, and student activities. Their responsibilities tend to focus on maintenance of the organization in contrast to broader policy leadership or direct assistance to clients/members. They also attribute their reasons for volunteering to individual interests rather than a desire to contribute to the organization or to help other people and they tend to become involved in volunteer activities either by being asked or taking their own initiative. While these are general tendencies among all volunteers, when broken down into volunteers according to specific types of activities, differences emerge among subgroups which suggest that volunteering is best understood

when seen in the organization context in which it occurs.

While the areas of volunteer activity by younger persons reflect the Swedish socio-political context, the assumed importance of organization commitment by volunteers is not supported by the findings. A recurring theme from the observations of the interviewees is that, among younger Swedes, the traditional emphasis on organizational membership and its commensurate responsibilities, such as volunteering to assist the organization in its operations, has lost some of its importance among many young persons. Referring to a perceived decline in participation in youth organizations of political parties while the general interest level in politics has increased, one observer stated, "They don't want the whole package. They might want to demonstrate, but they don't want to administer" (K. Nissfeldt, personal communication, June 22, 2000).

While the extent of this decline in organizational commitment is not clear, the respondents had various explanations. These include a decline in young persons' discretionary time because of other pursuits and interests (K. Rosenbach, personal communication, June 16, 2000); the increased commitment to narrower, single issues, such as the environment (see Lundstrom & Wijkstrom, 1997); the inability of traditional organizations to keep pace with the emphasis by new organizational forms on horizontal relationships, consensus decision making, informality, two way communication, and linkage to the larger society (F. Wijkstrom, personal communication, June 21, 2000); and the general increase in individualism in Swedish society. For example, over a

decade ago, Boli (1991, p. 116) noted a change among Swedish citizens toward "rejecting established political channels in their efforts to influence policy decisions" and utilizing more individual and autonomous means of influence. More recently, Rothstein (2002, p. 29) has used the term, "solidaristic individualism," in denoting individuals who give support to others but who also "accept that they have other, different values and want to engage themselves for different causes." He goes on to state (pp. 31- 32) that "...choosing an organization may nowadays have more to do with the individual's deliberate creation of a specific lifestyle than with adherence to an established organized ideological collective." According to one interviewee, another sign of this changing relationship to organizations — not unlike the stipends, school credit, and other material forms of remuneration for volunteer work in the U.S. — is that there appears to be "an increase in young persons who want to be paid for their time"(A. Lundin, personal communication, June 8, 2000).

While this paper has described the Swedish context of young persons' volunteering, its findings can also be instructive for the practitioner and researcher in other societies. It suggests that volunteering must be understood in its cultural-political-organizational contexts out of which come multiple meanings of the concept of volunteering, its activities and tasks, motivations, and ways of involving recruits. It also suggests that as social structures and values change so do organizational attachments that require new responses to younger potential volunteers' special interests and needs.

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