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“Programs, Processes, and Policies”

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Key Words: social capital, generations, collaboration, volunteers

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Key Words: volunteer master gardener, competencies, volunteer program administrator, Cooperative Extension

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Key Words: volunteers, recruitment, auto racing, sport

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Key Words: volunteers, community development, training, rural

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The authors describe three new distance-based graduate academic program opportunities recently implemented by North Carolina State University that provide professional development resources to any volunteer resource manager (VRM). First, five 3-credit graduate courses are described addressing critical VRM professional competencies, that may be taken for personal/professional development. Secondly, a university-based 12-credit graduate Certificate in Volunteer Management and Administration is offered that strengthens a VRM's current competencies or professional resume. Thirdly, distance Master's Programs in Family Life and

Youth Development with both thesis (36 credits) and non-thesis (30 credits) options allow a student to further concentrate in volunteer management and administration. Important application requirements and procedures are described for each opportunity.

Key Words: volunteer resource management, courses, certificate, credentials, professional development, distance education

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Harriett C. Edwards, Ed.D., & Benjamin Chapman, Ph.D.

Staying abreast of social media and networking tools, and evaluating whether they can aid a volunteer organization, are daunting tasks. Social media may all sound like a panacea, but what are the realities of fully embracing these new technologies and are there repercussions for not bringing our volunteer programs into the contemporary technological era? The authors present questions, concerns, strengths, and challenges for volunteer-driven programs and their managers and administrators in an era of social media networking.

Key Words: social media, networking, technology

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(Editor-generated) Key Words: volunteer placement, Dictionary of Occupational Titles, volunteer retention

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(Editor-generated) Key Words: breast health training, Canadian Cancer Society, health promotions training

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Volunteer Management: Implications from a National Study of Extension Professionals

Cathy M. Sutphin, Ph.D.

The author was interested in the way that volunteer administrators screen potential volunteers across the country. Surveys were distributed to Cooperative Extension professionals nationwide in order to determine their current onboarding procedures for volunteers, including the use of reference and background checks, as well as performance reviews and exit interviews.

(Editor-generated) Key Words: volunteers, screening, selection, Cooperative Extension

In This Issue:
The “Three P’s” in Volunteer Programs:
People, Programs, Processes, and Policies

A well-known cliché states that formal education in its rudimentary sense should focus upon “the three R’s” of “reading, ‘riting’, and ‘rithmetics”. Similarly, after 27+ years working with volunteers and volunteer programs in two states, and as a scholar and academician at two separate research universities, I have a mind-startling premise to suggest to our readers: when it comes down to it, there are really only four relevant, rudimentary, foundational concepts involved with any volunteer-based program or organization: 1) people, 2) programs, 3) processes, and 4) policies. (Of course, the management literature would suggest that these four constructs are not limited to volunteer-based or non-profit organizations, but likewise apply to any formal social organization.) Therefore, on behalf of the Editorial Board and Reviewers of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration*, I am very proud to introduce this issue focused upon these “four P’s” in volunteer programs.

The issue opens with four excellent *Feature Articles*. Thomas Hall and Rachel Vetter focus upon the “people” aspect of volunteerism and specifically, understanding differences between generational cohorts so as to strengthen intergenerational volunteer collaboration. According to the authors, “With an understanding of the different generations and their skills and abilities, VRMs can form effective cross-generational teams to build social capital and help communities achieve their goals through volunteerism” (p. 8). Landry Lockett, Scott Cummings, and Jeff Ripley describe basic competencies needed by volunteer resource managers working with an innovative Extension Master Gardener volunteer program in Texas. The authors conclude that “. . . the findings in this study suggest that increasing professional development opportunities related to gaining volunteer administration and ‘people’ skills such as leadership, communication and conflict resolution skills would prove extremely beneficial for volunteer administrators and their volunteer programs” (p. 15). Michael Janisse and W. James Weese explore the critical processes in volunteer resource management of recruitment and retention within the context of another innovative program: IndyCar Series Racing. They conclude that “Volunteers recruited by other volunteers tended to be the most satisfied with their experience compared to those who responded to general print or electronic advertisements” (p. 1). Finally, Amy Meier, Loretta Singletary and George Hill connect people, program, process and policy in their article regarding assessing impacts on volunteers working in a rural community development program. According to the authors, “The study results suggest that volunteer-based community development programs in isolated rural communities produce positive impacts for both the volunteers and their community” (p. 35).

Two excellent *Tools of the Trade* share valuable resources available to volunteer resource managers. Ryan Schmiesing contributes a review of the text recently published by the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration (CCVA) that addresses core competencies in volunteer resource management. Dale Safrit and Harriett Edwards describe new distance based, academic professional development opportunities being offered by North Carolina State University that apply to volunteer resource managers. Harriett Edwards and Benjamin Chapman

present a thought provoking *Commentary* identifying questions, concerns, strengths, and challenges for volunteer-driven programs and their managers and administrators regarding the use of social media networking.

From the Annals includes three articles published previously in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*, all relating directly to the current issue's focus. "A Systematic Approach for Volunteer Assignment and Retention" by John Saxon and Horace Sawyer was first published in 1984, while "Training Volunteers to Deliver a Breast Health Programme" by Merle Kisby, Marilyn MacKenzie, Diane Finkle, and Carolyn Hill was published in 1995. The issue closes with "Volunteer Screening Practices, and Essential Component of Volunteer Management: Implications from a National Study of Extension Professionals" authored by Cathy Sutphin and first published in 2004.

I join the entire Editorial Board and Reviewers of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration* in sharing this issue so that we may all remind ourselves to stop and focus (or refocus) upon the "Four P's" of volunteer-based programs.

A handwritten signature in black ink, reading "R. Dale Safrit". The signature is written in a cursive, flowing style with a horizontal line underneath the name.

R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D.
Editor-In-Chief

Editor's Note: The following article is reprinted (with updated format editions) from The Journal of Volunteer Administration

**What Makes Them Tick? Understanding Our Differences
Can Enhance Intergenerational Volunteer Collaboration**

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Abstract

Volunteer resource managers understand the need to collaborate with others. In difficult economic times, collaboration becomes critical as volunteer organizations are asked to do more with less. People today are living longer, happier lives. It is not unusual for today's volunteers to find themselves working side-by-side with members of three or four generational cohorts. Research tells us that in order to work together effectively we need to understand and trust one another; we need to be about the business of building social capital. The article explores the research and provides tips on how to build a trusting, intergenerational work environment.

Key Words: social capital, generations, collaboration, volunteers

Introduction

Collaboration is not a new concept for volunteer resource managers (VRMs), but it can be a confusing term. The words coordination, cooperation, and collaboration are often used interchangeably, but each can mean very different things. When placed on an easy to difficult continuum, collaboration would be deemed the most arduous. Ray (2002) concluded that coordination is the "least intense" of the three. Organizations coordinate when they share information with each other in an effort to improve services. Examples of coordination might include co-sponsorship of a community event or listing information about an agency/organization in a community resource directory.

Cooperation raises the intensity up a level. Things can get a little more complicated. Cooperating agencies spend more time communicating and planning together. More information is shared relative to budgets and sources of funds. Trust levels increase along with risk as organizational identities become more intertwined. An example of cooperation could be two organizations' decision to collocate to save resources for their client's benefit. However, sharing a location does not guarantee collaboration between organizations.

When organizations collaborate they "... agree to influence – and be influenced by – each other" (Ray, 2002, p.17). They

may share staff, conduct joint training sessions, or pool financial resources. Whether called coordination, cooperation, or collaboration, what is most important is that groups and individuals trust and respect each other.

Trust and relationship building are central to effective collaborative partnerships. Without trust, an organization is likely to encounter exchanges like these overheard recently by a community member, while working as a volunteer on an intergenerational community service project: “I had no idea that when we entered into this project that working with these Baby Boomer types would be so complicated” or “these young kids just don’t get it. Can’t they put aside texting each other for just a little while so we can get this done?”

Collaborative endeavors are not easy; this is especially true when they involve individuals from different generational cohorts. Collaboration can be more time consuming than working on projects independently. It can test one’s patience and challenge one’s people skills. Understanding each generation and the concept of social capital can make intergenerational collaboration easier.

Working as a multigenerational team can be rewarding on two fronts. First, collaborative activities can help stretch already tight budgets, an important benefit in these times of economic uncertainty. Second, collaboration can help build social capital by fostering trust and reciprocity, both of which are important elements of an intergenerational work environment. The central theme of social capital is that connections between people add value to society. It refers to the collective significance of all social networks as well as trust that is infused between people in the networks (Putnam, 2000).

Generational Differences

Putnam (2000) illustrated how community engagement, after showing significant up-trends in the first half of the twentieth century, experienced a marked decrease across all civic endeavors beginning shortly after the end of World War II. Although many factors may have contributed to this decline (e.g., the proliferation of television, urban flight, higher divorce rates, households with two working parents, the Internet, the pressures of time and money, etc.), Putnam placed much of the blame on the transition that is taking place as older, more civically involved generations are replaced by younger, less active, generational cohorts. Table 1 uses several measures of community involvement to approximate the extent of civic disengagement that has taken place as each successive generational cohort reaches adulthood (Putnam, 2000; Twenge, 2006).

Table 1
Measures of Generational Civic Engagement (Putnam, 2000; Twenge, 2006)

Generation and Era Born	Attend Church Regularly	Involved Civically	Feel that Most People Can Be Trusted
Greatest Generation	55%	40%	50%
Silents	42%	30%	48%
Baby Boomers	30%	20%	35%
GenerationX	23%	10%	18%
Millennials	18%	60%	36%

The numbers in Table 1 illustrate what many have sensed but could not quantify about our communities. According to Putnam (2000), across the United States, individuals are becoming less active spiritually (church attendance is down by roughly one-third since the 1960's), less engaged politically (although this seems to be changing), and less connected socially (inviting friends to the house is down by 45% in the last 25 years). These inclinations seem to be generational, although the Millennials look to be reversing the civic involvement trend. In fact, the Millennial Generation has been given much credit for the resurgence in voter turnout during the Presidential election of 2008 when 62% of eligible voters went to the polls (McDonald, 2008). The underlying question is what values and beliefs are inherent in these cohorts to warrant these changes? In order to address this, VRMs must first define who these populations are.

From a familial standpoint, a generation can be considered to come about approximately every 20 years. While the specific "born between" dates illustrated on Table 2 can be debated, the timeframes they represent are generally accepted as accurate for discussion purposes.

Today, it is not at all uncommon to have representatives of three or four generational cohorts working side-by-side on a given volunteer project. This can present management challenges for the VRM; therefore, it is important that VRMs know as much as they can about these generational groups, so that they can work effectively with them.

An individual's beliefs and value systems are influenced, to a greater or lesser degree, by the era in which he or she is born. Bennis and Thomas (2002) suggested that the social, cultural, and/or political events

that take place in an individual's life can often help mold and transform him or her.

Table 2

Common Generational Titles, Era Born, and Approximate Size (Pew Research Center, 2009)

Generation	Era Born	Approximate Size (Millions)
Greatest Generation	Before 1926	25
Silents	1927-1944	40
Baby Boomers	1945-1964	76
Generation X	1965-1980	64
Millennials	1981-2000	46

This transformation happens when the individual takes time to reflect on his or her experiences, which in turn can confirm or alter the beliefs and values that he or she holds to be true.

As generational cohorts mature from childhood into adulthood, many have common life experiences. For example, because of the broad scope of human involvement during World War II, a male born in the United States in 1920 would most likely have military service as a common life experience with other males born that year. This would not be as common if one was to consider the life of a typical male born in the United States in 1960.

In order to develop a basic understanding of generational differences, one must be willing to view each generation through a fairly broad lens. For example, the generational cohort that Brokaw (1998) referred to as the Greatest Generation was born at the beginning of the last century. This generation entered adulthood during the turbulent economic times of the Great

Depression and devastating global impact of World War II. During this era commodities of every kind were scarce, whether because of economic downturn or wartime rationing. During the years of the Great Depression, fathers were lucky to find enough work to put food on the table, while mothers stayed home to raise the children. Family and church were major influences in their lives. After Pearl Harbor, fathers went to war and mothers went to work. Loyalty, dedication, and sacrifice are values held dear by this generational cohort.

Sandwiched between the mammoth (in terms of their sheer size in numbers) Baby Boomers and the Greatest Generation are the *Silents*. Having been children during the Great Depression, and generally speaking too young to have served in the military during World War II, this generation has often felt underappreciated and overlooked. Heavily influenced by their Greatest Generation parents, members of the Silent Generation have many of the same beliefs and values. With few exceptions, members of this generation tend to be conformers who view work as an obligation of adulthood, rather than a source of fulfillment (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005).

Baby Boomers grew from childhood to adulthood under the threat of Nuclear War. It was during this era of backyard air raid shelters and duck and cover drills in school that societal norms began to change. The advent of the birth control pill provided women with a new found freedom. Many decided to put off having children until later in life. Women in great numbers began entering the workforce and/or continuing their academic careers. In part, because of these common generational cohort experiences, Boomers tend to hold values different from those of the earlier two generations. Work is important to this generation as well, but for different reasons.

Because of their numbers (approximately 76 million), Baby Boomers have always been competitive. Whether they are in the classroom or the workplace, Boomers are driven less by the values of loyalty, dedication, and sacrifice than by their competitive instinct (Codrington & Grant-Marshall, 2005).

The Baby Boomer generation values quality in all things: personal growth and satisfaction, health, wellness, and independence. Coming of age during the turbulent 60's (a time of political assassinations, the Vietnam War, and the Civil Rights Movement), Boomers tend to question, not conform, to authority. After World War II as divorce rates began to climb and social values changed, family remained important but church was replaced by education as the second of the two major influences in Boomer's lives. This was caused partly by increased federal funding for the expansion of post-secondary education across the country during the Kennedy and Johnson Administrations (Lancaster & Stillman, 2002).

Sometimes referred to as the echo that followed the Baby Boom, Generation X is much smaller in terms of numbers (64 million). Part of this decrease in numbers can be attributed to the "sexual revolution" that began in the early 60's, on the heels of the then newly developed birth control pill. Although young at the time, the social "fallout" from Watergate and the Vietnam War left its mark on Generation X. With more mothers working or continuing their education, many children came home after school to an empty house. As "Latch Key Kids", X'ers were often forced to become self-reliant at a young age. Parents were preoccupied with other matters, so many X'ers began to rely on friends for support. They became skilled at building relationships with their peers.

As a group, X'ers remember being stressed out in their youth due to their parent's insistence that they take part in many extracurricular activities. This generation came of age in an era of economic recession and corporate downsizing. Many watched their parents get laid off from jobs which caused them to become skeptical of institutional involvement. Most members of Gen X do not buy into the idea of company loyalty. Moving up the career ladder means job hopping to gain experience and pay increases. Due to increased globalization during their formative years, this group exhibits a greater appreciation for social diversity than previous generational cohorts (Bennis & Thomas, 2002).

As their parents moved from rural to urban areas in the 1960's and 70's, Xer's lost their connection to extended family. They and their friends fended for themselves, often in front of the now ubiquitous television set, until their parents arrived home for the evening. All of this helped to make friends and media the major influences in Xer's lives.

At 46 million, Millennials are the third largest generational cohort, and some studies suggest they will surpass Boomers in terms of population size if current immigration trends continue (Eisner, 2008; Pew Research Center, 2009). This is the first generation to use computers from an early age. The Internet, e-mail, cell phones, instant messaging, My Space®, Facebook®, and countless other technological innovations have always been a part of Millennials' lives, and thus have served as major influences. Along with technological advances, interactive television and a greater acceptance of individual differences and cultural diversity have helped define who this generation is and who it will become. Millennials are an active, optimistic group with great multitasking abilities. They are

ambitious with an entrepreneurial spirit. All this group lacks to be successful is the requisite life experience. They respect and admire those older than them and work well in teams, especially if other team members are from the Greatest or Silent generations (Twenge, 2006). Although Millennials are sometimes accused of being self-centered, they possess a strong sense of civic responsibility (see Table 1). Much of this stems from their involvement with service learning projects in high school (Safrit, Gliem, & Gliem, 2004). They understand the many problems of the world, such as Global Warming, HIV/AIDS, and international terrorism, and feel it will fall upon their generation to do something about them.

Volunteer Collaboration

Each generation brings different values, beliefs, and attitudes to organizations seeking volunteers. VRMs must acknowledge, welcome, and incorporate these attributes into the process of strengthening the organizations and communities they serve. This could be done by encouraging collaboration between generations by recruiting all four generational cohorts as volunteers within an organization. In doing this, the VRM will encourage local community engagement, intergenerational communication, and trust building, thereby strengthening the organizations and communities served.

Volunteer resource managers are continually asked to do more with less; at the same time they know the importance of involving all groups in organizational efforts. Therefore, how can the VRM use knowledge about generational differences to recruit and retain volunteers?

Volunteer resource managers can collaborate with those of the Greatest and Silent Generations by understanding that the core values held in high esteem by members

of these generations include loyalty, patriotism, hard work, dedication, sacrifice, conformity, respect for authority, patience, delayed reward, and duty before pleasure. VRMs can encourage involvement of this population segment by changing the image of aging (Generations United, 2010) and should refer to members of these generational cohorts as “post-career” rather than “older”, “senior”, or “retired”. VRMs should provide work that is enjoyable, meaningful, challenging and that can make a definable difference in the community by focusing on skills, experience, legacy, and creating occasions for mentorship and leadership (Nagchoudhuri, McBride, Thirupathy, & Morrow-Howell, 2005).

Volunteer resource managers should provide post-career volunteers with opportunities to network *for* the organization beyond its walls, i.e., getting out into the community and “telling the story” to others. Post-career individuals do not want to just sit around; get them active on the organization’s behalf (Hall, Schmidt, & Vetter, 2009). Consider the fact that this generation did not grow up with the technology society finds so ubiquitous today. Many are uncomfortable with technology and feel electronic forms of communication are cold and impersonal. The best way to communicate with those of the Greatest or Silent generations is one-on-one, either in person, by phone, or through a hand written note (Zemke, Raines, & Filipczak, 2000). A message that will resonate with this group is “your life experiences are valuable to us and we wish to hear your thoughts as to what has worked in the past.”

