The International Journal of Volunteer Administration
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"Volunteerism and the Other Sectors"

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FEATURE ARTICLES

RESEARCH INTO ACTION

Studies of the private sector indicate that psychological contracts develop between employers and employees and play an important role in employee performance and retention. This study explores if the same relationship develops between volunteer workers and the organizations they serve. The findings indicate that the volunteers do develop psychological contracts with their not-for-profit organizations and that volunteers perceiving breaches of the contract decrease the number of hours they work, increase (or perceive an increase in) the quality of their work, and do not reduce their intentions to remain with the organization. Suggestions for managing the psychological contracts of volunteers are included.
Key words: volunteers, psychological contracts, contract breach

IDEAS THAT WORK

An increasing number of Chambers of Commerce depend on Total Resource Campaigns to increase organizational revenue. Total Resource Campaigns (TRCs) are annual volunteer-driven marketing campaigns where chambers sell memberships, marketing, sponsorships, and other services in one package during a designated fundraising period. TRCs rely heavily on personal and team-based incentives to recruit and mobilize volunteers in the fundraising effort. The success of TRCs offers lessons for successful volunteer driven fundraising that can be utilized by other not-for-profits.
Key words: fundraising, total resource campaign, chamber of commerce

COMMENTARY

The author summarizes the historical development of the voluntary sector in Mexico, and discusses the contemporary situation regarding voluntarism, volunteerism, and philanthropy.
Key words: Mexico, voluntarism, volunteerism, philanthropy

This article describes the variety in the Dutch nonprofit/volunteer sector and shows five phases in the development of the Dutch nonprofit sector. The first four phases lead to the development of a huge nonprofit sector which is paid staff dominated. Volunteers play an important role in rendering services in many fields but not in fundraising. Recently, the governmental subsidy system has changed fundamentally leading to pressures on nonprofit and volunteer

FROM THE JOVA ANNALS

setting, how well the volunteer's position utilized her/his talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's/church's mission, a person's satisfaction in volunteering, and the religious and altruistic reasons for volunteering far outweighed material rewards and the desire to have personal needs met. This article adds to the limited literature on church-affiliated volunteers and suggests areas for further study.
Key words: religion, volunteers, church, commitment, Baptist, altruism

Volunteer participation is big business in Texas State Government agencies. A recent study performed by the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service on behalf of the Texas Commission on Volunteerism and Community Service reveals that significantly more than 200,000 Texans serve this state through structured service opportunities, providing contributions in time, in-kind contributions, and donations valued in excess of $42 million. Their work significantly expands the reach of state government, leverages scarce financial resources and actively engages citizens in the work of a democracy. A review of volunteer practices and citizen engagement in eighteen selected state agencies and organizations, points to the extensive, successful deployment of volunteer resources throughout the state of Texas. It also suggests recommendations ranging from the sharing of best practices and the building of partnerships and professional networks, to standardizing data collection and providing liability coverage, which are detailed in the following article.
Key words: volunteers, impact, government, agencies, Texas

In This Issue: "Volunteerism and the Other Sectors"

In his groundbreaking book, *Bowling Alone: The Collapse and Revival of American Community* (2000, Simon & Schuster), Harvard professor Robert Putnam argued that late 20th century Americans were increasingly disconnected from family, friends, neighbors, and social structures. This disconnectedness resulted in shrinking access to what he calls "social capital", or the reward of communal activity and community sharing that contribute to civic and personal health and well-being. Putnam concluded that it is a society's social bonds that most powerfully predict life satisfaction as individuals, and an overall culture's viability. Volunteers, volunteerism, and managers of volunteers may each serve as foundational building blocks of thriving social capital. Consequently, the third issue (Number 3) of Volume XXIV of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration (IJOVA)* explores critical roles and connections between contemporary volunteerism and the other sectors of society.

Once again I wish to thank our readers for the overwhelmingly positive response to the new publication. Since *The IJOVA*'s on-line premier in July of 2006, *The Journal's* web site has had 46,348 "hits" (i.e., someone accessed *The IJOVA* home page) and 2,161 extended "visits" (i.e., someone linked from the home page to at least one additional page in *The Journal*). Thank you for accessing *The IJOVA*, and please continue to share this resource with organizational colleagues, professional peers, students and clients.