Volunteer resource managers can collaborate with Baby Boomers with newly packaged opportunities that focus on the work to be done and the skills needed, rather than on status (Hall, Schmidt, & Vetter, 2009). Boomers are competitors who

believe that success is obtained through hard work, which to them is a source of personal identity and fulfillment. Boomers who volunteer respond to job descriptions, training opportunities, proper supervision, and “soft” benefits such as free parking. Consider the individual’s skills and interests. Show them the personal and community impact they can have by being a part of the organization. Remember that education has played a major part in Boomers’ lives, so VRMs should combine adult learning opportunities with their part-time volunteer responsibilities. To keep these volunteer Boomers engaged, organizations should share the progress that has been achieved on a regular basis (Hall, Schmidt, & Vetter, 2009). A message that will resonate with this group is “you can be important to our success and we can really use your contribution to this effort.”

Volunteer resource managers can collaborate with Gen X’ers by providing flexible roles and work schedules (remember: many Gen X’ers are still raising children), embracing casual attire, and by offering a comfortable working environment. Informality is important to Gen X’ers. They initiated casual Fridays in the work place. This generational cohort is tuned into terminology, so offer technology centered tasks that they might be able to complete at home, as well as one-on-one interaction with others. Consciously engaging the use of language when describing gender, sexual orientation, class, ethnic groups, and political orientation is critical, even the use of the term “Gen X” itself is often deemed offensive. Gen X’ers are more likely to volunteer when an organization describes how its volunteer efforts will strengthen the larger community (Vetter, Hall, & Schmidt, 2009). A message that will resonate with this group is “you can do things your way here” and “our work environment is very relaxed and

flexible.”

Volunteer resource managers must also be conscious of language when speaking with Millennials about age. Terms such as “kids” or “children” should be replaced with “young people,” youth” or, “young adults.” Volunteer resource managers can collaborate with Millennials by developing meaningful positions with real responsibility that offer leadership development and peer interaction. Millennials should be teamed with members of other generations, especially those from the Greatest and Silent Generations (Generations United, 2008; Vetter, Hall, and Schmidt, 2009). A message that will resonate with this group is “you will be working in a fun, relaxed environment with experienced team members that will mentor you.”

To foster intergenerational collaboration and increase social capital, VRM’s could consider an Intergenerational Conference (Generations United, 2010). The purpose of the conference would be to bring different age groups together to confront the myths and stereotypes generations have about each other. For example, teenagers will learn not to stereotype everyone over 65 as a slow driver who has hearing problems and post-employment individuals won’t categorize all teens as reckless drivers who play loud music. One way that a conference of this sort can be developed at little cost to the volunteer organization is to collaborate with the local school system. Schools are always looking for ways that they can develop mutually beneficial links with the communities they serve (Epstein, Sanders, Simon, Salinas, Jansorn, & Van Voorhis, 2002). Schools can offer the VRM many free or low cost resources including the facility to host the conference, teachers and staff to assist with manpower, event promotion, and, most importantly, the youth

component of the Intergenerational Conference. The major benefit to the schools is developing relationships with the VRM and the newly identified adult volunteers. Most school district superintendents and principals would welcome the opportunity to collaborate with volunteer organizations that could help bring the community and schools closer together.

Vetter, Hall, and Schmidt (2009) found that there were more similarities than differences in what volunteers from different generation’s desire from their volunteer experience. The volunteers in the study shared that when working to motivate and retain volunteers, the following things should be kept in mind:

- 1) Volunteer resource managers should let current volunteers know the work they do is vital and recognize volunteers who have made a difference in the community.
- 2) Agencies that use volunteers must focus on demonstrating a need for volunteers. Volunteer resource managers should be vocal about the volunteer positions that are vacant and have position descriptions available.
- 3) For younger volunteers, offering opportunities to build skills that will enhance or advance their careers is essential.
- 4) Volunteer resource managers should focus on making volunteering for their agency a social affair. Volunteers are interested in making connections with other individuals in the community. Agencies that use volunteers have the potential to be the communities networking hub and can offer a great location for friends and family to come together for a worthy cause.
- 5) Examining the climate in an agency’s office to ensure it is welcoming to volunteers is crucial. Making sure that staff treat volunteers respectfully and eliminating interoffice gossip are a must.
- 6) Providing flexible volunteer opportunities also assists in volunteer

recruitment. Offering numerous times or way a person can volunteer for an organization alleviates issues such as work and family conflicts that may arise.

7) Finally, carefully evaluating volunteer opportunities and assuring they contain a level of fun and enjoyment is crucial. Celebrating the work accomplished helps assure continued participation.

With an understanding of the different generations and their skills and abilities, VRMs can form effective cross-generational teams to build social capital and help communities achieve their goals through volunteerism. Working with these teams and assisting them in understanding the strengths of each generation can help VRMs bridge the generation gap and lead volunteer organizations in the 21st century.

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Competencies Needed by Master Gardener Volunteer Program Administrators

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Abstract

The skills and actions of a volunteer program's administrator (i.e., volunteer resource manager) are critical factors in the success or failure of the program. A panel of experts identified best management competencies for Cooperative Extension county agents who are volunteer Master Gardener program administrators. A Delphi technique was implemented utilizing 15 county Extension agents throughout Texas. Consensus was reached on 64 competencies needed by volunteer Master Gardener program administrators. The panel placed an emphasis on "people" skills, positive attitude, management skills, and the ability to articulate Extension's mission and goals. The results of this study provide insight into effectively leading Master Gardener programs, and provide concentration points for volunteer program administrators of all types to effectively utilize their time, energy and resources for maximum impact and volunteer program success.

Key Words:

volunteer master gardener, competencies, volunteer program administrator,
Cooperative Extension

Introduction

The Cooperative Extension program in the United States utilizes volunteers as an essential part of the delivery of its educational programs (Boyd, 2004). Boleman and Burkham (2005) noted that volunteers are a valuable asset helping Extension reach more clientele, ensuring the relevancy of programs, delivering Extension

education, and interpreting the value of Extension to stakeholders.

Extension master volunteers were first utilized in United States Extension education efforts in the 1960s (Wolford, Cox, & Culp, 2001). These are individuals with an intense interest in a particular subject. After participating in educational classes to increase their knowledge, they use

that knowledge to work as volunteers within their community. They are unique volunteers who receive a specified number of training hours with a commitment to return a designated number of hours in volunteer service. Master volunteer programs provide Extension with several advantages by multiplying expertise in a subject area, building a support base, allowing agents to have time for advanced programming, enabling Extension professionals, or agents, to focus on issue-based programming, increasing self-esteem of volunteers, and providing for volunteer support to Extension programming (Laughlin & Schmidt, 1995). Extension agents are community educators who work through each state's land-grant university system as part of the USDA's Cooperative Extension program.

Master Gardeners are one type of Extension master volunteer program. These volunteers support Extension horticulture programming efforts by participating in, and sometimes leading, various educational projects throughout the year (Welsh, 2004). Master Gardeners augment county Extension agents' efforts to help fulfill the mission of Extension of providing quality, relevant outreach and continuing education programs and services to citizens.

Studies have researched various aspects of volunteerism, such as motives, benefits, reasons for remaining a volunteer, and competencies needed by volunteer program administrators (Culp, Deppe, Castillo, & Wells, 1998; Cooper & Graham, 2001; Boyd, 2004; Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem, & Gliem, 2005). Much time and research efforts have gone into developing volunteer management models such as I.S.O.T.U.R.E. (Boyce, 1971), L-O-O-P (Penrod, 1991), G.E.M.S. (Culp, Deppe, Castillo, & Wells, 1998), and P.E.P. (Safrit & Schmiesing, 2004).

Safrit et al. (2005) outlined requisite competencies for contemporary volunteer administration. In their study, data were solicited from members of the International Association of Volunteer Administration regarding perceptions of the importance of components of contemporary volunteer administration that had been identified from the literature and best practice. The result of their research was the identification of seven holistic factors pertaining to the contemporary management of volunteers comprising 62 specific competencies. These seven factors include: (a) Volunteer Recruitment and Selection, (b) Volunteer Administrator Professional Development, (c) Volunteer Orientation and Training, (d) Volunteer Program Advocacy, (e) Volunteer Program Maintenance, (f) Volunteer Recognition, and (g) Volunteer Resource Development.

Purpose and Methodology

While the studies cited do much to define the general concepts involved in volunteer resource management and subsequent competencies needed by administrators of volunteer programs, no specific competencies have been identified for administrators of volunteer Master Gardener programs. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to identify best management competencies needed by county Extension agents who are volunteer Master Gardener program administrators. The term "volunteer administrator" in this article is used to describe professionals who lead and direct volunteers in Extension, typically county Extension agents. This term is used more commonly within Cooperative Extension contexts than the synonymous term "volunteer resource manager." The findings of this research are part of a broader study conducted that determined the benefits and limitations of having a volunteer Master Gardener

program. The study utilized 15 expert county Extension agent volunteer Master Gardener program administrators throughout Texas as an expert Delphi panel. These study participants were identified as expert volunteer Master Gardener program administrators by the Texas state Master Gardener Program coordinator and were confirmed by district Extension administrators.

The Delphi Procedure

The Delphi technique is a research strategy that was employed in this study to develop consensus in this descriptive research design. The Delphi's purpose is to solicit reliable responses from a panel of experts to develop consensus regarding the answer to a specific question or series of questions. (Stitt-Gohdes & Crews, 2004). The Delphi procedure is designed for the systematic solicitation of expert opinion and involves anonymous feedback made on two or more rounds by a panel of independent experts (Alder & Ziglio, 1996). The researcher gives these experts feedback between rounds. Responses made separately by panel members may highlight new ideas, which other participants had not previously considered. Participant responses are then collated and fed back to the panel in a synthesized form in the next Round. Participants are then asked for a further response, allowing them to revise their initial position if they so desire. This process is then repeated, with the aim of each Round being to produce a consensus among the panel which yields desired research results. The goal of the series of questionnaires is to achieve consensus by allowing members to contemplate and re-rate their opinions regarding items in the questionnaire. The Delphi approach accomplishes research objectives by allowing a group of individuals to reach consensus on a problem under consideration,

without actually meeting face-to-face (Feret & Marcinek, 1999). This facilitates the exchange of information and ideas by allowing each participant to have equal input, preventing bias caused by position, status or dominant personalities. Participants can respond individually and then reach consensus collectively. The Delphi method is reliable when an expert panel has at least 15 members and is a true representation of the expert community (Dalkey, Rourke, Lewis, & Snyder, 1972). Guidelines for conducting this Delphi study followed those proposed by Linstone and Turoff (1975) and Turoff and Hiltz (2006).

Data Collection

A sequential series of questionnaires was completed by the expert panel members. Responses from each round of questionnaires were collected and analyzed. Common and conflicting viewpoints were identified, and a new questionnaire was created based upon the responses and sent to panel members. Responses from Round 1 were used to create Round 2, and responses from Round 2 were used to create Round 3. Consensus among the Delphi panel members was set a priori and defined when two-thirds of the panel members rated a statement "agree" (5) or "strongly agree" (6) using a six-point Likert scale. In this study, 15 of the original 20 experts questioned completed the entire study, so consensus was achieved when 10 of the 15 panel members rated a statement "agree" (5) or "strongly agree" (6).

Round 1

In the first round, a questionnaire was sent to panel members to complete and return, and responses were analyzed. The initial round asked the panel of experts to respond to the open-ended question: "What competencies do you need to be an efficient and effective Master Gardener Coordinator?" The panel was encouraged to

respond to this question with as many statements as they desired. Round 1 questionnaire was sent twice electronically in following Dillman's Technique (Dillman, 2000). The panel responded with 95 statements that researchers condensed to 67 to account for commonalities among them and the combining of similar statements.

Round 2

The 67 competency statements generated from Round 1 were used to create the questionnaire for Round 2. In Round 2, the expert panel was asked to rate their strength of agreement with each competency statement on a six-point Liker-type scale where 6 was assigned to "Strongly Agree," 5 was assigned to "Agree," 4 was assigned to "Somewhat Agree," 3 was assigned to "Somewhat Disagree," 2 was assigned to "Disagree," and 1 was assigned to "Strongly Disagree." Round 2 data were analyzed using SPSS 12.0 for Windows software. Descriptive statistics were used to summarize data.

Round 3

The purpose of Round 3 was to develop consensus among panel members. The panel members were sent a third revised instrument and asked to re-evaluate each statement using the stated six-point Likert-type scale. This allowed panel members to either retain their initial score for each competency statement or revise it up or down. Participant's scores were not revealed to the entire group, only to the participant who owned the score. Participant's personal scores for competencies were sent along with additional information including: (a) the mean score that each competency statement received from the panel in Round 2, and (b) the percentage of the panel that gave that particular competency a 5 ("agree") or 6 ("strongly agree") rating.

Findings

The expert panel found consensus on 64 of the 67 competencies related to the question, "What Competencies Do You Need to Be an Efficient and Effective Master Gardener Coordinator?" These competencies are shown in Table 1, organized according to Safrit et al.'s (2005) seven factors comprising contemporary volunteer administration. The competencies were organized by the researchers to align the findings with contemporary research; however, the researchers understand that specific competencies could fit into more than one of the seven factor categories.

All 64 competencies the expert volunteer Master Gardener program administrators agreed are essential for effectively coordinating a group of Master Gardener volunteers are all competencies that coincide with historical volunteer management models (Boyce, 1971; Culp, Deppe, Castillo, & Wells, 1998; Penrod, 1991; Safrit & Schmiesing, 2004). Furthermore, many of the 64 competencies reaching consensus have been identified as essential competencies for managing volunteers in previous research studies (Boyd, 2004; Cooper & Graham, 2001; Safrit et al., 2005).

The two components of contemporary volunteer administration that contain the most competencies reaching consensus in this study are Volunteer Administrator Professional Development, and Volunteer Program Maintenance. This fact points to the panel's emphasis on the importance of competencies related to the personal development of the volunteer administrator and the skills needed to perpetuate a successful volunteer program over time. The specific competencies receiving the highest mean rating from the panel are Ability to articulate Extension's mission and goals to the Master Gardeners and Respect for the time and contributions of your

volunteers. Volunteers play a critical role within the Cooperative Extension system; therefore, it is imperative that Master Gardener volunteers truly understand Extension's mission and where they fit into the public education schema. Furthermore, genuine appreciation for the work these volunteers do needs to be evident to them to help ensure their satisfaction and long-term retention.

Snider (1985) noted the importance of a volunteer coordinator's confidence, attitude, and actions for the success of an Extension volunteer program. According to the expert panel in this study, an ideal Master Gardener Volunteer Administrator would have the following primary personality and administrative competencies: enjoys working with people; a positive attitude; displays patience and flexibility; communicates well; has notable leadership and management skills, and can facilitate policies and procedures; understands Extension's mission and strategic plan, and can articulate a shared vision and purpose; inspires and empowers volunteers to share in ownership and responsibilities of the program; trusts volunteers, does not micro-manage them, and is respectful of their time and contributions; knows volunteer needs, and addresses them through training, advocacy, and resource development; and, expresses gratitude to the volunteers often, and praises them to stakeholders.

These data support the conclusions of Boyd (2004), King and Safrit (1998), and Snider (1985) that Extension programs are strongest when Extension professionals and volunteers have a partnership and a balance of program ownership and responsibility. The expert panel placed high importance upon enlisting the help of Master Gardener volunteers and giving them freedom to carryout tasks, oftentimes in a manner in which the county Extension agent would not have completed them. A fundamental

concept related to volunteer management from this panel is one of avoiding micro-managing, yet being available to provide guidance and to assure accuracy of information and compliance with Extension requirements.

The importance of a volunteer administrator's being able to plan and implement effective volunteer training was highlighted in this study. The critical nature of these competencies are reinforced by Boyd (2004) who noted that a volunteer administrator must understand the needs and desires of volunteers to effectively identify, select, train, and retain those volunteers. It has also been noted that volunteers need the guidance of administrators who can focus their efforts toward productive outcomes (Boyd, 2004; King & Safrit, 1998; Wolford et al., 2001). The opinions of this expert panel coincide well with the perspective of the Master Gardener volunteers in the study completed by Schrock, Meyer, Ascher, and Snyder (2000), in which their two highest ranking benefits provided by the Master Gardener program were "opportunity to learn about plants, soil and horticulture," and "practical classroom instruction and hands-on experience."

"People" skills and communication skills were emphasized in this study, as they were in Boyd's (2004) and Safrit and Schmiesing's (2005). These studies indicate that the enjoyment of working alongside and partnering with people is fundamental to having a successful Master Gardener volunteer program.

Conclusions

Volunteering is an act of service engaged in by people throughout the world, and it is an important function within the Cooperative Extension system. The potential for volunteers to enhance and expand the efforts of organizations is enormous; however, for this potential to become reality,

volunteer administrators must be equipped with the competencies needed to successfully coordinate volunteers. The findings of this research coincide with results of other volunteerism studies and management models both within the arena of Cooperative Extension and in other contextual applications. The competencies identified in this study as essential for volunteer administration success are similar and transferable to competencies needed for leading any volunteer group.

A key factor in the success or failure of any volunteer program is the actions of the program's volunteer administrator. If volunteer administrators desire to be effective leaders of volunteers, it is imperative they understand the competencies needed to work effectively and efficiently as volunteer administrators. Competencies identified in this study should be incorporated into professional development training and resource materials. Oftentimes within organizations, the vast amounts of professional development opportunities are directed toward increasing subject matter knowledge. Although this is essential, the findings in this study suggest that increasing professional development opportunities related to gaining volunteer administration and "people" skills such as leadership, communication and conflict resolution skills would prove extremely beneficial for volunteer administrators and their volunteer programs.