In fact, in order to help us better understand you as a reader of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration*, we invite you to visit The IJOVA home page to be linked to a short confidential Reader Questionnaire. Of course, at no time do we ask that you identify yourself as an individual, your specific location, or your specific organization. The Questionnaire is designed to collect basic opinion data regarding *The IJOVA's* content, layout, and usability, as well as anonymous personalogical information. As an elective part of the Questionnaire, you may elect to provide your e-mail address so as to be added to our list serve (so as to be notified when future issues are posted to *The IJOVA* Web site) and/or request subscription information (paid subscriptions will begin July 1, 2007). On behalf of the entire editorial board and staff, we thank you for providing this information!

The issue opens with two *Feature Articles* addressing unique roles that volunteerism plays in focused societal sectors. Kapucu, Augustin, and Krause discuss how volunteerism strengthens the capacities of community-based nonprofit minority health agencies to fulfill their organizational missions. The manuscript examines necessary conditions and strategies for success in engaging these organizations in broader voluntary collaboration with other similar organizations. Waters addresses the unique roles of volunteer board members in serving as visible and viable public relations ambassadors for nonprofit organizations. According to the author, "Board members also enact public relations roles to plan for the future of the organization, ensure financial accountability, and provide general support to the organization." Such volunteer leadership roles are critical to connect volunteer organizations to their larger societies.

Research Into Action highlights a study by Starnes that applies the concept of psychological contracts between private sector employers and employees to the parallel relationship between

volunteer organizations and volunteers. According to the author, "The findings indicate that the volunteers do develop psychological contracts with their not-for-profit organizations and that volunteers perceiving breaches of the contract decrease the number of hours they work, increase (or perceive an increase in) the quality of their work, and do not reduce their intentions to remain with the organization."

In *Ideas That Work*, Jolley describes Total Resource Campaigns (TRCs), a successful model of volunteer-driven fundraising that may be used by other not-for-profits.

Three authors each contribute an insightful *Commentary* to this issue. De Levy discusses contemporary relationships between voluntarism, volunteerism, and philanthropy in Mexico. Meijs reviews the historical development of the Dutch nonprofit/volunteer sector as it relates to more recent interactions with the government sector. Katz discusses needed changes in how American nonprofit organizations partner with public, private, corporate, and community organizations.

From The JOVA Annals features seven excellent articles focused upon the volume's theme, yet published previously in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration (The JOVA)*: "Why Do they Do It? A Study of Volunteer Commitment in the Parish Setting," by Marilyn C. Nelson (originally published in 1999); "An Analysis of the Voluntary Activities of Military Spouses," by Sherry Fontaine, Ph.D. and Mark A. Brennan, Ph.D. (published in 2000); "A Look Inside Corporate Volunteer Programs," by Dr. Ellen J. Benjamin (published in 2001); "Investing in Volunteerism: Recommendations Emerging from the Study of the Impact of Volunteers in Texas State Agencies," by Sarah Jane Rehnborg, Ph.D. and Meredith DeSpain (published in 2003); "Volunteering in Cultural Institutions: A Comparison Between the United States and Germany," by Gesa Birnkraut and "Utilizing Employees as Volunteers," by Connie Pirtle (both published originally in 2004); and, "Corporate Employee Volunteer Programs: Considering the Interests of Multiple Stakeholders," by William A. Brown, Ph.D. and Robert F. Ashcraft, Ph.D. (published in 2005).

We hope this issue of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration* will provide each reader with information, inspiration, and insights as volunteers and those who manage them work together to strengthen the positive yet ever-more-complex connections between individuals and institutions in today's global society.

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

Dedication of Volume XXIV to

Mary V. Merrill, LSW

If I have seen further, it is by standing on the shoulders of giants.

(Sir Isaac Newton, 1675)

Volume XXIV of *The International Journal of Volunteer Administration* is lovingly dedicated to the memory of Mary V. Merrill, LSW, a dear friend to any volunteer, a colleague to all managers of volunteers, a mentor to me personally, and the former editor of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*. Mary left this world suddenly and unexpectedly on February 19, 2006, yet her legacy will remain with us forever.

Mary Merrill dedicated her career and her life as an international speaker and author to providing consultation and training in volunteer administration, board development, and strategic planning to strengthen the leadership and structures that support volunteerism. She was adjunct faculty at The Ohio State University and Editor of *The Journal of Volunteer Administration* from 2002 until her death. Mary taught and consulted internationally in 15 countries, and nationally in 37 of the 50 United States. Working with the Points of Light Foundation she helped establish the first volunteer center in Russia and worked for two years with developing Non Government Organizations (NGOs) in Armenia.
More recently, Mary worked with the Volunteer Development Committee of the United Nations, and presented at the European Volunteerism Conference in Croatia. Mary was an invited speaker

for the Asian Pacific Conferences for Volunteer Administration in Korea (2002) and Hong Kong (2005), the IAVE Latin American Conference on Volunteerism (Venezuela, 1998), and the 1st International Conference of Museum Volunteers (Mexico City, 2002). She was an annual star trainer for the Points of Light National Community Service Conference and recipient of a 2004 Distinguished Service Award from AVA.

Mary's innovative ideas and models have been published in *The Journal of Volunteer Administration*; *Voluntary Action: The International Journal of the Institute for Volunteering Research;* and the *Not-For-Profit CEO Monthly Letter*. She authored a book for the Paradigm Project, Points of Light Foundation, wrote the Volunteer Literacy Manual for Reading Recovery International, and co-authored and produced teleconferences/training videos on risk management, ethical decision making, and, non-profit board development.

Mary was an invited speaker at the 1998, 2001, 2002 and 2004 Biennial World Volunteerism Conferences in Canada, The Netherlands, Korea, and Barcelona (resp.), and presented joint and individual volunteer-related research at the 1998, 1999, 2000, and 2001 annual conferences of the Association for Research on Nonprofit Organizations and Voluntary Action (ARNOVA). She was past-president of Volunteer Ohio, and a past recipient of the Award for Excellence presented by the Volunteer Administrators' Network of Central Ohio. She helped create and co-taught the Institute for Community Leadership through the Leadership Center of The Ohio State University, and developed pioneering work in the area of impact evaluation for volunteer programs.

So, Mary, if we have been able to see further into the future of volunteerism and volunteer administration, it is because we as your peers benefited from your individual dedication to humanity, your professional passion for volunteerism, and your personal unconditional love for your family, friends and colleagues. You were a giant in our profession, and we miss you dearly.

R. Dale Safrit, Ed.D.
Editor

Capacity Building for Community-Based Small Nonprofit Minority Health Agencies in Central Florida

Naim Kapucu, Ph.D., Assistant Professor
Department Public Administration, University of Central Florida
E-mail: nkapucu@mail.ucf.edu

Maria-Elena Augustin, Graduate Research Assistant
Department Public Administration, University of Central Florida
E-mail: maugusti@mail.ucf.edu

Marla Krause, Graduate Research Assistant
Department Public Administration, University of Central Florida
E-mail: mkrause2@cfl.rr.com

Abstract

Minority Community-Based Organizations (CBO) face unique challenges to capacity building, including the development of a viable volunteer base. The University of Central Florida Public Administration Department, under contract to the Orange County Health Department, has developed an ambitious team approach to capacity building in nine very small, nonprofit, minority CBOs. The project, presently in the second of two performance years, proposes actions and lessons learned of relevance to others in the fields of nonprofit management and volunteer administration.

Key words:

capacity building, community-based organizations, nonprofits, volunteering

Introduction

Crisis in the nonprofit sector in terms of funding, board vacancies, falling executive tenure, negative public and media scrutiny, and retiring baby boomers requires investment in capacity building (Light, 2004b). Yet the public increasingly demands efficiency and effectiveness from the nonprofit organizations in their operations. Capacity building produces the promised increase in capacity, which in turn produces the increase in effectiveness of the small nonprofit organizations. Legacy and renewal of the capacity building projects is "very much a necessity for sustainable effectiveness" (Light, 2004a, p. 10).