The results of this study will provide volunteer administrators a list of competencies and successful practices needed for creating and maintaining productive and impactful volunteer programs. This list will help volunteer administrators most effectively utilize their time, energy, and resources for maximum efficacy and program success. Furthermore, these findings will aid hiring supervisors

when interviewing and hiring personnel to fulfill the role of a volunteer administrator.

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Table 1

Statements Reaching Consensus Related to Competencies Needed to be an Efficient and Effective Master Gardener Coordinator (Based Upon Safrit, Schmiesing, Gliem, and Gliem, 2005)

Statement	Panel Mean Rating*	SD	No. Rating 5 or 6	% Rating 5 or 6
Factor 1: Volunteer Recruitment and Selection				
Ability to identify volunteer's strengths and weaknesses and see where they would best function within the organization	5.20	.86	13	86.67
Factor 2: Volunteer Administrator Professional Development				
Positive attitude	5.80	.41	15	100
Leadership skills	5.73	.46	15	100
"People" skills	5.73	.46	15	100
Management skills	5.73	.46	15	100
Ability to facilitate	5.53	.52	15	100
Oral communication skills	5.47	.52	15	100
Motivational skills	5.60	.63	14	93.33
Patience	5.53	.64	14	93.33
Personal flexibility	5.47	.64	14	93.33
Written communication skills	5.40	.63	14	93.33
Listening skills	5.33	.62	14	93.33
Realization as an agent, you don't and can't possibly know everything	5.33	1.29	14	93.33
Ability to understand the true source of conflict	5.27	.59	14	93.33
Conflict resolution skills	5.33	.72	13	86.67
Organizational skills	5.33	.72	13	86.67
Goal orientation	5.33	.72	13	86.67
Ability to conduct a sound program development and structuring process	5.20	.86	13	86.67
Commitment to gaining knowledge of subject matter	5.20	1.01	13	86.67
Time management skills	5.40	.83	12	80
Strong consensus building skills	4.93	.59	12	80
Computer skills (word processing, internet usage, etc.)	4.87	.74	10	66.67
Factor 3: Volunteer Orientation and Training				
Ability to articulate Extension's mission and goals to the Master Gardeners	5.93	.26	15	100
Ability to inspire your volunteers to rise to the challenge	5.73	.46	15	100

Statement	Panel Mean Rating*	SD	No. Rating 5 or 6	% Rating 5 or 6
Plan and implement training for volunteers	5.57	.51	15	100
Patient steering of volunteers in the right direction	5.47	.64	14	93.33
Ability to communicate Extension policies and procedures effectively	5.27	.70	13	86.67
Factor 4: Volunteer Program Advocacy				
Willingness to let volunteers plan and implement programs, yet be involved enough to provide guidance, assure accuracy of information, and compliance with Texas AgriLife Extension requirements	5.73	.46	15	100
Ability to communicate what the MG organization is doing and where it is going	5.73	.46	15	100
Letting the volunteers know you are “going to bat” for them	5.67	.49	15	100
Ability to communicate a shared vision	5.67	.49	15	100
Commitment to the mission of the group	5.53	.52	15	100
Interest in helping the public	5.67	.62	14	93.33
Constantly communicating your messages, not just to Master Gardeners and not just at meetings	5.13	.83	13	86.67
Factor 5: Volunteer Program Maintenance				
Enjoy working with people	5.80	.41	15	100
Following through with what you say you will do	5.80	.41	15	100
Ability to effectively enlist the assistance of your Master Gardeners	5.67	.49	15	100
Trusting volunteers to complete tasks given to them	5.60	.51	15	100
Avoiding micro-managing the volunteers	5.60	.51	15	100
Willingness to take the time necessary to meet with MG program leaders to discuss objectives and answer questions	5.60	.51	15	100
Ability to identify and communicate the organization’s strengths and weaknesses	5.40	.51	15	100
Fairness with everyone	5.47	1.30	14	93.33
Willingness to do the very things you ask of your volunteers	5.53	.74	13	86.67
Willingness to stand firm on your policies	5.40	.74	13	86.67
Expecting volunteers to follow through with what they say they will do	5.33	.72	13	86.67
Availability to Master Gardeners if they need assistance or advice	5.20	.68	13	86.67

Statement	Panel Mean Rating*	SD	No. Rating 5 or 6	% Rating 5 or 6
Ability to offer guidance to autonomous association, yet maintain direction within Texas AgriLife Extension parameters	5.00	1.25	13	86.67
Ability to think big but start small by seeing the big picture while identifying the individual steps to accomplish your goals	5.47	.52	15	100
Ability to develop the proper balance of ownership of the Master Gardener program between the volunteers and the Extension Agent	5.40	.99	12	80
Ability to delegate work	5.27	.96	12	80
Ability to say "No"	5.13	.74	12	80
Committee work	5.20	.77	12	80
Willingness to be present at a majority of MG-related events (training sessions, monthly meetings, major planning sessions, MG-sponsored educational events)	5.07	1.03	12	80
Cautious understanding that decisions the Coordinator makes become policy	4.93	.88	11	73.33
Factor 6: Volunteer Recognition				
Respect for the time and contributions of your volunteers	5.93	.26	15	100
Leading with a shared vision and shared purpose	5.73	.46	15	100
Expressing gratitude to the Master Gardeners often	5.73	.46	15	100
Praising Master Gardeners to people outside of the organization	5.73	.46	15	100
Allowing tasks to be completed in ways that you would not have personally done them	5.60	.51	15	100
Ability to give the volunteers the proper amount of responsibility within the organization	5.53	.52	15	100
Crediting your program's successes on the hard work and determination of your volunteers	5.73	.59	14	93.33
Knowing your volunteers and their life experiences and respecting them as professionals	5.33	.72	13	86.67
Factor 7: Volunteer Program Resource Development				
Ability to identify and communicate the needs of the organization	5.47	.64	14	93.33
Finding ways to secure resources, training, etc.	5.33	.62	14	93.33

* Scale ratings are as follows: 1 = *Strongly Disagree*, 2 = *Disagree*, 3 = *Somewhat Disagree*, 4 = *Somewhat Agree*, 5 = *Agree*, 6 = *Strongly Agree*

Effectively Recruiting and Retaining Service Volunteers in the IndyCar Series Racing

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Abstract

This action research project was undertaken to uncover the demographic and psychographic profiles, as well as satisfaction levels of the volunteers involved in a IndyCar auto race with a view enhancing the volunteer recruitment, deployment, and retention practices. The event requires more than 1800 volunteers on an annual basis. Volunteers were found to be well educated, between the ages of 35 and 45, experienced in other volunteer and professional areas, relatively affluent, and satisfied with their volunteer experience. Volunteers recruited by other volunteers tended to be the most satisfied with their experience compared to those who responded to general print or electronic advertisements. Recommendations are provided to help volunteer resource managers of large-scale sporting events deploy more effective recruitment and deployment practices.

Key Words:

volunteers, recruitment, auto racing, sport

Introduction

Sport is a fertile area for researchers exploring the volunteer sector given its high dependence on volunteers. Volunteers are needed in high quantities wherever large-scale sporting events are produced and/or consumed (Kim & Chelladurai, 2005) and this dependence appears to be growing (e.g., use of volunteers in the Summer Olympic Games has nearly doubled since 1984). MacLean and Hamm's (2007) study of volunteers from a Ladies Professional Golf event and Strigas and Jackson's (2003) research into volunteers lending their time and talents to marathon races both underscored the heightening dependence that large-scale sporting events have on

volunteers. De Knop and Gratton (1999, p. 7) noted a comparable dependence in Europe where volunteers are referred to as the "cornerstone of the development and growth of sport" in Britain, and the "mainstay of sport" in the Netherlands. Researchers must address this sector, and produce research results that better inform volunteer recruitment and deployment practices for sport organizations and events.

Typical Volunteer Profiles

Early researchers focused on the characteristics of volunteers. For example, Babchuk and Booth (1969) and Scott (1957) reported that males volunteered more than females, a trend that has reversed in recent

times (Hennessy & Hennessy, 2005). However, males still volunteer more frequently than females for sporting events (Gratton, Taylor, & Kokolakis, 2003). Early researchers (Gidron, 1978; Scott) also found a positive, linear relationship between age and volunteering up to the age of 50 to 60 years, when a negative, linear relationship emerges. This pattern holds true in recent research into the demographic profiles of volunteers (Yoshioka, Brown, & Ashcraft, 2007). However, Gratton, Taylor, and Kokolakis uncovered a different pattern for the sport sector where the majority of volunteers tended to be younger (i.e., 60% were between the ages of 18 and 34). MacLean and Hamm (2007), Yoshioka, Brown, and Ashcraft (2007), and Strigas and Jackson (2003) all noted that people from higher socioeconomic classes were more likely to volunteer while married people volunteered at rates higher than single or divorced individuals.

Picard (1998) concluded that volunteers are generally employed and well-educated. However, a growing volunteer sector appears to be younger individuals who aspire to heighten skill sets, expand professional networks, and/or advance marketability for employment (Katz, 2007). Many educational systems now require a volunteer experience as a condition of graduation. One would expect this cohort to be a stable pool of volunteers that could be effectively recruited and deployed. Societal changes may be altering the demographic and psychographic profiles of today's volunteer. Katz underscored this point and questioned whether volunteer resource managers are effectively adapting to these sweeping social changes. In particular, Katz pointed to the baby boomer generation as a growing, relatively untapped source for volunteers. Younger women may be drawn to volunteer experiences in greater numbers as they acquire skills sets and experiences

for a highly competitive but more assessable workforce.

Volunteer Recruitment and Retention Research

Researchers have long dismissed the notion that volunteers contribute their time for purely altruistic reasons (Houle, Sagarin & Kaplan, 2005). Clary, Snyder and, Stukas (1996) highlighted the importance of volunteer resource managers taking the time to better understand the motives of volunteers, and then deploy them in activities that help address the motive. The motivating forces are often cited as a desire to help others, feel useful and needed, self-develop, improve the community, meet people, gain work-related experience, join friends who are volunteers, and enjoy companionship. Finklestein's (2007) insightful study of volunteers with hospice organizations uncovered significant relationships between volunteer satisfaction levels and their levels of commitment and contribution. Katz (2007) further highlighted the importance of effective leadership to maximizing volunteer satisfaction and commitment, especially volunteer resource managers who lead older volunteers.

Volunteers' experiences, motivations, and satisfaction are all important factors in effective recruitment, deployment, and retention of service volunteers for sport (Bang & Ross, 2005). Doherty and Carron (2003) highlighted the importance of volunteer satisfaction to both performance and retention of volunteers for sporting events. They also stressed the importance of establishing strong lines of communications so volunteers felt connected to the event. Green and Chalip (1998, p. 20) suggested that effective communication is critical, and that the sport organizations "need to continually market the benefits of volunteering, update and repack those benefits, and monitor to

discern changes in volunteers' motives and satisfaction". Experienced, competent and committed volunteers are crucial for sports organizations that rely on service volunteers. Otherwise, considerable time, energy, and money are continually expended on recruiting and training new volunteers.

Volunteer recruitment may take many forms. General appeal techniques (e.g., letters, telephone campaigns, electronic and print advertisements, etc.) are possible, but "word of mouth" through social networks has proven to be the most effective recruitment strategy, especially when targeting older volunteers (Nagchoudhuri, McBride, Thirupthy, Morrow-Howell, & Tang, 2007). Green and Chalip (1998) concurred, noting that volunteers with close personal ties to an organization, its participants, and/or other volunteers have higher commitment levels and are more likely to be retained. Hodgkinson and Weitzman (1992) reported that 26% of volunteers in sport donated their time because of family or a friend's involvement. Daly (1991) found that 18% of volunteers in sport gave their time and expertise as a consequence of their love of sport, 26% had family members participating, and 36% had previous experience as a volunteer within the sport, research findings that align with the later work of Musick and Wilson (2008). Volunteer resource managers of large scale sporting events should use this information to strategically recruit new volunteers (e.g., target sport organizations comprised of sport enthusiasts, and/or have current volunteers recruit their friends and family members).

In summary, conditions that lead to volunteer dissatisfaction and defection include a discrepancy between expectations of time or effort, a lack of training and support, poor relationships with other volunteers, and/or unsatisfactory working conditions. Conversely, volunteer

satisfaction and commensurate commitment and contribution levels (Finkelstein, 2007; Starnes, 2007) may be heightened by volunteers holding the perception that they are making a contribution, feeling appreciated, increasing their skill sets, and/or working closely with respected friends and loved ones. As a result, empowering volunteers with a sense of responsibility, creating new learning opportunities, and providing effective training will help organizations satisfy and effectively motivate volunteers. The key principle in retention appears to be for resource managers to demonstrate a genuine sense of appreciation of volunteers and also work to create a positive social experience for the them (Katz, 2007).

Understanding the Subculture for Volunteers in Sport

Some researchers (Donnelly, 1993; Green & Chalip, 1998; MacLean & Hamm, 2007) suggest that a unique subculture exists for the sport sector that requires a different paradigm for volunteer recruitment and deployment. They suggest that people often volunteer with sport organizations because they can gain access to privileged spectator and participation opportunities (Green & Chalip). The idea of being an insider to the event appears to be the key factor. Donnelly believed that a sense of identification and the optimization of benefits, such as the privileged information gained, the unique visibility afforded, the positive social connections made, and/or the heightened status of being a part of the event were key motivators for volunteers from large-scale sporting events. Donnelly's findings were supported by the research of Pauline and Pauline (2009) whose study of volunteers at the US Open Tennis Championships found that male and female volunteers were motivated by the excitement and the privilege of being involved in the event. The

“backstage feel” of volunteering may be a key element to understanding sport volunteers. Green and Chalip (1998) indicated that even if the volunteer’s task is menial, the opportunity to observe what paying patrons can’t see, namely the production and staging of the event, may help attract and retain volunteers. Consequently, volunteer recruitment and retention for large-scale sporting events should be conceptually based on the exchange of personal benefits, social status, and social networking for volunteer commitment and effort. Volunteer resource managers must know how to strategically and efficiently identify and commit prospects. They must also know how to train and deploy them, considering volunteer motives and needs. Green and Chalip proposed the use of a marketing paradigm for the effective recruitment and retention of volunteers. The first step in the volunteer recruitment and deployment processes for the auto racing sector is to develop an understanding of the demographic and psychographic backgrounds of current service volunteers.

Methodology

The researchers used an action research approach to explore and describe volunteers of the IndyCar auto race. Patton (1990) described this as action research, or an investigation that solves problems in a “program, organization or community” (p.161).

The population for the study was a census of all the 1,100 volunteers registered to assist with the staging of the race. The researchers included all volunteers to eliminate the possibility of committing a sampling error (Kerlinger, 1986) and therefore enhanced the internal validity of the research. The study frame was checked for accuracy by the event organizers in advance of the distribution of the survey

packages. This step helped reduce frame error.

The researchers developed a two-page questionnaire, comprised of four sections and 12 questions. The content for the questionnaire was drawn from the volunteer literature base and the instrument was tested for content validity by a three-person panel of experts who conduct research in the sport and volunteer sectors.

Section A of the instrument outlined the purpose and importance of the research, reaffirmed respondent anonymity, and reminded respondents of the incentive prizes for replying in a timely fashion.

Respondents were also provided with instructions for returning the completed questionnaire. Section B was designed to help the researchers and race officials understand the demographic profiles of the volunteers. Respondents were presented with seven forced-choice questions that uncovered their sex, age, education level attained, personal income level, occupation, and work experience. Three questions in Section C invited respondents to indicate the method that they were recruited, what role they were assumed for race officials, and if they volunteered for other events (i.e., races, other sporting events, other community events). The two questions in Section D uncovered respondent motives for volunteering as well as their level of satisfaction with the experience.

Respondents were asked the most important reason for volunteering with the race and they were presented with six options.

Respondents could also offer an alternative option that was not listed. Respondents were then invited to elaborate on their most important reason for volunteering with the race. Volunteer satisfaction was measured on a five-point Likert scale (i.e., extremely dissatisfied through extremely satisfied).

Respondents were also invited to elaborate on their level of satisfaction, and indicate

what they found most satisfying, and most dissatisfying with the experience. This qualitative information provided researchers with that data needed to formulate a more complete understanding of the determinants of volunteer satisfaction and dissatisfaction with the experience.

The instrument's face validity was assessed by the senior administrator of the race who was responsible for recruiting and deploying the volunteers. This person had extensive experience working with the volunteers. She reviewed the instrument and provided written feedback. She was also interviewed where the researchers went over every question to ensure that respondents would understand what was being asked in each question. She also confirmed that there were no questions that were threatening or inappropriate. Minor editorial changes were made to the instrument following this assessment to heighten question clarity.

A survey package was mailed to the home addresses of all study participants. Each package included: (a) an introductory letter from the researchers outlining the study and the importance of volunteer participation in the research; (b) a letter from the race officials outlining the importance of the study and encouraging the volunteers to participate; (c) the questionnaire; and (d) a return-addressed envelope to facilitate study compliance and data collection. Participants were instructed to return their completed questionnaires within a two-week period and an incentive prize (i.e., draw for an official race jacket) was provided. The use of an incentive has been demonstrated to improve response rates in survey research (Ary, Jacobs & Razavich, 1985). The researchers did not follow-up with non-respondents.

Results and Discussion

Two hundred and seventy-eight of the 1,100 race volunteers responded to the

survey, a 25.3% response rate. Mullin, Hardy and Sutton (1993) indicated that mailed questionnaires often produce response rates of 10% or less. However, due to the low response rate and absence of follow-up with non-respondents, the reader is cautioned regarding inferring the research findings to any group other than the actual study respondents.

Forty-five percent of the respondents were female, which according to a senior race official mirrored the gender breakdown of the entire volunteer frame. Respondents were found to be older (i.e., 34 years +), experienced as a race volunteer (i.e., approximately 33% had volunteered with the race for three to four years), highly educated (i.e., majority were college or university educated), relatively affluent (i.e., household incomes greater than \$60,000) and experienced in the work force (i.e., in excess of 15 years). Female respondents volunteered more frequently than males (1.94 volunteer experiences a year compared to 1.38 volunteer experiences a year) and the females also indicated that they volunteered with other groups/causes (i.e., 41%) more than the male volunteers (i.e., 31%). "Personal enrichment" was cited as the most popular motive offered by female volunteers while "being a racing fan" was the primary motive offered by the males. A higher percentage of male respondents (i.e., 43%) worked in the auto industry as compared to the female respondents (i.e., 19%).

Psychographic Profiles and Volunteer Satisfaction

Considerable research has been cited on the strong links between volunteer satisfaction and their commensurate commitment and contribution levels. The race volunteers were asked to indicate their levels of satisfaction on a five-point Likert scale. Data were subsequently segmented and analyzed to determine if satisfaction

levels varied based on volunteer recruitment or assignment factors.

An overwhelming number of volunteers (i.e., 93% of the females; 91% of the males) were “satisfied” or “extremely satisfied” with their experience, a finding consistent with the research findings of other studies set in sport environments (MacLean & Hamm, 2007; Pauline & Pauline, 2009). However, although the overwhelming majority of respondents indicated that they were satisfied, 24% offered negative comments in the qualitative section of the questionnaire. More than 50% of the negative comments were directed at race officials for not giving the volunteers enough perks while volunteering. De Moragas, Moreno, and Paniaguq (2000) noted that Olympic Games volunteers developed a stronger bond with the event they received tangible items identifying them with the event (e.g., uniforms, badges, etc.). Pauline and Pauline (2009) also found that volunteers for the United States Open Tennis Championship were also positively motivated by receiving official merchandise from the event.

Consistent with the findings of Nacchoudhuri, McBride, Thirupthy, Morrow-Howell, and Tang (2007), the most dissatisfied volunteers were those recruited by general advertisements. Perhaps these volunteers held unrealistic expectations about the experience, something that could be rectified through strategic recruitment activities (i.e., more personal recruitment programs that are based on social networks) and/or early/effective communications and training programs that accurately outline the expected experience.

The researchers also asked the volunteers to share their reasons for volunteering with the race. The results supported the work of Donnelly (1993) and Bang and Ross (2005) for the male respondents. “Being a racing fan” was the

reason offered by the majority of male volunteers. Being close to the action and having privileged access to the race, to the drivers, and to the peripheral elements surrounding the event made for a more satisfying experience for the male volunteers. Female volunteers claimed to be more satisfied if they experienced personal enrichment, learned new skills, and established new networks. Race officials must consider this information when establishing and implementing volunteer recruitment and retention programs. As Starnes (2007) noted in her insightful article, volunteer resource managers can maximize volunteer satisfaction levels (and commensurate levels of volunteer commitment and contribution) by implementing job rotation and job enrichment/enlargement programs when menial volunteer assignments are required.

Conclusions and Implications

This study adds to the literature bases in sport management and in the management of volunteers for large-scale sporting events. Volunteers are critical to the staging of sporting events, yet the area is not a prime research area. Volunteer resource managers of large-scale sporting events can be more efficient and effective if they knew how to effectively and efficiently find prospective volunteers, better understand their motives, and more effectively deploy volunteers to maximize satisfaction and ultimately, their retention levels. This is especially true for the auto racing sector given the high number of volunteers needed to deliver the race. As noted earlier, the IndyCar race requires the services of 1,800 volunteers annually. Due to the high levels of volunteer defection experienced, considerable time and effort is invested annually in volunteer recruiting and training activities. The researchers believe that this situation could be minimized with

more strategic volunteer recruitment and deployment practices.

The results of this action-research substantiated the claims of other researchers (e.g., Donnelly, 1993; Finkelstein, 2007; Houle, et al., 2005; Katz, 2007) who all called for a more strategic approach to volunteer recruitment and retention. Volunteer resource managers need to understand the motives of their current and prospective volunteers so they can more strategically attract and deploy them. If done strategically, volunteers will be more satisfied, committed, and more likely to return in subsequent years. Large scale sporting events rely on volunteers, and frequently need to recruit and train high numbers of volunteers on an annual basis. For example, the results of this study allowed the researchers to conclude that “word of mouth” was the most effective method of recruiting new volunteers. Volunteer resource managers would be well served in enlisting the services of current volunteers to recruit new volunteers. Current volunteers should be encouraged, and rewarded, for recruiting their friends and family members, perhaps in response to the organization implementing an incentive program (i.e., every volunteer who brings a volunteer is entered into a prize draw). Experienced volunteers can help clarify the roles, expectations, and excitement to prospective volunteers who will know what to expect in advance of the experience. They can respond to questions at the time of recruitment, and serve as a source of support to new volunteers once they are involved in the event.

Volunteer resource managers can be more efficient and strategic in their recruitment activities. Inviting people who work in the auto industry (e.g., car dealerships, automotive plants, automotive supplier businesses) would appear to be the best place to look for new volunteers for the

race. Furthermore, since volunteers of this race were found to volunteer with other sporting events, it would be prudent to target people volunteers of other sporting events. These are committed volunteers who have demonstrated that they want to get involved in sporting events. Volunteer resource managers who be well served in building relationships with their counterparts from the local sport sector with a view to sharing lists of potential volunteers. Consistent with the findings of this research, it would be strategic to have current volunteers call these individuals and invite them to participate in the race experience. Finally, females were underrepresented in the volunteer pool, so targeting more female volunteers, (especially those employed in the auto industry and/or who volunteer with another sporting event) would appear to be a prudent strategy. It is clear that the general recruitment appeals that large scale sporting events often use are ineffective and often result in disenchanted volunteers who will likely defect.

Volunteer resource managers from the sport sector would also be well-served in implementing the findings of this study relative to the ways that they deploy their volunteers. As noted above, these managers need to know their volunteers, understand their motives, and deploy them in ways that their motives will be satisfied. For example, the researchers in this study found that male volunteers generally wanted to get close to the action. Female volunteers tended to seek personal enrichment and challenge from the experience. Volunteer resource managers should ask volunteers to indicate their role preferences and try to meet these requests. Resource managers could employ a rotation system if necessary to ensure that critical operational areas that don't offer the desired benefits are covered and the volunteers remain satisfied. For example, ticket takers and information booth attendants were

found the most dissatisfied volunteers in this study, likely due to the fact that they were removed from the action and from social interaction with other volunteers. These important, front-line positions may need to go on a rotation system or be converted to paid positions.

Finally, volunteers appreciate a volunteer recognition program to show tangible appreciation for continuing volunteers and heighten their pride, identity, and affiliation with the event (e.g., apparel with logo, social event to bring volunteers together and thank them). Volunteers in sport value the recognition, and as uncovered in this research, are critical of, and dissatisfied with, organizations that do not provide volunteer recognition apparel, activities and/or programs.

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**Assessing The Impacts On Volunteers Who Participate
in Rural Community Development Efforts**

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Abstract

This pilot study develops and tests criteria to use in assessing impacts on volunteers who participate in rural community development efforts. Study participants were volunteers who worked together over a four-year period to establish and sustain a farmers market in a remote rural community facing socioeconomic challenges. A major finding is that a strong relationship exists between volunteers' knowledge gains and the volunteer resource manager's role, in addition to volunteers' program experience and their value of the experience. Results from this pilot study may help in developing effective volunteer leadership education programs and in establishing guidelines to replicate future impact assessments.

Key Words:

volunteers, community development, training, rural

Introduction

Rural communities in geographically isolated areas provide unique opportunities for volunteer-based community development programs. Volunteers typically lead these efforts and provide the majority of labor required (Claude, Bridger, & Luloff, 2000). Yet, volunteers with strong leadership skills are often lacking. In this program context, volunteers become an integral part of Land Grant University Cooperative Extension programs, intended to improve the quality of life in rural

communities. Therefore, the need for knowledgeable volunteers is critical (Brennan, 2007). The impact volunteers can have on their community prioritizes developing those leadership skills that can make volunteer time more productive. The goal of this study was to measure the impacts on volunteers who participated in a community development effort to establish and sustain a rural farmers market over a four-year period. A better understanding of these impacts could lead to improved

volunteer training and more effective and satisfying volunteer experiences.

Literature Review

Previous research indicates that volunteers benefit significantly from their experiences. Such benefits include stronger social networks, healthier lifestyles, improved interpersonal relationships as well as increased self-confidence, increased self-esteem, and better working relationships (Schmiesing, Soder, & Russell, 2005). Other studies have described benefits as learned leadership skills that have included networking, listening, communication, problem-solving and collaboration skills (Emery & Flora, 2006; Singletary, Smith, & Evans, 2005) as well as conflict management, strategic planning and grant writing skills (Tackie, Findlay, Baharanyi, & Pierce, 2004). Furthermore, skills that specifically address community development include learning how to learn, lead, build community and take action as part of a group (Sandmann & Vandenberg, 1995). In fact, some studies have suggested that Extension volunteer experiences teach volunteers the interpersonal and group relational skills needed to become effective community leaders (Diem & Nikola, 2005; Ohnoutka, Waybright, Nichols, & Nestor, 2005).

These studies provide criteria useful in evaluating the impact of the volunteer experience on volunteers. This study draws upon these criteria and adds to the research literature in striving to evaluate the long term impacts of volunteerism as it relates to learned leadership skills (Diem & Nikola, 2005; Rebori, 2003; Singletary, Smith, & Hill, 2002).

Context of Community Development Program

This community development example is located in Tonopah, Nevada.

Although 87 percent of Nevada's population is located in the Las Vegas or Reno metropolitan area (Albrecht, 2008), Tonopah is 220 miles from Las Vegas, making this town of 2400 people geographically isolated. In addition to its remote location, Tonopah is a high desert community with an average precipitation of 5.8 inches and an elevation of 6000 feet, making for a short growing season.

University of Nevada Cooperative Extension (UNCE) Educators develop, conduct and evaluate outreach education in rural communities. A needs assessment conducted by an UNCE Educator concluded that community development in Nye County, specifically economic development and community leader capacity building, was a critical issue that needed to be addressed (Meier, 2007). Residents expressed keen interest in starting a farmers market in order to increase access to and encourage local production of vegetables and fruit.

Overview of Rural Farmers Market Community Development Program

The residents looked to the Extension Educator, in this case the volunteer resource manager (VRM), to develop and run the farmers market. Instead, the VRM convened interested citizens for the purpose of organizing a volunteer initiative to achieve this goal. Although the volunteers were passionate about having a local farmers market, they lacked the leadership skills and self-confidence to take action.

Through mentoring and other forms of informal education, such as modeling, the VRM taught the group how to form a community action team. The VRM provided one-on-one and small group opportunities to plan and implement development strategies, complete grant applications. Through these interactions, the

VRM taught citizens important volunteer skills, such as how to follow local government protocol, effective committee procedures, conflict resolution and grant writing (Brennan, 2007).

The VRM nurtured volunteers' self confidence and critical thinking skills by encouraging volunteers to take ownership of the farmers market through a process of transformative participatory evaluation. That is, the VRM understood that initially the volunteers relied upon her for leadership. The VRM in turn taught volunteers processes for facilitating group decision making concerning the development, improvement and implementation of a farmers market (Cousins & Whitmore, 1998). The VRM's goal was to teach volunteers the leadership skills necessary to instill self-confidence to the point that they no longer relied on the VRM for leadership and the success of the farmers market. Initially, there were six dedicated volunteers who, with guidance from the VRM, wrote the mission statement and objectives of the farmers market, determined what tasks needed to be done and assigned each volunteer a role such as vendor coordinator.

The VRM taught this core group how to recruit, retain and manage additional volunteers. Conflict resolution and communication skills were crucial to the success of the volunteer recruitment campaign, which resulted in a volunteer coordinator and 35 active volunteers. Over time, the VRM's role evolved into liaison between the town and the farmers market committee and committee advisor, thus transforming the volunteers themselves into leaders.

The Tonopah Farmers Market completed its sixth season in 2010 with the same core volunteers running the market, along with assistance from about 30 other volunteers, 34 vendors and approximately 200 adult visitors to each market.

Methodology

Population

Questionnaires were administered to all 35 community development program volunteers when they attended the 2008 and 2009 Extension annual banquets. The survey response rate was 100%.

Instrumentation

A questionnaire was developed to assess the impacts on volunteers who participated in this community development program. The context of this study is the outreach program the VRM developed to address community development in a rural, economically challenged and isolated area through increasing social capacity in the form of volunteers passionate about creating a farmers market. This inspired research questions about how to build social capacity and sustain effective volunteers. The VRM believed that the perspectives of community development volunteers concerning their experiences and the impacts that their volunteer experiences have on their communities, could influence the design of future community development programs that positively impact communities and volunteers. The VRM designed and managed the volunteer based program and also developed and implemented the impact assessment.

To create the research questions, the VRM applied community development and leadership development theories with examples of impact evaluations of leadership capacity building programs designed for community volunteers (Allen et al., 2002; Dillman, 2002; Frechtling, 2008; Patton, 2010). A panel knowledgeable about the Tonopah Farmers Market program, but who were not volunteers reviewed drafts of the questionnaire and a panel of experts reviewed the final questionnaire. The investigators modified

the questionnaire based upon their recommendations. Finally, the questionnaire was tested using three local volunteers who were not affiliated directly with the program in order to identify missing attributes and check for wording clarity.

The questionnaire included demographic questions about the volunteer related to age, gender, residency and volunteerism. The remainder of the questionnaire featured 34 Likert-type scale items to assess: 1) volunteers' leadership knowledge gains; 2) VRM effectiveness; 3) volunteers' program experience; and 4) volunteers' value of their volunteer experience.

Twenty question items assessed leadership skill knowledge gains were adapted from similar volunteer evaluations (Rebori, 2003; Singletary et al., 2002) and focused on learned leadership skills as described by others (Braker, Leno, Pratt, & Grobe, 2000; Luke, 1998; Morse, Brown, & Warning, 2006; Sandmann & Vandenberg, 1995). These skills, among others, included communication, social interaction, conflict management, goal setting and personal time management in addition to how to run effective meetings, market and evaluate a program, and acquire program support (Vettern, Hall, & Schmidt, 2009). This section also included two questions about how volunteerism helped strengthen leadership skills that were helpful at home, school or at work (Meier, 2008). Items to measure knowledge gains were intended to measure the extent to which volunteers learned about important leadership skills, including communication, collaboration, goal setting, civic governance and problem-solving.

Four question items measured the effectiveness of the VRM as an impact on the volunteers. These included questions about networking, information

dissemination, quality of meetings, and leadership skill development.

Volunteer program experience question items were intended to measure program impacts in terms of shaping ongoing leadership behaviors through volunteerism. These five items included whether or not they would want their friends or family to volunteer as well as perceived improvements in their self-confidence and leadership abilities.

Finally, the five volunteer value items were designed to measure program impacts in terms of motivating future volunteer behaviors and included actual improvements made, meeting people, working with other community members and learning new skills.

The questionnaire asked volunteers to rate each item. For example, volunteers' knowledge gains were assessed by such questions as: 'I learned to value the viewpoints of others involved in the program.' Response options ranged from 'Learned Very Little' to 'Learned Very Much' on an equally weighted five-point scale, with the Likert-scale rating of 3 representing "neutral".

The completed questionnaires served as the data source for this study. Cronbach's coefficient alpha (CCA) was used to estimate internal consistency of the 34 items. The average alpha score for all 34 items was high ($r = .948$) (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). This indicates that most of the items measured similar attributes and served as reasonable measures of these attributes.

Data Collection

The volunteers received a printed copy of the two-page questionnaire that included a cover letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire, the approximate length of time required to complete it and an assurance of anonymity.

This data collection protocol received exemption from the University of Nevada, Reno Human Subjects Committee and did not require signed consent forms. This modified retrospective pre-post evaluation method reduces the potential for invalid responses that may occur when administering a standard pre-test at the beginning of an Extension program when participants have limited knowledge and likely cannot respond accurately to questions being asked (Pratt, McGuigan, & Katzev, 2000).

Results

Almost two-thirds of the group was female. The majority of respondents (38%) were 60 years old or older, and 32.4 percent of the respondents were between 50 and 59 years of age. The majority (88.6%) of volunteers had spent at least two years in Tonopah and 40 percent reported living in the community for more than five years. Full-time or part-time employment was reported by 45.5 percent with retirees comprising approximately 40 percent of the group. While approximately half of the volunteers had volunteered less than two years with this program, 60 percent of all respondents indicated that they plan to continue their volunteer service for the next five years or longer.

Table 1 presents ranked mean scores for each of the 34 assessment questions, subdivided into the categories of volunteer knowledge gains, volunteer experience, VRM effectiveness and value of volunteer experience. A review of these data indicates overall positive impacts. Volunteers achieved knowledge gains important to developing leadership skills and indicated that their volunteer experience positively shaped their view of their future leadership behaviors and likelihood of volunteer activities in similar programs.

Discussions and Conclusions

The study results suggest that volunteer-based community development programs in isolated rural communities produce positive impacts for both the volunteers and their community. In areas where volunteers are relied upon to improve quality of life, volunteers with effective leadership skills are indispensable. Thus, VRMs must possess the capacity to recruit, train, and retain competent volunteers. Data from this assessment provides VRMs with a starting point for better understanding this aspect of volunteer recruitment and development programs.

Leadership Skills

The top five ranked leadership skills volunteers reported they had developed as a result of their volunteer experience focused on interpersonal, communication, and organizational competencies. These results indicate that, as a result of the program, volunteers may possess adequate levels of self-confidence and knowledge to accept new and additional leadership roles.

These volunteers are uniquely positioned to teach newer volunteers how to delegate tasks, develop, and implement program goals. Therefore, VRMs may find success when more experienced volunteers are available to help newer volunteers develop group program goals and teach them how to manage their workload and time commitment. Experienced volunteers are often well suited to match tasks with volunteers who possess talents and knowledge in specific areas.

This study also revealed that this group of volunteers may need to strengthen the lowest ranked leadership skills in order to have a more enriching volunteer experience. The abilities to effectively manage conflict and facilitate group meetings are important skills for community development leaders to possess (Allen et al.,

2002). Additionally, having a basic understanding of how local government works will assist volunteers in accomplishing program goals more effectively. VFMs may want to consider working in partnership with local officials to offer training specifically in this area. VRMs may need to train volunteers in these areas early in the community development program in order to afford volunteers ample opportunity to practice and strengthen these skills.