The University of Central Florida Department of Public Administration is currently executing a technical assistance project for the Orange County Health Department to assist nine different, very small, community-based nonprofit agencies. These agencies provide HIV/AIDS education and direct services to minority communities. Project deliverables include proposals for funding for the agencies (the major product), on-site training in financial management and strategic planning, group training using recognized regional leaders, concrete products such as a glossy annual

report for public relations for each agency, and customized assistance in volunteer management and board development. The university team includes faculty, grant writing experts, and graduate students. Benefits include assisting the Central Florida minority community, major student support and experience, building capacity for other training projects, and ample funding support. The project is currently on or ahead of schedule and is already being hailed as a model program by the project officer.

Target audience: Nine minority non-profit agencies working with HIV/AIDS issues in Orange County, FL and four neighboring counties. The agencies are very small, largely functioning with volunteer services.

The manuscript will address the following questions: What kinds of intervention can strengthen community-based minority health organizations' capacity building? How to reconstruct a minority health community's collective ability to address shared problems and responsibilities and capitalize on opportunities to improve the life of a distressed community? Does capacity building actually improve capacity and effectiveness?

Purpose of The Manuscript

The manuscript examines obstacles and opportunities to building the capacity for urban, community-based minority health nonprofit organizations in Central Florida. The manuscript also discusses the necessary conditions and strategies for success in engaging these organizations in broader voluntary collaboration with other similar organizations.

Theoretical Framework/Themes

Theoretical framework is primarily drawn from social capital and community partnership to explain capacity building for small nonprofit agencies (Chrislip, 2002; Austin, 2000; Berger, 1983; Chrislip & Larson, 1994). Social capital is applied in this context to explain the ability of communities working together to solve the problems of our society (Weisinger & Salipante, 2005; Axelrod, 1997; Alter & Hage 1993; Nohria & Eccles, 1992; Coleman, 1990, 1988). Partnership refers to any intentionally collaborative relationship between two or more organizations. Joint ventures, multilateral collaborations, and public-private and public-nonprofit alliances are just some examples of this phenomenon. Partnership can also be perceived as a social exchange involving commitment of knowledge, skills, and emotions. From an organizational standpoint, partnership entails the commitment of organizational resources to an initiative involving two or more entities that come together and act on recognition that they cannot accomplish their missions alone (Gray, 1989). In recent years, such interorganizational collaboration has become a prominent aspect of the functioning of many different types of organizations. The number and significance of collaborative forms of organizing, including interorganizational teams, partnerships, alliances, and networks have increased tremendously. The value of effective collaborative relationships as well as the complexities and challenges they present have been recognized by many researchers, and they continue to be a frequent subject of scholarly and practitioner-oriented literature (Linden, 2002; Kanter, 1994; Powell, 1990; Gray, 1989).

Capacity building can be defined as activities aimed at building multi-dimensions of organizational capacity and effectiveness, including those such as partnership/networking essential to provide better service to distressed communities

(Felkins, 2002). Capacity building activities mainly focus on leadership development, organization development, and interorganizational collaboration (Hudson, 2005; Weisinger & Salipante, 2005; Staudt & Homedes, 2004; Doherty & Mayer, 2003; Chrislip, 2002; Chaskin, Brown, Venkatesh, & Vidal, 2001; DeVita & Fleming, 2001; McNamara, n.d.). Capacity building requires investment in training, technology, and strategic planning. Nonprofit capacity building includes all the elements needed for organizational effectiveness. Capacity is an output of basic organizational activities such as fundraising, partnerships, board development, leadership, mission, financial management, strategic planning, governance, physical infrastructure, technology, and program evaluation. Nonprofit organization capacity is consumed in mission-related activities (Hudson, 2005; Light, 2004a; Letts, Ryan, & Grossman, 1999). Capacity is not the same as organizational effectiveness. Funding agencies are interested in seeing that organizational management, governance, and leadership are linked to organizational effectiveness and broader social impact (Kibbe et al., 2004; Letts et al., 1999). "Capacity building is not about creating unnecessary administration and bureaucracy, it is about systematically building organizations that have the clout to make a sustainable difference to pressing, social, economic and environmental problems" (Hudson, 2005, p. xxii).

In the capacity building efforts, full engagement of the board and staff, planning, outside support, and objective measures are critical (Light, 2004a; Kinsey, Raker, & Wagner (eds.), 2003; DeVita & Fleming, 2001; McKinsey & Company for Venture Philanthropy Partners, 2001). "In theory, capacity building is designed to change some aspects of organizations' existing environment, internal structure, leadership, and management system, which in turn, should improve employee morale, expertise, productivity, efficiency, and so forth, which should strengthen an organization's capacity to do its work, which should increase organizational performance" (Light, 2004a, p. 46). Capacity building also requires engaging others in partnerships. Creating an effective organization is difficult without partnerships/collaborations and integrations (Hudson, 2005; Kinsey & Raker, 2003; Letts et al., 1999).

As Paul Light (2004a) rightly states, the majority of capacity building efforts in the nonprofit sector occur with minor, even no, contact with the outside world including consultant groups or other resources. The majority of capacity building is self-funded. Nonprofit organizations have little access to the kind of capital needed for capacity building compared to the billions of dollars the private sector spends on outside consultants (Light, 2004a). Most of the small nonprofits do not have the resources to hire or work with outside agencies for their capacity building projects. The Orange County Health Department and University of Central Florida Capacity Building Project is a blessing to the small nonprofit organizations in Central Florida. The agencies do not have the resources to afford capacity building.

Community development can be another goal of capacity building with the mobilization of the community resources available to individual nonprofit organizations (Hudson, 2005; DeVita & Fleming, 2001; Putnam, 2000; Gittell & Vidal, 1998). Organizations are key vehicles through which such capacity – community social capital – can be built and utilized. Strong and self-sufficient organizations can provide needed services to the distressed communities. These organizations can also be important vehicles for solving community problems.

Project Information

Deliverables: Annual fiscal assessments, annual budgets, recommendations for payroll systems and installation, annual reports regarding review of strategic plans, training on volunteer and board development, training on staff management, development plans, training regarding leadership skills, and 64 grant requests for proposal.

Grant Proposals: One team is providing technical assistance in drafting four proposals for funding per year per agency. In other words, the UCF team is required to draft 64 grant proposals for the targeted nonprofits. It is expected that this will result in funding for the agencies in the short term, and a greatly increased capacity to continue the proposal-writing process on the part of the nonprofits in the future. This is by far the largest (and most ambitious) part of the program. This team consists of 22 people the first year and is being streamlined to 15 members the second year. To date, 57 proposals have been submitted. As a result, funding in the amount of $519,798 has been granted.

Financial Management: A specialist provides customized financial management services (on-site) in each of the nine agencies. This includes assisting with annual tax reports, quarterly financial statements, installing new software systems, and ongoing training for the adoption of these functions in the future.

Strategic Planning: Another customized service is strategic planning assistance leading to an updated operational planning document. This service includes working with the advisory board as well as the executive director and other significant parties.

Training Sessions: Some training for the nine agencies is provided in a group setting. This training covers a variety of topics including: board development, volunteer management, diversity and cultural awareness, management practices, public relations, effective grant writing, communication strategies, and so forth. Approximately eight group training sessions are offered over the course of the contract. These training sessions are generally provided by the recognized leaders in the Central Florida nonprofit community.

Annual reports: Each agency will receive a glossy annual report that can not only be used to accompany funding proposals but can be used for public relations purposes as well. The annual reports will be short and in proportion to the agencies, but will include pictures, mission statements, strategic planning information, and the basic financial information of the agency.

Customized assistance: Finally, a certain amount of customized assistance is being provided by university staff working on the project. In particular, many of the graduate students volunteer some of their time in providing direct services to clients in order to better understand the agency with which they are working. Several agencies have utilized undergraduates performing service learning projects in a volunteer capacity. Additionally, the project allows enough flexibility to shift learning objectives to meet the needs of the group or specific agencies.

Methodology

The organizations will not be named to protect their anonymity and those associated with these organizations and their boards. This manuscript is a critical reflection on field experience not a systematic scientific inquiry. Surveys were conducted in the first and second year of the project with the participant agencies. Participant observations, interviews, and conversations

with associates provided information to the study. We also examined many unpublished documents about the organizations.

Project Benefits: Benefits To The Community, University

This program offers a rare opportunity to work with numerous community agencies that are struggling to provide direct services to Central Florida's minority communities. These agencies, in their turn, are working to prevent one of the most ravaging diseases in society, as well as to provide support services for those who are infected.