Volunteer Experience

In this study, volunteers strongly indicated their intention to invite friends or family members to volunteer. Accordingly, VRMs might develop venues for recruitment that encourages expanding the volunteer base through association. Word of mouth, particularly in a small town, is powerful and can grow a cadre of volunteers. In this study, volunteers rated their personal self-confidence and ability to lead others comparatively lower than the other volunteer experience items. These leadership skills often require time in order to fully develop--VRMs need to be patient but persistent. It may take years for a particular volunteer to develop the self-confidence to feel comfortable in a leadership role. Therefore, VRMs should encourage ongoing progress in this area and provide opportunities for the volunteer to experience success in a leadership role (Emery & Flora, 2006; Fisher & Cole, 1993). VRMs might consider pairing volunteers to work on specific tasks or special projects in order to boost their confidence and learn from one another.

Volunteer Resource Manager Effectiveness

This study indicates that the VRM played a critical role in teaching volunteers the skills and concepts necessary in shaping important leadership behavior and qualities.

The recognized effectiveness of the VRM suggests that there is a logical opportunity for VRMs to teach volunteers about organizational structure and protocol and basic components of effective groups through example. Volunteers can gain confidence and feel safe by taking on more responsibilities as leaders if they have a sound role model to follow and to mentor them (Densten & Gray, 2001; McKee, 2007).

Value of Volunteer Experience

In this study, volunteers reported that they valued their volunteer experience. They indicated that the social aspects of the experience, which included working alongside other community members, were very satisfying. VRMs will want to respect the social nature of volunteers. They should provide time and space for social interaction in concert with completing the task at hand. Volunteers also valued meeting their project goals. Although community recognition for volunteer efforts was not valued as highly, VFMs should strive to celebrate the accomplishments of volunteers. Annual volunteer celebrations provide a ready venue to formally acknowledge the work of volunteers, document their accomplishments, and also provide an opportunity for social interaction.

The results of this study should be useful to VFMs in designing programs to recruit, train and retain volunteers. The need for skilled volunteers in rural communities has never been greater. This study indicates that volunteers benefit from their volunteer experiences. It also suggests that VRMs dedicate time and energy to teaching newly recruited volunteers the leadership skills necessary to sustaining a community development program. VRMs must first assess volunteers' leadership skill development needs. Subsequently, VRMs must respond to the assessment results by

providing formal and informal learning opportunities. When VRMs are aware of their volunteers' leadership development needs, they will be able to target and strengthen volunteers' skills throughout the program. Finally, VRMs must evaluate the impacts on volunteer skills development of trainings, administrative support, and the volunteer experience.

The criteria and instrumentation developed for this evaluation were used with a small group of farmers market volunteers in a specific community context. One of the limitations of this study is the small number of participants, which is a direct consequence of conducting research in small communities and with such a narrow focus. However, this study could be expanded to incorporate farmers market volunteers from other rural communities. It could also be replicated in a wide range of similar volunteer-based efforts. These two recommendations may address concerns about the small sample size.

Suggestions for further research with a similar assessment tool include a comparison study between urban and rural volunteers, other community development projects, and with larger numbers of volunteers. The results from similar research can assist VRMs in further determining training needs and strategies to better prepare volunteers to identify important local issues and to be successful in their efforts to address identified issues to improve their community.

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Table 1
Respondent Numbers and Ranked Mean Scores (and Standard Deviations) for Study Constructs

	N	M	SD
Volunteers' Knowledge Gains (Leadership Skills)			
Value viewpoints of others involved with program	35	4.23	.69
How to share workload with other volunteers	35	4.06	.91
How to listen to others	35	4.03	.95
How to apply individual talents and knowledge to improve community	34	4.03	.97
Importance of having program goals	32	4.03	.78
Effective ways to market a local event	34	4.00	.99
How to interact professionally with other community members or groups	34	3.91	.93
How to develop program goals	32	3.78	1.10
How to evaluate program impact on community	34	3.68	1.07
Problem-solving skills	33	3.67	1.02
How to express personal viewpoint to others	33	3.58	1.03
Personal time management skills	31	3.52	1.09
How to get program support from other organizations	32	3.47	1.22
How to look at an issue or decision critically	33	3.42	1.00
Social interaction skills	34	3.42	.99
Conflict management and mediation skills	32	3.38	1.13
Skills that help at home	34	3.24	1.13
How local government works	31	3.16	1.24
Skills that help at school and/or work	34	3.15	1.21
How to run an effective meeting	32	3.06	1.16
Volunteer Experience:			
Would invite friends or family members to volunteer	34	4.53	.51
Gained personal satisfaction from the social interactions	34	4.32	.68
Is now more likely to take action when there are problems in the community	34	4.06	.74
Improved personal self-confidence	34	3.56	.75
Improved ability to lead others	33	3.45	.83
Volunteer Resource Manager Effectiveness			
Helped to ensure that volunteer meetings were productive	33	4.36	.74
Provided opportunities to communicate with other organizations or government officials	33	4.21	.99
Provided timely and useful information related to program	33	4.15	1.12
Developed others' leadership skills	33	3.88	.96
Value of Volunteer Experience			
Working with community members	34	4.65	.54
Seeing something that volunteers worked on actually happen	34	4.62	.65
Meeting new people	34	4.32	.77
Learning new things or developing skills	34	4.24	.86
Recognition in the community for volunteers' efforts	33	3.30	1.33

Code Rating: 5 = very much; 1 = not very much

Volunteer Administration: Professional Practice

Keith Seel, Editor

2010, Markham, Ontario, Canada:

Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration (CCVA) & LexisNexis Publishing
(500 Pages, \$75.00, ISBN: 9780433462224)

Reviewed by Ryan J. Schmiesing, Ph.D.

The Council for the Certification in Volunteer Administration (CCVA) has served as the vehicle for the Certified in Volunteer Administration (CVA) credential and now has an outstanding publication as the primary resource for volunteer resource managers. As the profession of volunteer resource management continues to grow, this text will be important for those seeking the credential as well as those in the academic, consultant, trainer, and practitioner community.

The book is arranged according to the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration's (CCVA) core competencies, with respective chapter authors selected based upon their expertise and experience in the respective topic area under the direction of editor Keith Seel, Ph.D. Basically, it is a survey text of the contemporary field of volunteer resource management, and includes the following chapters: (1) Terminology; (2) Ethics – Concepts and Definitions; (3) Ethical Decision-Making; (4) Strategic Management of Volunteer Programs; (5) Operational Management; (6) Volunteer Staffing and Development; (7) Sustaining Volunteer Involvement; (8) Meeting Management; (9) Financial Management; (10) Data Management; (11) Evaluation and Outcome Measurement; (12) Risk Management; (13) Quality Improvement; (14) Leadership for Nonprofit Organizations; (15) Organizational Involvement; (16) Advocacy in Volunteer Administration; (17) Community Collaboration and Alliances;

and (18) A History of the Profession of Volunteer Administration. The text is comprehensive in nature and includes the most critical components necessary for an individual to be successful as a volunteer resource manager.

The book begins with a chapter focused on terminology and addresses the issue of “title”. No less than nine different titles are identified and the chapter authors readily acknowledge that “we have been having this debate for decades and are no closer to agreement than before” (pg. 4). The authors outline criteria for professionalization and detail the progress made and the challenges that lie ahead. Ethical issues are an important component as professions and organizations grow and evolve and the chapter authors relate ethics to risk for organizations, which is sometimes never correlated by professionals. Tied directly to the discussion on ethics is that of ethical decision-making. The framework and worksheets for ethical decision-making provided to the reader outline specific steps and questions to consider.

The strategic management of volunteer programs chapter provides several key ideas that the reader will find useful, including key questions to further understand and assess program context. This particular chapter is full of questions that the volunteer resource manager will find useful in the planning and development phase and guides the reader on using the questions at the appropriate time and situation. Related to the strategic management chapter is a

chapter on operational management. A key aspect of this chapter is the alignment or fit with the mission and vision of the organization. A useful diagram is provided that highlights key considerations for program planners.

The volunteer staffing chapter is appropriately placed in this text as the editor recognized that it was necessary to set the stage, before addressing the staffing (position descriptions, interviews, etc.) issues, which is all too often the first thing identified when considering the development and/or review of a volunteer led program. An area of growing interest and importance is sustaining volunteer engagement and the text provides ample reviews of theories (e.g., Needs Theory; Theory X/Theory Y; etc.) and most importantly, implications to the volunteer resource manager. The authors clearly tie the need to understand individual and group needs, using strategies from the staff chapter, to sustain volunteer engagement.

Meeting management is an important competency for any volunteer resource manager to fully understand. Of significant interest to readers will be the sample agendas comparing the typical board of director's agenda to that of the strategic board of director's agenda. Meeting management and how volunteer resource managers effectively engage organizational leadership is important, as is the role that both paid and volunteer staff has with financial and data management. Recognizing the importance of understanding financial management and effective practices, the author provides examples of management techniques and practices that can easily be adopted by an organization. Additionally, the fact that more and more volunteer organizations collect, store, and need significant amounts of data, the authors provide strategies for

management and acknowledge the privacy issues that must be considered.

Evaluation and accountability are major areas that are necessary, but often misunderstood by many, including practitioners and academicians. The author of this chapter details both basic concepts and more complex strategies to consider. Four fundamental questions are presented that volunteer resource managers should consider before beginning any program evaluation; furthermore, tools, resources, and examples of how program managers might use data that they have on hand or that they have recently collected are provided.

Risk management continues to be important and the basic concepts and strategies on how to evaluate different situations, including the types of questions to ask, remain relevant for all professionals and leads nicely into the chapter on quality improvement. The importance of quality improvement is clearly articulated by the authors with their suggested strategy for evaluating quality, including who to engage in the process(es). The quality improvement chapter provides the critical analysis of the organization that will lead to significant impact on volunteer engagement, sustainability, donor activity, and partnership development/growth.

While the concepts of leadership versus management may be debated forever, the author emphasizes the importance of the volunteer resource manager understanding the motivational foundation of volunteers and how their own leadership abilities help foster volunteer motivation. The discussion on leadership and management evolves into the chapter on organizational involvement. In this chapter, readers are challenged to look beyond their traditional resources to embrace diversity, in many forms. The author presents critical points to consider when evaluating how inclusive the organization is and how it might expand

opportunities. Readers are challenged to review policies, practices, and procedures to determine if they are actually serving as barriers to enhancing organizational capacity.

Volunteer resource managers find themselves serving as advocates for volunteer engagement and often do not even realize it when they are carrying-out their day-to-day activities. Key strategies and resources are provided, in this chapter, including the types of “background” information and research that must be done to effectively advocate. Building and strengthening partnerships and relationships can be a direct result of effective advocacy. Potential strategies to build partnerships, relationships, and alliances are provided and tied to volunteer engagement and sustainability.

It is important to understand the history of any profession or organization and often times, it may appear that individuals struggle to honor important components or

the work of others before them. It seems appropriate that, in this case, the history of the profession is the last chapter as it allows the reader to focus on the future, rather than getting entrenched in the past. The chapter shows the evolution of the profession of the volunteer administrator and the importance in growing and strengthening the profession.

In summary, this text provides a wealth of practical information supported by appropriate literature, research, and experiences of the individual chapter authors. While targeted specifically for those seeking to obtain their certification credentials, it is also a valuable text that many others in the profession of volunteer resource management will find valuable and useful.

About the Reviewer

Ryan J. Schmiesing, Ph.D. currently serves as the Director of Programs for the Ohio Community Service Council with primary responsibility for AmeriCorps programs in Ohio. With more than 14 years of non-profit, government, and community-based experience, Ryan has experience administering volunteer programs on the county, state, and national level. Ryan is a graduate of The Ohio State University where he focused his studies on volunteer engagement, research and statistics, and program development and administration. He serves currently as Associate Editor of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration*.

**Courses, Certificates, and Credentials:
New Graduate Distance Professional Development Resources
for Volunteer Resource Managers**

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Abstract

The authors describe three new distance-based graduate academic program opportunities recently implemented by North Carolina State University that are professional development resources available to any volunteer resource manager (VRM). First, five 3-credit graduate courses are described addressing critical VRM professional competencies, that may be taken for personal/professional development. Secondly, a university-based 12-credit graduate Certificate in Volunteer Management and Administration is offered that strengthens a VRM's current competencies or professional resume. Thirdly, distance Master's Programs in Family Life and Youth Development with both thesis (36 credits) and non-thesis (30 credits) options allow a student to further concentrate in volunteer management and administration. Important application requirements and procedures are described for each opportunity.

Key Words:

volunteer resource management, courses, certificate, credentials,
professional development, distance education

Introduction

As early as 1983, Agnello stated that "The need for competent, professional volunteer administrators is increasing, however, the supply of trained volunteer administrators is critically less than the demand" (p. 29). For more than 35 years, academic coursework, programs, and credentialing targeted toward volunteer resource managers (VRMs) have been discussed (Agnello, 1984; Anderson &

Dougans, 1973; Callahan, Gaston, & Hoover, 2002; Miller & Rittenberg, 1983; Walker & Smith, 1977). Until the past decade, VRMs were often limited in their access to such university-based professional development opportunities due to barriers of time, access, and distance.

However, using distance education technologies, North Carolina State University (NC State) in Raleigh has recently implemented three new distance

education graduate (i.e., post baccalaureate) programs targeted to VRMs, especially those working with community-based youth and family programs. As a land-grant university, NC State's mission includes the extension of its academic and research programs into communities, helping to address societal needs and strengthen community capacity. These three new distance academic programs seek to actively engage and strengthen VRMs working in our nation's communities while connecting them to the teaching, research and Extension resources of NC State's Raleigh campus.

The new programs are administered by the Department of 4-H Youth Development and Family and Consumer Sciences as part of the larger graduate program in Family Life and Youth Development (FYD) and are designed to meet the needs of each individual student. For a VRM, new opportunities exist to:

- 1) Take graduate courses for personal/professional development or continuing professional education purposes;
- 2) Become certified by NC State in Volunteer Management and Administration; and/or
- 3) Pursue a Master's degree in Family Life and Youth Development with a concentration in Volunteer Management and Administration.

All FYD courses are taught via distance education. While the majority of courses are currently taught via synchronous distance (i.e., students and instructor online at the same time) using a webinar program (Elluminate), some are currently taught asynchronously via the Internet. However, within the next year, all FYD courses will be taught asynchronously (i.e., available 24/7 with limited/no required synchronous student/instructor interaction).

All FYD courses are based in contemporary theory, but have very applied

academic objectives and course requirements. All FYD course graduate professors have extensive real-life experience working in youth and family settings, and constantly seek to make their courses relevant and meaningful for practitioners in the field.

A visit to the Department's web site at go.ncsu.edu/fcsprogram provides complete information. However, following are brief descriptions of three different academic and professional development opportunities provided by the FYD Program especially targeted for VRMs.

Graduate Courses in VRM for Personal/Professional Development

The holistic graduate program in FYD consists of 22 credit courses offered during 15-week semesters. All but three of these courses are taught using distance technologies. Two graduate FYD courses are especially relevant for current and future VRMs:

1) FYD 590: *Special Topics in FYD: Volunteerism in Youth and Family Settings* is taught during spring semesters (i.e., 15 weeks from January through May) in even-numbered years by Dr. Harriett Edwards. This asynchronous distance course is designed to prepare current and future VRMs to better engage volunteers in local program service delivery. Specific foci include volunteerism as a social phenomenon; volunteer program management; new forms of volunteerism; and future trends in volunteerism.

2) FYD 590: *Special Topics in FYD: Contemporary Issues in Volunteer Resource Management* is also taught by Dr. Edwards in fall semesters (i.e., 15 weeks from August through December) in even-numbered years. This asynchronous distance course explores current issues and trends impacting volunteer involvement in community-based organizations. Students examine

contemporary research related to trends, evaluate historical and current social phenomena to understand their impact upon volunteer involvement, and proactively engage in assessments to consider future challenges for volunteer administration.

Other FYD courses are also very applicable to VRM professional competencies as defined by Seel (2010) and the Council for Certification in Volunteer Administration (CCVA) including:

- 1) FYD 550: *Youth and Family Professionals as Leaders* taught each fall semester. This synchronous distance course examines the application of classic and contemporary theories and models of leadership to the work of community-based organizations, including those engaging volunteers. Students examine leadership from diverse perspectives; then analyze the strengths and weaknesses of leadership theories and models when applied to organizational development of community-based systems.
- 2) FYD 552: *Program Development and Evaluation in Youth and Family Settings* taught by Dr. R. Dale Safrit each spring semester. This synchronous distance course explores historical and contemporary foundations of program development and evaluation in non-formal, community-based settings including theory, research, and three holistic program development constructs: 1) planning; 2) design and implementation; 3) impact evaluation and accountability. The course content is especially viable for contemporary volunteer-based programs and organizations.
- 3) FYD 554: *Collaborations and Partnerships in Youth and Family*

Settings taught by Dr. Mitzi Downing in fall semesters of even-number years. This synchronous course would help VRMs better establish, lead, and manage collaborations and partnerships involving volunteer-based organizations. Specific foci include types and levels of partnerships; environmental scanning and socio-organizational linkage; contextual factors affecting community collaborations; leadership factors affecting community collaborations; and human, financial and programmatic management in collaborations.

- 4) FYD 559: *Administration and Supervision of Youth and Family Programs* taught each spring semester by Dr. Kim Allen. This asynchronous distance course addresses fundamental concepts and theories of administration and management with emphasis given to organizing and managing human resources and including business operations, planning, decision-making, organizing, staffing, communicating, motivating, leading, and controlling.