This program provides the opportunity for eight students to be paid while gaining extensive experience in grant writing. The students work with seasoned specialists at the university who provide extensive training in the process and a detailed review of every product before submission.

Because the Department of Public Administration has long offered graduate and undergraduate Certificates in Nonprofit Management, and now offers a Masters in Nonprofit Management, the project plays to the strengths of the Department of Public Administration. The project team is extra-ordinarily strong because the university was already providing related educational services and had a history of very modest technical assistance projects. Because the likelihood of exceeding expectations is high, reputation expansion is likely.

Due to its size and visibility, the Capacity Building Program for Small Nonprofits takes the Department to a new level of institutional capacity and reputation. It will enable the Department to demonstrate its ability to execute other large technical assistance projects involving any type of organizational capacity building effort in the future in both public and nonprofit settings.

Doing good is good, but doing good is even better when ample resources are provided for your mission. This has certainly been the case with this project, which has been replete with solid indirect cost recovery as well as project staffing dollars.

Findings And Conclusions: Lessons Learned

- Student volunteer efforts within the organizations helped them develop useful familiarity with the client database and service terminology.
- Use of minority media and joint projects with other volunteer organizations amplified minority volunteerism.
- Utilization of minority clients as organization volunteers provided valuable input to overall agency program development and improvement and improved the minority volunteers' sense of connection to the mainstream community.
- Minority volunteers proffered lack of personal time due to health and economic hardship as a detractor to volunteer availability.

The capacity building project produced the promised increase in capacity, which in turn will hopefully produce the increase in effectiveness and visibility of the agencies in the region. From our experience, for successful capacity development projects: trust between the organization and the capacity building provider is essential; organization must be ready; continuing relationships should be maintained; organizational learning occurs in a positive partnership environment; and capacity building should be arranged to different learning styles.

Implications for the Profession: The design and execution of the project and lessons learned from the project can have some important relevance to others in the fields of nonprofit management and volunteer administration.

Acknowledgement:
We are thankful to Dr. Montgomery Van Wart, Chairperson of the Department of Public Administration; Mr. Larry Williams, Orange County Health Department Manager for the Office of Minority Health; special credit is due Barbara Howell for securing the grant for the Department of Public Administration and continuing to provide invaluable advisory and technical assistance.

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About the Authors

Naim Kapucu, Ph.D is an assistant professor in the Department of Public Administration at the University of Central Florida. He has received his Ph.D. degree in Public and International Affairs from the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs of the University of Pittsburgh. His research interests are interorganizational networks, network analysis, decision making in complex environments, and organizational learning and design. He teaches courses on Analytical Techniques for Public Administration and Nonprofit Administration.

Maria-Elena Augustin is a student in the Master of Public Administration program at the University of Central Florida, also pursuing the certificate in nonprofit management. She received her undergraduate degree in Psychology from the Illinois Institute of Technology, Chicago, Illinois, in 1982. She is a Colonel in the United States Marine Corps Reserve. Colonel Augustin has served 12 years on active duty and 16 years in the reserves.

Marla Krause, MPA was awarded her Bachelor of Arts, Liberal Studies degree by the University of Central Florida in May 2003. Ms. Krause earned her Master of Public Administration degree and Graduate Certificate in Urban and Regional Planning from the University of Central Florida in August 2005. She recently completed an internship with the Orange County, Florida, Growth Management Department Planning Division. Marla also has extensive experience in publishing and in the development of graphics and Web sites.

The Roles We Play: A Study of the Public Relations Roles Nonprofit Organizations' Board Members Play

Richard D. Waters
Department of Public Relations
College of Journalism and Communications
University of Florida
700 SW 16th Avenue, #102
Gainesville, FL 32601
e-mail: rwaters@jou.ufl.edu
Tel. 352-359-6837

Abstract

A nonprofit organization's most visible volunteers, members of its' board of directors, play a vital role in sustaining the organization. A literature review suggested board members use public relations efforts to aid in accountability, communication, community outreach, fiscal governance, fundraising, and strategic planning efforts. Using Q-Methodology, this study found board members most frequently use public relations to establish community linkages. Board members also enact public relations roles to plan for the future of the organization, ensure financial accountability, and provide general support to the organization. Alarmingly, a sizeable number of board members stated they have no involvement in the organization's accountability efforts.