Anyone with a bachelor's degree may enroll in any FYD course as a Non Degree Studies (NDS) student. Students may enroll in courses as NDS students without being formally accepted into the program as degree students. NDS students register through NC State's Office of Continuing Education; for more information, please visit <http://www.ncsu.edu/nds/index.html> Tuition rates for distance courses at NC State are based upon credit hour enrollment and may be found at <http://www.fis.ncsu.edu/cashier/tuition/de.as>
p

Specialized Graduate Certificate in Volunteer Management and Administration

As one of seven total distance-based graduate FYD certificate programs, the Department offers a Graduate Certificate in Volunteer Management and Administration. This Certificate is an excellent professional development opportunity for VRMs currently holding either a Bachelor's or a Master's degree, yet seeking to expand or refresh her/his professional competence or strengthen her/his resume in volunteer resource management.

The Certificate requires 12 hours (i.e., four three-hour courses) of graduate coursework including three required FYD courses (9 credits) and one elective FYD course (3 credits). The required courses include the two described previously as well as FYD 556: *Organizational Systems in Youth and Family Settings* that is taught by Dr. Edwards in fall semesters in odd-numbered years.

Applicants must meet at least one of the three following requirements to apply to a FYD graduate Certificate program: 1) Be a graduate of an accredited four-year college or university, and have a cumulative GPA of at least 2.75 at the time of graduation; 2) Be a degree student in good standing in a NC State University graduate program; or 3) Currently have a master's degree. Students accepted to the Volunteer Management and Administration Certificate program must submit official transcripts prior to full acceptance. Transfer credit from other programs is not allowed for these certificate programs. Students must have a minimum cumulative grade point average (GPA) of 3.00 on all certificate course work completed as part of the Certificate. The minimum grade to receive credit for a Certificate course taken is "C" (2.0). All certificate requirements must be completed within four calendar years, beginning with

the date the student commences the first course toward the certificate.

Prospective students apply online, submit a personal statement, and pay a \$25 application fee. Please visit either the NC State Graduate School web site (<http://www.ncsu.edu/applygrad>) or NC State Distance Education web site (<http://distance.ncsu.edu/programs/graduate-certificate-programs.php>) to access an online Certificate program application. For more detailed information and application procedures regarding the Certificate programs, please see <http://www.ces.ncsu.edu/depts/4hfcs/academics/cert/index.html>

Graduate Credentials Concentrating in Volunteer Administration and Management

In addition to the graduate Certificate programs, the Department also offers two distance-based graduate programs leading to a Master's degree credential in Family Life and Youth Development. The Master of Science in Family Life and Youth Development (M.S. in FYD) requires 36 total credit hours of course work, including a culminating thesis and oral examination. An M.S. degree would allow a student to continue in his/her academic career to pursue a doctoral or professional degree some time in the future. For details regarding the M.S. program, please see <http://www.ces.ncsu.edu/depts/4hfcs/academics/Dale/MS%20in%20FYD.html>. The Master of Family Life and Youth Development (M.R. FYD) requires only 30 hours of course work and a culminating oral exam and capstone experience/project. The M.R. is deemed a terminal degree (i.e., the student does not plan to pursue a doctoral or professional degree in the future). For detailed information please see <http://www.ces.ncsu.edu/depts/4hfcs/academics/Dale/MR%20in%20FYD.html>.

In both Master's options, a current or future VRM could concentrate in Volunteer Management and Administration. As with the Certificate program, the concentration would involve 9-12 hours of course work as described previously counting toward the required minimum hours to graduate.

Individuals apply through NC State via the normal NC State University Graduate School admissions procedures. Applications for both degree programs are reviewed by the Department twice each year on March 15 and October 15. The NC State Graduate School requires a minimum of a 3.00 GPA (on a 4.00 scale) in the undergraduate program to apply to a graduate program. In addition to the required Graduate Application and application fee, the Graduate School requires three academic references and a 500-800 word Statement of Current/Future Career Goals. The Department requires GRE scores not more than five years old and prefers a cumulative GRE score of at least 1000 (under the system current as of 2010). However, exceptions to the minimum grade point average and lower-than-desired GRE scores may be made for students with special backgrounds, abilities, circumstances, and interests.

For general NC State Graduate School applications and admissions policies/information, please see <http://www.ncsu.edu/grad/handbook/applications-and-admissions.html> For more information regarding the Master's programs offered in FYD please see go.ncsu.edu/fcsprogram . For specific questions not addressed by these web pages, feel free to contact the Department's Director of Graduate programs, Dr. R. Dale Safrit.

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Should Our Organization Take a Chance on Tweets?

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Abstract

Staying abreast of social media and networking tools, and evaluating whether they can aid a volunteer organization, are daunting tasks. Social media may all sound like a panacea, but what are the realities of fully embracing these new technologies and are there repercussions for not bringing our volunteer programs into the contemporary technological era? The authors present questions, concerns, strengths, and challenges for volunteer-driven programs and their managers and administrators in an era of social media networking.

Key Words:

social media, networking, technology

Introduction

Twitter, Facebook, MySpace, LinkedIn, Wikipedia, YouTube, blogging . . . keeping up with the evolving list of social media and networking tools is a daunting task for any volunteer resource manager (VRM). More important than just navigating these new technological tools is figuring out whether utilizing what's out there is a good fit for enhancing volunteer-driven programs and organizations. For more than two decades, experts in the field of volunteer resource management have written about contemporary trends in volunteerism and volunteer resource management, including technology, and their impacts upon volunteer programs and volunteer participation (Allen, 2006; Cravens, 2006; Merrill, 2002; Safrit & Merrill, 2002). These

references to emerging technology helped form best practices for utilizing distance learning to support volunteer orientation and training; created cutting edge positions to allow for virtual participation; and, focused VRMs upon updating recruitment strategies to take advantage of new and emerging technologies. Yet few VRMs have been fully prepared for the impact of new social media on volunteer programs.

Contemporary authors suggest that new media provide a venue for scholarly discussion, relationship building, and popularization of research (O'Conner, Balasubramanyan, Routledge, & Smith, 2010; Skipper, 2006; Walker, 2006). Social networking outlets provide volunteer groups an additional platform from which to organize programs, share ideas, motivate

individuals, and mobilize efforts that may supplement rather than supplant traditional outreach methods. It may all sound like a panacea, but what are the realities of fully embracing these new technologies, and are there repercussions for not bringing volunteer programs into the contemporary technological era of social networking?

Defining social media involves combining two distinct concepts. “Social” refers to the interaction of humans, while “media” is basically a technology where data or information are stored or delivered (Carton, 2009). Thus, social media are simply technologies that facilitate conversations, and by extension, a social network is a community of individuals or organizations linked increasingly through technology to facilitate conversations. In response to *Salmonella* outbreaks in Washington State associated with queso fresco, Bell, Hillers and Thomas (1999) developed a volunteer program utilizing existing social networks of the affected community, which was largely Hispanic. The researchers created a food safety practices program that was to be delivered through individuals trusted in the Hispanic community – abuelas, or older grandmother-like Hispanic women. The flow of information from abuelas, a trusted source with compelling information, to the rest of the community is analogous to the online social networks that can be fostered and developed by other volunteer groups.

As we work with high school and college students and recruit volunteers who have grown up adept at using digital technology as part of their day-to-day lifestyle, we must acknowledge that their skills, aptitudes, and attitudes differ from those of our more “mature” colleagues (Betts & Glogoff, 2005; Clark & Clark, 2009). Volunteering doesn’t happen in a vacuum and there are unknown implications for volunteer programs and the profession of

volunteer resource management as we apply the strengths and challenges of social media to our volunteers and our organizations (Ellis, 2004),

Pros and Cons of Using Social Media Networks

As with any contemporary trend, there are advantages and disadvantages to consider. We would suggest the following strengths and challenges for using social media in volunteer-based programs; however, as these media continue to evolve, new strengths and challenges will continue to evolve as well.

Strengths

- 1) Social media create opportunities for instant communication and dissemination of program information to and among volunteers. This instant access may be as simple as a tweet to update volunteers about a changed work location, a Facebook posting to remind volunteers about what to bring with them to a worksite, or a blog entry to share information to help recruit additional volunteers for a specific event.
- 2) Immediate responses and feedback with the ability to create synchronous and asynchronous dialogue are easily achieved through social media. Utilizing these tools to post volunteer success stories, share photos, praise volunteers, and announce future opportunities based upon positive experiences can enhance engagement internally and externally to a volunteer group. These are also mechanisms that volunteers may use to share individual ideas and attitudes about their experiences as a volunteer with your organization.
- 3) Text, images, and sound are easily combined using social media to create interesting messages involving printed words, visual imagery, and sound. Including photos and graphics can help to build curiosity, help support volunteer response, and help to tell the organization’s

story to the public in support of future projects and activities. Research reveals that the use of stories and verbal narratives is more effective in providing information than prescriptive messages or numerical statistics alone (Lordley, 2007; Morgan, Cole, Struttman, & Piercy, 2002; Paivio, 1978).

4) Utilizing social media appeals to younger audiences for volunteer recruitment and engagement purposes. Research suggests that younger volunteers are drawn to causes rather than organizations (Kanter & Fine, 2010), and that providing information via social media reaches these potential volunteers more effectively than print or other marketing outlets. Effectively pitching the organization, its mission, and the specific service options available via social media contributes to a more immediate response among younger generations.

5) Emerging technology is designed for effective management regardless of individual VRM technical capacity; in other words, most social media are user-friendly and easily learned. As with anything, practice and training will help to develop greater aptitude and more effective utilization, but the technology is not so intimidating as to push new users away.

Challenges

1) Risk management and liability issues are identified almost daily in association with various social media, including everything from breaches in database controls, to posting photos without media releases, to tagging Facebook photos for links to other pages, and the list goes on. Those in the legal profession will tell you that even as new risks are identified and strategies developed to manage them, new risks surface. Do the risks of using social media outweigh the benefits? Conventional wisdom seems to be in favor of using the technology; just ask the over 500 million users of Facebook (Facebook, 2010).

2) Social media must first be “social.” It implies that human time is invested to share information and ideas, and to insure there is a consistent flow to keep connected. Is it detrimental for an organization to indicate that there are Facebook, Twitter and other social sites affiliated with that organization, yet to not invest the time and energy needed to keep those sites populated with information and activities? Are blogs where information hasn’t been posted in more than two months really relevant to volunteers?

3) Utilizing technology as a sole outreach method may create challenges for volunteers who are not comfortable with technology from a social media perspective. There are still individuals who are not ready to post personal information in a platform where they are unsure who the audience is.

Summary and Conclusions

Social media is the new way to connect to a global community. Volunteer programs and organizations that find ways to capitalize on these new communication strategies will thrive in further engaging volunteers, while those who do not find ways to adapt will be left behind. As we consider how best to support our volunteer-driven organizations and our individual volunteers related to use of social media, there are some questions we would pose to leaders in the field to continue the dialogue we have initiated in this article.

1) Are we going to chase away potential volunteers who are not comfortable with social media by focusing too much time and energy on developing social media networks?

2) How can we build capacity within our volunteer groups to create social media strategies and support the use of available tools to enhance participation by volunteers?

3) If there are digital divides related to both skill and access, how will our volunteer-based organizations continue to support traditional outreach mechanisms while investing in new social media?

4) How much information should be made public about our organizations and/or our volunteers?

5) What types of policies and standards should be applied to volunteers and/or paid staff in our organizations regarding their use of social media? Should these policies and standards extend to their personal social public information as well as their professional postings?

As with any contemporary trend, time will reveal myriad uses and the very open-source, sharing nature of the Internet will provide a place to further discuss best practices, barriers and successes related to using social media in volunteer-based programs.

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A Systematic Approach for Volunteer Assignment and Retention

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Horace W. Sawyer, Ed.D.

(Editor's Note: no current contact information available)

(Editor-generated) Abstract

The authors describe a detailed process using various occupational resources in the placement of volunteers in an organization. Specific focus is placed on the matching of volunteer skills and abilities and the requirements of the volunteer position.

(Editor-generated) Key Words:

volunteer placement, Dictionary of Occupational Titles, volunteer retention

As directors of volunteer services can expect greater responsibility and recognition in the future (Alderman, 1983), the effective utilization of personnel is certain to be a challenge to anyone whose job includes the recruitment and assignment of volunteers. After job descriptions have been developed in an agency, volunteers must be recruited and selected to fulfill the specific tasks of work assignments. Henderson (1983) stresses the importance of matching the volunteer's abilities and skills with the organization's tasks. In analyzing the scope of tasks in the organization, tasks may be assigned according to function, in other words, tasks to be performed (a) with people, (b) with things, and (c) with data. Categories of volunteers can then be related to those tasks (Lauffer & Gorodezky, 1977). For example, home visits and initial interviews are examples of tasks performed with people; repairing wheelchairs and designing brochures relate to tasks performed with things; and evaluating the effectiveness of the service program is an example of a task performed with data (Lauffer & Gorodezky, 1977).

Consideration must be given to designing work assignments for volunteers

that divide responsibilities into manageable and interesting combinations of tasks (Naylor, 1973). Naylor further stresses than an often occurring mistake made with volunteers is underplacement. Assigning very capable people to trivial responsibilities or experienced individuals to routine tasks in an unrelated area results in individuals becoming dissatisfied with their volunteer activities. Instead of starting at the bottom, a volunteer should be placed appropriately from the beginning to make immediate use of the training and experience the individual brings to the agency (Naylor, 1973). Roepke (1983) offers support for this approach in a study reporting that when volunteers are assigned to task force groups utilizing special skills to respond to specific needs, they reported higher levels of satisfaction. These individuals consistently reported that their volunteer efforts were meeting their expectations, providing a good feeling about themselves, and offering an opportunity to feel fulfilled.

Individuals tend to volunteer with certain kinds of expectations that provide a motivational climate for the person (Henderson, 1983). Volunteers with a salaried work history often relate

expectations in a volunteer role to work values held in their past or continuing work experiences. For example, a retired individual who had high recognition needs in his or her work history, may well need a volunteer role that will produce admiration from others and continued recognition for accomplishments in his or her life. The identification of expectations usually occurs in the screening process and orientation session. If expectations based on personal goals and past work values are not identified in the beginning, the expected motivational climate may not develop for the new volunteer.

The purpose of this article is to present the director of volunteer services a systematic approach for effective utilization and retention of volunteers. This approach is based on the skills and abilities volunteers develop through work and life experiences and, also, expectations derived from values and personal goals to provide an appropriate motivational climate for the prospective volunteer.

Job Analysis Resources

Saxon and Roberts (1983) presented a discussion on the effective utilization of an individual's past work in relation to future job alternatives based on a transferable skills and abilities profile. By obtaining a work history from each volunteer and also considering his or her past hobbies, recreational activities, and past volunteer positions, the same concept may be applied to the selection and assignment of volunteer workers. According to Saxon and Roberts, an in-depth work history should include, at least, the following information for each job:

- Job title
- Description of work performed (including processes, and materials)
- Length of employment
- The factors most and least liked by the individual

Once this information is collected, a skills and abilities profile can be constructed using resource materials. These resource materials include the *Dictionary of Occupational Titles (DOT)* (U.S. Department of Labor, 1977); *Guide for Occupational Exploration (GOE)* (U.S. Department of Labor, 1979); and *Selected Characteristics of Occupations Defined in the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (SCO)* (U.S. Department of Labor, 1981).

The *DOT* is based on more than 75,000 on-site analyses and contains approximately 20,000 jobs from the work world. The *DOT* presents a systematic description of each job and lists the level of worker involvement concerning data, people, and things for each job. The job data in the *DOT* is presented in six basic parts for each job description.

- The Occupational Code Number
- The Occupational Title
- The Industry Designation
- Alternate Titles (if any)
- The Body of the Definition
 - Lead statements
 - Task elements statements
 - "May" items
- Undefined Related Titles (if any)

The levels concerning work involvement with data, people, and things are described numerically by the middle three of the nine digit occupational code (Table 1).

A major benefit of the *DOT* is in determining worker transferable potential into alternative jobs. Meanwhile, the *GOE* organizes and places each job into one of 12 interest areas with further division into 66 work groups, describing the skills and abilities needed to perform jobs within each work group. The *GOE* provides information under five headings:

1. What kind of work would you do?
2. What skills and abilities do you need for this kind of work?
3. How do you know if you would like or could learn to do this kind of work?

4. How can you prepare for and enter this kind of work?
5. What else should you consider about these jobs?

A specific four-digit code identifies each work group. Jobs included within a work group in the *GOE* “are of the same general type of work and require the same adaptabilities and capabilities of the worker” (p. 1).

The *SCO* provides specific information concerning physical demands (e.g., strengths, worker movement of objects and self); environmental conditions (e.g., location of the job, temperature, hazards, dust); mathematical and language development (e.g., functioning levels in reading, writing, speaking and mathematics); and specific vocational preparation (the amount of time required to become an average worker in that position).

After the new volunteer is interviewed and a work history obtained, these resource materials may be used. It should be noted that the resource materials have instructions in each book for complete use and that only part of the total information available is used in this approach.

Specific Steps in Using Resource Materials

Each job listed in the volunteer’s personal work history is located in the *DOT*. This is accomplished by looking up each job in the “Alphabetical Index of Occupational Titles” beginning on page 965. A nine digit occupational code is given for each job and is then used to locate the job and is then used to locate the actual job description in the body of the *DOT*. Jobs in the body of the *DOT* are presented in numerical order. When locating a specific job in the *DOT*, the industry designation as well as the job definition must be carefully compared to the volunteer’s verbal report. Selecting a correct

job title in an inappropriate industry will result in the construction for a false profile for the volunteer.

Jobs may also be located within the *DOT* using the “Occupational Titles Arranged by Industry Designation” beginning on page 1157. Industry designations are presented alphabetically with alphabetical listings of occupational titles included under each.

In the *GOE*, the job title is located in the “Alphabetic Arrangement of Occupations,” beginning on page 336. In addition to the nine digit occupational code, which may be used to verify that it is the same job as in the *DOT*, a six-digit *GOE* code is listed. The first two digits of the *GOE* code identify interest areas and the second two digits categorize the job into work groups. Skills and abilities are presented for each of the 66 work groups. After the volunteer’s job has been located in the appropriate work group, the presented skills and abilities are compared to the volunteer’s description of his/her work to determine the appropriate ones.

The *SCO* indicates the length of time required to complete the specific vocational preparation period. Once an individual has been trained for this length of time, it is assumed that the skills and abilities required on that job are present.

The following is a summary of specific steps in identifying a volunteer’s skills and abilities through vocational resource materials:

- Locate job title and nine-digit occupational code and verify job description in *DOT*.
- Locate the six-digit code and determine appropriate skills and abilities in *GOE*.
- Verify completion of specific vocational preparation period in *SCO*.

Work Values

Since volunteers are “workers,” work values appear to be important considerations in the utilization and retention of these individuals. According to Super (1970), work values are “those attributes or qualities we consider intrinsically desirable and which people seek in the activities in which they engage “ (p. 4). A volunteer’s work values reflect individual needs and satisfaction of these needs provide important motivation to maintain a work assignment. Since many volunteers have an established work history, certain work values have been established by individuals who, through volunteer activities, will continue to strive for satisfaction of these needs. In other cases, individuals will strive to satisfy intrinsic needs through volunteer activities that cannot be satisfied in their present paid employment.

Certain personal values have been identified through research that relates to major dimensions of a person’s domain (Knapp & Knapp, 1978). These value dimensions include investigative, practical, independent, leadership, orderliness, recognition, aesthetic, and social. The following is a summary of the above value dimensions as reflected and measured by the Career Orientation Placement and Evaluation Survey (Knapp & Knapp, 1978):

1. Investigative: This dimension is characterized by the values of intellectual curiosity and the challenge of solving a complex task. Individuals scoring on this scale value concrete and well-defined ideas that generate observable results of their efforts.
2. Practical: Appreciation of reality-based, practical and efficient ways of doing things and maintaining environmental property are primary values in this dimension. Low scorers on this scale look to others to
- take care of property and maintain things in good working order.
3. Independent: This dimension reflects a need for independence from rules and regulations and the freedom to be self-directed by social obligations. Persons with low scores on this scale value supervised activities that involve clear directions and regulations.
4. Leadership: Supervising, decision-making, and group direction are valued functions on this dimension. High scorers on this scale seek levels of importance and positions of leadership while low scorers value activities in which they can participate without having to direct others.
5. Orderliness: Characteristics of this dimension include keeping things orderly and meeting expectations of the work assignment. Individuals with low scores on this scale value activities in which they can take things as they come an assignments that do not require a great deal of structure and orderliness.
6. Recognition: Individuals who seek recognition and the admiration of others, value being well known, and need to be looked up to by other people, score high on this dimensional scale. Low scorer’s value private activities and do not seek high levels of recognition.
7. Aesthetic: Artistic appreciation, emotional sensitivity, and enjoyment of music and the arts are valued functions on this scale. Persons who score low on this scale value activities that do not focus on artistic qualities or primary use of senses and intuition.
8. Social: Working with people, helping others through services,

meeting and getting to know people are valued by individuals with high scores on this dimension. Persons with low scores seek activities involving material objects, as well as assignments requiring limited contacts with others.

The Career Orientation Placement and Evaluation Survey (COPES) is essentially self-administering and results are displayed on a profile that specifies the volunteer's percentile on each work value (Knapp & Knapp, 1978). Use of the COPES or other similar survey should be discussed with each volunteer as a means of identifying appropriate placement options for the individual.

Selection and Assignment Process

The selection and assignment of volunteers may be viewed as a process of matching skills and abilities to requirements, and work values to job activities. To maximize utilization and retention of volunteers, the director of volunteer services is attempting to assign volunteers to activities that meet each person's expectations and needs and that produce high levels of satisfaction. If skills and abilities also match the activity assignment, the value of the volunteer to the agency will be enhanced and the contribution to the agency will be maximized.

The following is an example of the application of this concept of transferable skills and abilities, work compatibility, and expressed work values. Jane D. is a 62-year-old female who has recently presented herself for volunteer activity in a hospital volunteer program but was not sure of what she could offer. She is now retired but had worked for the past 15 years as a remittance clerk for a local electrical company. Before that job she worked for 20 years as a teacher aide in an elementary school with the first grade. She indicated that these two jobs

were her most significant past work, since she had only held several short-term positions as a "helper" before these jobs. On the job as a remittance clerk, she received payment from customers directly or through the mail, recorded the payment and issued receipts and any change due customers, and explained changes to customers. Jane indicated that she liked meeting different individuals, but disliked the recordkeeping aspect of her job. Her job as a teacher aide included assisting the teacher in the preparation and implementation of classroom projects; reading stories; keeping order in the classroom; and assisting students with various classroom assignments. She enjoyed relating to the students in a helpful role, but disliked the supervisory aspect of her work. Jane stated that she enjoys reading and painting landscapes as her major leisure time activities.

The position of remittance clerk has a *DOT* code of 211.462-034 and a *GOE* code of 07.03.01. The *SCO* lists a specific vocational preparation period for this job of "over 30 days up to and including 3 months" (p. 473). According to the *GOE*, an individual would need the following skills and abilities to perform the job of remittance clerk: "use math to make change; use eyes, hands and fingers at the same time to operate an adding machine calculator, or cash register; deal with the public with tact and courtesy; perform work that is routine and organized" (p. 235).

The position of teacher aide has a *DOT* code of 099.327-101 and a *GOE* code of 11.02.01. The *SCO* lists a vocational preparation period of "over 2 years and up to and including 4 years" (p. 473). According to the *GOE*, the following skills and abilities are needed to perform this job: "understand and use the base principles of effective teaching, develop special skills and knowledge in one or more academic

subjects, develop a good teacher-student relationship” (p. 287). The most complex level of data (2), people (2), and things (2) involvement was obtained by combining jobs. This indicated involvement with analyzing data, instructing people, and operating-controlling things. Jane received payment, issued receipts, and any change due customers, and explained charges (example of analyzing data); she assisted students with various classroom assignments (example of instructing people); and she operated a calculator and cash register (example of operating-controlling things).

On the COPES, Jane expressed work values that were consistent with her work background and leisure time activities. Value dimensions with high expressions were social (94th percentile) and aesthetic (85th percentile). Orderliness (55th percentile) and recognition (35th percentile) were expressed at a lower level and other values occurred at below the 10th percentile. As a result, Jane expressed a need to work with people and highly values contact with others. From her interest in art, she values artistic activities.

Based on the above analysis, Jane D. was assigned by the director of volunteer services to the discharge desk in the hospital. Her assignment included the discharging of individual patients from their rooms in a wheelchair, obtaining their prescribed drugs from the hospital pharmacy, and checking them through the finance office. Through this assignment, Jane has an opportunity to interact with patients in a helpful role on an ongoing basis. She was also requested to assist in coordinating the annual art auction, a fundraiser for the hospital. In her volunteer assignment, Jane is therefore able to assume a responsible role commensurate with existing skills, abilities and expressed work values that relate to social expression and aesthetic activities.

Conclusion

The ability to involve volunteers effectively and retain these individuals is a primary goal of directors of volunteer services. In order to achieve this goal, the following objectives are considered important: (1) match the volunteer’s skills and abilities with the agency’s tasks; (2) relate the assignment to the volunteer’s established work values; and (3) involve the volunteer in activities that respond to personal needs and interest. The extent to which these objectives can be achieved with a volunteer will determine the level of volunteer satisfaction and effective agency utilization of the individual.

A systematic approach was presented here to assist the agency in reaching the above objectives. By analyzing transferable skills and abilities from a past work history or present occupation, the agency can match the volunteer to work assignment at an appropriate level. To be motivated in performing and maintaining a work assignment, the volunteer must be able to satisfy a set of established work values and personal need expectancies. An analysis of these values permits the director of volunteer services to select work assignments that will facilitate the retention of volunteers.

Among the significant management functions of the director of volunteer services is the selection and assignment of volunteer personnel. In order to fully utilize volunteers, they must be assigned at an appropriate level and in order to retain them, need expectancies and values must be met, at least to the satisfaction of the volunteer. When both agency satisfaction and volunteer satisfaction exist at significant levels, effective volunteer utilization and retention are greatly enhanced.

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(Original) Editor's Note (from 1984)

The Editorial Reviewers found this article to be thought-provoking and to present our readers with new resource tools. However, questions were raised as to the feasibility of utilizing such a comprehensive profile procedure for most volunteer programs. Dr. Sawyer and Dr. Saxon have not actually field tested this approach with small to mid-sized volunteer programs. THE JOURNAL therefore encourages our readers to write to us with reaction to the ideas presented here. Examples of ways to adapt these vocational tools would be very helpful. Note also that the *DOT*, *GOE*, and *SCO* can be used in conjunction with an assessment of the "true dollar value" of volunteer work assignments as described by G. Neil Karn in his two-part article in THE JOURNAL, Winter 1982-3 and Spring 1983.

About the Authors

(No current information available)

Table 1

Numbers Associated With Data, People and Things in Worker Involvement (DOT)

Data (4th digit)	People (5th digit)	Things (6th digit)
0 Synthesizing	0 Mentoring	0 Setting up
1 Coordination	1 Negotiating	1 Precision working
2 Analyzing	2 Instructing	2 Operating/Controlling
3 Compiling	3 Supervising	3 Driving/Operating
4 Computing	4 Diverting	4 Manipulating
5 Copying	5 Persuading	5 Tending
6 Comparing	6 Speaking-Signaling	6 Feeding/Off-bearing
	7 Serving	7 Handling
	8 Taking Instruction/Helping	

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Training Volunteers to Deliver a Breast Health Programme

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Canadian Cancer Society, Ontario Division, Breast Health Training Programme
(Editor's Note: no current contact information available)

(Editor-generated) Abstract

The authors provide a detailed explanation of the implementation of a breast health training program in conjunction with the Canadian Cancer Society, Ontario Division. The authors discuss the development and delivery of the program, as well as considerations for future training programs.

(Editor-generated) Key Words:

breast health training, Canadian Cancer Society, health promotions training

Historical Background

Since its establishment in 1938, the Canadian Cancer Society (CCS) has placed strong emphasis on the importance of early detection of cancer. Although breast cancer has always been an area of concern, it has taken many years to develop a clear message and an organized programme of delivery. The struggle to establish this programme was affected by both internal and external forces such as:

- the reluctance of the medical community to support breast self examination (BSE) as a valuable health habit;
- the increasing expectations of educated health consumers;
- the increasing frustration on the part of women wishing to exercise control over their own bodies in the area of breast health; and
- the desire of CCS volunteers to respond, but unable to act because of the confusion created by the lack of

consistent research and information from the medical community.

During the 1970s although breast cancer was the leading cause of cancer death of women, women felt powerless to play a part in cancer control. Women did not request examinations from their doctors and rarely practiced self-examination.

By 1989 it was clear that women in Ontario felt the time had come to be more assertive about breast cancer issues. The public demand for information, effective and accessible services, and research into the cause of breast cancer began to escalate. More and more breast cancer survivors began to speak out about the need for early detection, and the media provided a public platform for the debate.

The debate regarding BSE and mammography in the medical community continued. However, there was a growing body of research that supported a multi-faceted approach to early detection of breast cancer. In 1991, the National Board of

Directors of the CCS approved guidelines on mammography, physical breast examination, and a set of recommendations regarding breast self-examination based on the report from the National Workshop on the Early Detection of Breast Cancer in 1988 (The Workshop Group, 1989). At the same time, the Ontario Government launched a major new initiative—the Ontario Breast Screening Program.

The Society recognized that a strong health promotion programme on breast health and the early detection of breast cancer was necessary.

The development of the Canadian Cancer Society, Ontario Division Breast Health Programme

Breast health is defined as “taking personal responsibility for awareness and actions throughout one’s lifespan that can lead to the early detection and treatment of abnormalities that may develop in the breast.”

The Education Committee of the Canadian Cancer Society (Ontario Division) established a Breast Health Working Group with a goal to develop strategies and resources to inform the public about the early detection of breast cancer.

In preparation, the Breast Health Working Group reviewed materials, surveyed volunteers on their experience in delivering breast health messages in their communities, obtaining internal support for the Breast Health Awareness message, began to work with the Division’s Medical Affairs Committee to promote breast health among the health professional community, conducted a worldwide review of existing programmes, and established partnerships with external groups such as the Ontario Breast Screening Program.

In 1992, a Health Promotion Grant from the Ontario Ministry of Health was received to develop a well-planned, high

quality, volunteer delivered Breast Health Awareness Programme in Ontario, which recognized the complexity of the issue.

Two health promotion consultants were hired to develop a breast health training program for CCS volunteers. With the Breast Health Working Group of the Education Committee, they formulated the goals of the program.

Goals of the Breast Health Training Programme

- To provide the women with information and support that will motivate them to adopt positive breast health behaviors.
- To educate women that early detection of breast cancer can save lives.
- To work collaboratively with the community to promote positive breast health behaviors.
- To encourage women to
 - adopt the Canadian Cancer Society—Ontario Division breast health guidelines;
 - act promptly and assertively if there are any breast changes;
 - be more knowledgeable and less fearful about breast cancer;
 - take responsibility for their own breast health.

To effectively deliver this new CCS program a “train-the-trainer” program was developed, with supporting recourse materials, to prepare volunteers in local communities. Two trainers were recruited from each of the nine CCS Regions to train local breast health volunteers to deliver the breast health message.

The train-the-trainer program consists of four parts: targeted recruitment and selection, training the trainers, evaluation, implementation and follow-up.

Targeted Recruitment and Selection

Recruitment was targeted to volunteers who had teaching or training experience and who had knowledge of the topic area, in this case breast health issues.

Two breast health trainers were recruited for each of the nine CCS Regions in the province; the caliber of candidates who applied for training was extremely high.

Prior to beginning recruitment, the desired skills, knowledge, experience and qualities of the trainers were identified. The criteria for recruiting volunteers were carefully selected to enhance the ability of the trainers to relate to a diverse audience targeted for breast health messages.

The criteria included: education, nursing background, experience with volunteers, training experience, community skills, breast cancer personal experience (they must have worked through their feelings and be comfortable with the CCS Guidelines), breast health experience (e.g., Ontario Breast Screening Program, current involvement in breast health programmes, etc.), communication skills, organizational skills, second language, second culture, personality/approachability, female, grooming, and age 40+.

A screening process based on the criteria was set up. A point system was used to assess the qualifications in the selection of the successful candidates. The criteria were weighted based on “essential qualities,” “desirable qualities,” and “nice but not necessary qualities.”

Recruitment was carried out through the local CCS unit offices. Information about the training session, a job description and a clear outline of the recruitment process was given to the staff and senior education volunteers in the local offices. Identifying the benefits of carefully electing recruits and providing the local office with the desired qualifications of prospective trainers were crucial steps in gaining support.

Once the candidates were recruited, interviews were conducted with individuals whose written applications most closely reflected the identified criteria.

The interview provided an opportunity to assess the individuals’ interpersonal skills, willingness to follow CCS guidelines and to get further information about the recruit’s qualifications. It also allowed the candidate to ask questions and clarify expectation of the trainer’s role. The requirements of the position were clearly laid out to the candidates including time, commitment and work expectations.

The interviews were conducted from the provincial office by telephone. In some cases it was difficult to get a clear picture of the candidate. To assist with the screening process the health promotion staff at the regional level were consulted and reference checks were done on all potential candidates.

Once successful candidates were identified, a written contract was signed. The contract clearly outlines the role of the trainer and the role of the Canadian Cancer Society. The contract anticipated a two-year commitment.

Factors for \Success

Recruitment/Selection: targeted recruitment; clearly identified trainer qualifications; candidate interviews; reference checks; and written definition of roles.

Training the trainers: The trainers recruited from each of the CCS Regions were trained to prepare local breast health volunteers in each of the regions to deliver the breast health programme.

The consultants hired to develop the Breast Health Training Programme delivered the first training session.

Setting: The training workshop was held in a quiet, scenic location with a minimum of distractions. It was held for the three days,

starting in the evening of the first day and ending midday on the third day. The large block of time allowed participants to become familiar with the programme content, the principles of adult education, and to practice training and presentation skills in a supportive team environment.

The staff partners for the Breast Health Programme and the health promotion consultants from each of the regions attended a portion of the workshop. This meeting provided an opportunity for staff and volunteers to discuss their complementary roles, their expectations, communication channels, and initial planning for their respective areas.

The schedule was full and demanding; however, the feelings of exhilaration, energy, and accomplishment, and the bonding amongst the participants outweighed the exhaustion experienced by the participants by the end of the three days.

The first night set the stage for a workshop based on the principles of openness, honesty and respect. A warm-up or icebreaker exercise started the evening and expectations for the three days were outlined. The needs of the participants were identified and addressed by making adjustments in the agendas wherever possible and through the use of the “parking lot.” The “parking lot” is a blackboard or flip chart where questions and concerns that cannot be addressed immediately are tabled for further consideration.

Factors for Success

Training: three-day training session; a comfortable, quiet residential setting; involvement of both the provincial and regional staff support; team approach with two trainers from each region; and co-facilitation of the workshop.

B. Content

(a.) Breast Health Content

Because breast health is a concept based on an evolving science, it was important to provide trainers with a clear understanding of which areas are based on proven research, which areas continue to be controversial, and the rationale behind the CCS Breast Health guidelines.

The trainers’ resource manual/edu-kit was circulated prior to the workshop. Participants were asked to familiarize themselves with the content, the background materials, and the resources.

During the workshop, the factual content on breast health was delivered by an external expert in a short presentation with time for questions. The purpose of this segment of the workshop was to allow the participants to gain a comfort level with the baseline information without providing an expectation of expertise.

The information was supported by materials that had been reviewed by a number of experts on the subject. These materials are part of the trainer’s resource manual.

(b.) Adult Education

The principles of adult education were incorporated throughout the workshop. Participants learned through role modeling, group work, utilization of all the learning approaches, e.g., auditory, visual, hands-on.

Topics discussed included: how adults learn, the experiential learning cycle, planning effective workshops, tasks of a trainer, adapting for special audiences, selecting training techniques, controlling individual behaviors, and working with groups.

(c.) Practical Demonstration by Participants and Trainers

The ability to deliver messages clearly and effectively is essential to a good trainer. An integral part of the training was to provide an opportunity for individuals to practice this skill by giving a presentation. The presentations were done in teams of two

and were critiqued by the trainers and a group of their peers. Although this exercise produced anxiety, the insights and learnings gained were valued. Participants were able to learn from the techniques used by their peers, the trainers and through the evaluations of their own styles.

A change in the agenda occurred when the participants requested a demonstration by the trainers of a typical 30-minute breast health presentation. This proved to be a valuable addition to the agenda as it provided an opportunity to role-model excellence.

Factors for success

Content: Pre-circulation and review of resource materials; role model excellence; practical demonstration/skill building; and immediate application, through presentation, of materials learned.

Evaluation

Four aspects/components of the training program were evaluated:

- a. Knowledge—a pre- and post-test were administered to assess the knowledge component of the breast health programme. Key principles were tested and a pass mark of 80% was required. All participants passed the written test.
- b. Demonstration of Skills—Demonstration of one segment from the breast health presentation in the Edu-Kit was used to evaluate the participant's ability to deliver a message clearly and effectively. Feedback was given to participants by both peers and the trainers. Valuable learning occurred through the identification of strengths and weaknesses in their presentation style.
- c. Attitude—The trainers were evaluated on their ability to listen, to adapt materials to diverse learning styles. The results indicated that the participants could apply the learning

principles in different situations, adapting to specific volunteer needs.

- d. The Training Process—Each participant completed an evaluation of the recruitment, selection and the training process. Their comments are reflected in the following section on what we would do differently.

All participants successfully met the requirements for the completion of the training. The dedication of the volunteers is demonstrated by the example of one of the participants who moved out of the province but voluntarily returned to carry out one training sessions. All others are still active as a trainers a year-and-a-half after the training.

The Breast Health Working Group, in conjunction with the Behavioral Research and Program Evaluation Unit of the National Cancer Institute, are currently developing various evaluation tools to assess the Breast Health Programme. The evaluation is to measure the impact of the training on the intended audience.

Key Factors for Success

Evaluation: using a variety of evaluation approaches—i.e., knowledge test, demonstration, observation and process; and evaluation of all aspects of the training program.

Implementation and follow up

Since the training, held in the spring of 1993, all nine regions in the province have held at least one training session for locally recruited volunteers. To date, in total, 17 training workshops have been held and well over 200 volunteers have been trained.

Ongoing supervision is provided by the Health Promotion Consultants in the field. In some areas the trainers have held questions and address concerns of the local volunteers who deliver the program in the community.

The CCS-Ontario Division Breast Health Working Group is available to answer any volunteer and/or trainer questions or concerns. There have been regular mailings to update both groups on new resources and initiatives.

The local volunteers have been extremely active in delivering the breast health message to both women and mixed audiences, in community settings as well as in the workplace. Volunteers are asked to submit report forms and a complete provincial tally indicates in the first year of the training program 225 local volunteers have been trained. These volunteers have been involved in 368 activities, including presentations, special events, media promotions, mall displays, etc. The estimated audience reached is approximately 15,000 people.

What would we do differently next time?

The evaluations of the training were overwhelmingly positive. However, there are a number of areas where we felt the training could and should be strengthened.

Resource materials need to be circulated well in advance of the workshop. This would allow more time for participants to read and digest the content and would facilitate learning during the actual workshop. In addition, because of the complexity of the manual, time should be spent at the beginning of the workshop to walk through the content and layout of the manual with the participants.

Secondly, time should be put into the agenda for a model presentation using the program content. Participants want to see how a "real" presentation is done. The model presentation supplements the peer

presentations, providing a large range of styles from which to choose.

Thirdly, more time should be allowed in the training sessions to discuss and plan how the training program will be implemented in the trainer's home region. This preparation is essential to decrease anxiety about the tasks ahead, to develop action plans and to anticipate road blocks and begin problem solving. The planning would be best facilitated with a staff partner.

A Friday night startup was a struggle for many of the participants. They were tired and stressed from a busy work week. An alternative proposal suggested a later finishing time on Sunday afternoon.

Conclusion

There is a role for volunteers in the delivery of a breast health promotion program at the community level. The important factors to ensure the delivery of a quality program include: (a) the clarity of content area, (b) carefully recruited and selected candidates based on a set of identified criteria, (c) offering skill building opportunities in training, (d) testing to ensure competence and accuracy in message delivery, (e) evaluation, and (f) a mechanism for follow-up support and updating of information. People with skills and interest, given training and support, can greatly contribute to a community-based program.

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About the Authors

At the time of the article's original publication...

Merle Kisby, R.N., B.Sc.N., had been actively involved, for 10 years, with both volunteer and professional training programs. Training programs and train the trainer models had been developed with the Halton Region Health Department, School Smoking Prevention Project, Council for a Tobacco Free Ontario, the Ontario Tobacco Strategy, the Ontario Breast Screening Program and the Canadian Cancer Society, Ontario Division. Merle was principal of Kisby and Colleagues, Health Promotion Specialists. She co-developed the Canadian Cancer Society, Ontario Division Breast Health Programme with Marilyn MacKenzie in consultation with the Societies Breast Health Working Group.

Marilyn MacKenzie, R.N., B.Sc.N., M.Ed. had been a long-term Education Volunteer with the Canadian Cancer Society. She was also a founding partner of Partners Plus, a consulting firm specializing in volunteer management issues. Marilyn developed the Canadian Cancer Society Breast Health Programme with Merle Kisby in consultation with the Societies Breast Health Working Group.

Diane Finkle, M.A. was Manager of Health Promotion for the Ontario Division the Canadian Cancer Society. Diane had been involved in volunteer sector management for over 10 years and had worked for organizations such as the Easter Seal Society, the Red Cross Society, and the Ontario Federation for Cerebral Palsy. Diane has a Master's degree in Canadian Studies and a Certificate in Voluntary Sector and Arts Management from York University in Toronto.

Carolyn Hill, R.N. had 20 years of volunteer involvement with the Canadian Cancer Society, Ontario Division, many of those with the Society's public education programs. Carolyn chaired the working group that developed the Cancer Society's Ontario Breast Health Programme, which was implemented in the spring of 1994. Carolyn trained as a Public Health Nurse at the Hamilton Civic hospital and the University of Western Ontario where she received a Diploma in Public Health Nursing.

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**Volunteer Screening Practices, an Essential Component of Volunteer Management:
Implications from a National Study of Extension Professionals**

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(Editor-generated) Abstract

The author was interested in the way that volunteer administrators screen potential volunteers across the country. Surveys were distributed to Cooperative Extension professionals nationwide in order to determine their current onboarding procedures for volunteers, including the use of reference and background checks, as well as performance reviews and exit interviews.

(Editor-generated) Key Words:

volunteers, screening, selection, Cooperative Extension

Introduction

I have often envied the fact that my farmer husband can readily see the work that he has accomplished during the course of the day and over a period of time. In volunteer leadership, it is difficult to gauge the effectiveness of our work especially when providing statewide leadership to a large, complex volunteer program. It is similar to evaluating a farmer's work by looking at an aerial map of the farm: you can see the big changes but the smaller more subtle changes are hard to detect. Ongoing research is needed to assess the situation, identify needs, and monitor trends in volunteer development.

Given that volunteers are a critical resource for not-for-profit organizations, skilled management is required to interest and retain them, and to provide for the safe and effective involvement of our clientele (McCurley & Lynch, 1996). It is imperative that we continually strive to understand and

incorporate the use of best management practices in volunteer leadership.

Over the past decade, volunteer leadership literature has consistently promoted the use of best management practices when engaging volunteers (Campbell & Ellis, 1995; McCurley & Lynch, 1996; Vineyard, 1996). Severs, Graham, Gamon and Conklin (1997) explain that the incorporation of best management practices is the foundation of an effective volunteer management system. In addition, there has been a repeated need to conduct research in this area (Ellis, 1985; Fisher & Cole, 1993; McCurley, 1994). Yet, as we examine our organizations, can we also document the progress made?

Increasing responsibilities have been assigned to volunteers and the paid staff who work with them. As we have increased the duties of volunteers who work with vulnerable clientele, we have also increased our organizational responsibility to provide effective volunteer screening and

management. Those in volunteer leadership must develop systems to support the work of our volunteers (Vineyard, 1996). Now, more than ever, we must create meaningful volunteer roles based upon local programming needs. Since volunteers partner with paid personnel, their contributions should be recognized, and volunteer directors should remain current with national trends in volunteer development. As volunteer administrators, we should periodically examine our organization to ensure that we are both engaging volunteers at every level and using commonly recognized management practices.

Method

The purpose of this study was to assess the volunteer management practices of Cooperative Extension across the country. Results provide an organizational picture of volunteer screening, management, and involvement practices nationally. The 26-item survey was reviewed by a panel of experts and piloted with local-level volunteer administrators. The instrument was placed online and an electronic letter with the URL was sent to 52 State and Tribal Extension Directors with a request that the person in their system giving direction and leadership to volunteer development complete the survey online. Two weeks later a hard copy of the original letter and a reminder were mailed to states that had not responded to the online questionnaire. Forty-one responses were received for a response rate of 79%.

Summary of Results

Volunteer Involvement

Respondents were asked whether or not their system engaged volunteers in a variety of roles including conducting clerical and/or manual work, identifying educational programming issues or needs, planning

educational programs, delivering educational programs, supervising other volunteers, evaluating educational programs, and marketing extension and/or extension programs. The survey revealed that Extension involved volunteers throughout the educational programming process. In the areas of clerical/manual work, identifying program needs, planning and delivering educational programs, at least 95% responded that they engaged volunteers. However, findings indicated that there are three areas that present opportunities for increased volunteer involvement. Responses from 17.1% of the states indicated that they did not involve volunteers in the supervision of other volunteers. In addition, 9.8% indicated that they do not involve volunteers in the evaluation of educational programs. Lastly, 15% said that they do not engage volunteers in the marketing of Extension programs.

Volunteer Screening and Management

When asked if their organization had established criteria for screening potential volunteers prior to placement, 90% of those responding said they had. However, 29% (12 respondents) indicated they only used the criteria when screening potential youth development volunteers. The remaining 10% responded that their organization did not currently have established criteria for screening potential volunteers prior to placement.

When asked if the screening process was different depending upon the volunteer role, 12 (29%) responded that the process did not differ in relation to volunteer role. Twenty-seven responded that the process in their organization did differ based on volunteer role. Twenty respondents (49%) said that the major difference in the screening process was that potential youth development volunteers were subjected to a more thorough screening process that included

reference checks, interviews, and in some cases background checks.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics: To what extent do Extension professionals in your state employ each listed screening and management practice?

(1= never, 2= seldom, 3= occasionally, 4=most of the time, 5=all of the time)

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Provide volunteer recognition	39	4.54	.682
Enroll volunteers	39	4.38	.782
Provide training opportunities	41	4.17	.863
Interview potential volunteers	41	3.76	.969
Conduct reference checks	41	3.66	1.196
Use position descriptions	41	3.49	.810
Promote volunteers to new roles	40	3.35	.802
Use MOUs	41	3.05	1.264
Conduct state criminal checks	41	2.93	1.555
Review volunteer performance	41	2.85	.989
Disengage ineffective volunteers	41	2.76	.860
Conduct local criminal checks	39	2.33	1.108
Conduct exit interviews	40	2.22	.832
Conduct motor vehicle checks	41	2.12	1.288
Conduct federal criminal checks	39	1.64	1.013

State volunteer administrators were then asked to what extent their staff employed 15 different screening and management practices. The results are summarized in Table 1 in descending order from practices incorporated most often to those used least often.

Results indicate that Extension staff use nonintrusive screening tools more often than intrusive tools (Table 1). Screening tools used most often include the use of position descriptions (mean = 3.49), conducting reference checks on potential volunteers (mean = 3.66), and interviewing potential volunteers (mean = 3.76). It is interesting to note, however, that the means for all questions pertaining to what extent screening tools were used ranged from 1 = never to 3 = occasionally. Additionally, more intrusive screening tools were used less often. Respondents indicated that they seldom or never used local (mean = 2.33), state (mean = 2.93), or federal criminal background check (mean = 1.64). Respondents also said that they seldom (mean = 2.12) conduct motor vehicle checks to assess driving records.

In terms of volunteer management practices, respondents indicate that they enroll volunteers most of the time (mean = 4.38) as well as provide training opportunities (mean = 4.17), and recognition for volunteer contributions (mean = 4.54). However, when asked to what extent they used a written position description (mean = 3.49) or a memorandum of understanding (mean = 3.05) when involving volunteers, respondents indicated that they seldom do. Further, they seldom (mean = 3.35) promote volunteers to new roles. Lastly, results indicate that Extension professionals seldom or never review volunteer performance (mean = 2.85), disengage ineffective volunteers (mean = 2.76), or conduct exit interviews (mean = 2.22) with volunteers as they leave the organization.

Implications for Extension

The volunteer development models most recognized by Extension professionals are the ISOTURE (Boyce, 1971) and the LOOP (Penrod, 1991) models. Both models incorporate volunteer selection, orientation, training, recognition, and evaluation of volunteers as important volunteer management practices. This study highlights the need for Extension, as well as other organizations, to evaluate current volunteer involvement and management practices and to make changes accordingly.

Results of this study reveal that, nationally, Extension emphasizes the use of nonintrusive screening tools, such as conducting reference checks, and interviewing potential volunteers. This mirrors the results of a study of several youth organizations conducted by Schmiesing and Henderson (2001). Each organization must decide when enough is enough and to what degree that these practices enable the volunteer director to effectively screen potential volunteers. The challenge, as described by Graff (1999), is to select the right combination of screening tools based upon the position requirements that generate sound placement decisions. State-level volunteer administrators must keep their fingers on the pulse in deciding to what extent their organization is implementing an effective screening process.

There are both advantages and limitations associated with every screening tool. Volunteer administrators, therefore, must select a set they feel is most appropriate not only for the position but for the organization as well (Graff, 1999). However, volunteer administrators at the local level and the volunteers themselves may consider tools normally considered to be nonintrusive, such as reference checks, to actually be intrusive. Thus, they may choose to incorporate lower-level tools such as the

use of an application. This implies that, in any organization, top-level volunteer administrators should consider conducting routine organizational studies. The results would help to establish benchmark data concerning the use of various screening tools, and offer a means of monitoring organizational trends and staff development needs.

Given that respondents to this study report that their staff incorporate the use of screening tools in a range from never to occasionally, Extension should actively educate volunteer development professionals concerning the need to properly screen potential volunteers. In addition, each state should develop an acceptable screening process and monitor implementation of the process. Effective screening can reduce risk in several ways including the identification of individuals who may not have the necessary skills, thus preventing the placement of those who may do harm, and allowing the best person for the job to be selected (Patterson, 1998).

This study indicates that Extension professionals engage volunteers throughout the Extension educational programming process and that they enroll, offer training opportunities, and recognize volunteers most of the time. Areas in which there are opportunities for growth in volunteer involvement include the higher-level roles such as the marketing of educational programs and the supervision of other volunteers.

Implications for Volunteer Administrators

Even though volunteer administrators at the state level sometimes believe that there is an overemphasis on best management practices in training and research, this study highlights the need for the training and evaluation of the use of these practices. The study indicates that Extension should increase the use of best management practices by developing and using written

volunteer position descriptions, promoting volunteers to new roles, using a Memorandum of Understanding (MOU) with community partners, reviewing volunteer performance, disengaging ineffective volunteers, and conducting exit interviews. In speaking with professionals from other organizations, it appears that these are common areas of concern among managers of volunteers. By increasing the use of best management practices, those providing leadership for volunteers will gain confidence in their skills and will therefore be more likely to place volunteers in more meaningful roles within the organization. Given turnover rates, both paid and volunteer, within nonprofit organizations, it is imperative that the volunteer administrator reinforces these concepts and practices on an ongoing basis.

Volunteer administrators should become more deliberate in developing a process for volunteer evaluation. This process begins with the development and use of written position descriptions. By conducting volunteer evaluations, we can help each volunteer reach their potential while assisting the organization in more effective volunteer engagement (McCurley & Lynch, 1996). Further, volunteers want to know if they are doing a good job and if there are areas in which they can improve. If feedback is not provided, the volunteer will lose respect for the supervisor and the organization (Lee & Catagnus, 1999).

Further Research

This study raises the need for further research in several areas:

1. A discussion point concerning this study is the extent to which a state-level volunteer administrator has knowledge of local volunteer development within their organization. This suggests that top-level volunteer administrators in

similar organizations should be studied to gain a better understanding of their roles responsibilities, and the impact that they have on others within their respective organizations.

2. Research should be conducted to compare volunteer involvement, screening, and management practices in Extension to those of other volunteer organizations. Such research could help volunteer administrators answer the question, "In terms of screening, when is enough really enough?" Further, such research would provide a more realistic view of various volunteer roles and levels of volunteer involvement.
3. Each state Extension organization should conduct similar in-state studies in order to assess training needs, establish benchmark data, and create a picture of the community standard of care for their respective state.
4. Additional research is needed involving successful volunteer administrators across organizations. The resulting information would be valuable to other volunteer organizations as well as people in volunteer leadership roles.
5. Research should be conducted to analyze volunteer administrator motivations involved in engaging volunteers in increasingly more meaningful work.
6. Further research is needed concerning the perceptions that volunteers, potential volunteers, and volunteer administrators at various levels within organizations have concerning the use of various screening tools. Results would be beneficial to volunteer administrators

in selecting the more effective screening process.

Final Thoughts

It is our duty as volunteer administrators to challenge current thoughts and practices and to conduct additional research contributing to the field of knowledge. Given the research that has been conducted over the past 25 years, we can spot the big changes that have occurred. Hopefully, as we continue to plow the fields of volunteer engagement, we can apply current research to improve practices that will not only benefit our organizations but also will ultimately benefit the communities in which we work.

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