Key words:
board of directors, public relations, communication, fundraising, volunteers

Despite the diverse missions of the 1.25 million nonprofit organizations in the United States, these organizations face similar problems, such as fundraising (Kelly, 1998), volunteer management and recruiting (Callow, 2004) and issues involving transparency and accountability (Hoefer, 2000). To address these concerns, individuals are appointed to the organization's board of directors to guide the organization and its programs or services (King, 1994). The purpose of this study is to determine how nonprofit organizations use their board members to serve in different public relations roles.

Literature Review

King (1994) estimates that the average board of directors for nonprofit organizations has between 12 and 15 members. With each member possessing different skills, nonprofit managers are able to utilize their boards in diverse areas. Researchers have found 6 categories where board members most often offer guidance: accountability issues, communication practices, community outreach, fiscal governance, fundraising, and strategic planning.

Accountability

The board of directors bears ultimate responsibility, authority, and accountability (Pointer & Orlikoff, 2002) for the organization's governance and programs. Board members must see that nonprofit organizations are accountable to their stakeholders in three manners:

(1) the mission and purpose of the organization must be carried out,
(2) the organization must continually be productive and moving toward a specific goal or outcome, and
(3) there must be no improper use of resources or conflicts of interest

(Green, 2004, p. 25).

Communication

Increasing the communication with an organization's stakeholders can lead to beneficial results in fundraising, volunteer recruitment, and increased satisfaction among community leaders. The board can work to increase an organization's reputation in the community by developing a communication plan revolving around central messages relevant to key stakeholders. Neal (2001) points out that board members use both interpersonal and mass-mediated channels to reach their stakeholders.

Community Outreach

As Holland (2002) notes, board members must strive to keep abreast of the changes in the organization's operating environment and the organization's clients. Through outreach to key community stakeholders, board members are able to form strategic alliances (Hesselbein, 2004) and financial sponsorships with businesses (Lenkowsky, 2002). Board members should also use their community outreach efforts to reach more clientele for the organization (Axelrod, 1994) and recruit new volunteers (Bradshaw, Murray, & Wolpin, 1992).

Fiscal Governance

Umapathy (1993) identified five key areas of fiscal management that board members must constantly be evaluating: the cost of missing opportunities to implement good ideas, financial crunching during weakened economic periods, uncontrollable costs (e.g., litigation expenses), reaching forecasted revenues, and scrutinizing the organization's budget. Iecovich (2004) maintains that board members must take an active role in the "approval of an organization's annual budget, fiscal oversight and effective money management, audit, assist in fundraising, [and managing] investments" (p. 6).

Fundraising

All board members are expected to make a significant annual contribution to the organization (Brunetti, 1995); however, that is not enough. Board members are also expected to introduce their family, friends, and business contacts to the organization and frequently discuss the nonprofit with them (Hager, Rooney, & Pollack, 2002). Additionally, board members should also attend meetings with major gift donors, foundations, and corporate sponsors (Kelly, 1998).

Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is most often viewed as the creation or revision of a mission statement and vision (Reynolds, 2002). Board members are encouraged to develop quantifiable, time specific, and briefly worded goals along with specific objectives and tactics to meet these goals (Tweeten, 2002; Pointer & Orlikoff, 2002). Nonprofit scholars have also suggested that strategic planning should include planning fundraising (Kelly, 1998) and diversification of the board (Hesselbein, 2004).

Public Relations

Though these six areas appear different, they all involve varying degrees of public relations activities.

Public relations is "the management function that establishes and maintains mutually beneficial relationships between an organization and the publics on whom its success or failure depends" (Cutlip, Center, & Broom, 1994, p. 1). For all six categories, solid relationships play a vital role in the organization's survival.

Board members use public relations activities to connect to the community to see how external changes will impact the organization. However, a board member's time is limited, and members are usually not financially compensated for the time and energy they contribute to a nonprofit. Therefore, it is nearly impossible for one board member to address all of the needs of an organization. To determine how nonprofit organizations utilize their board members, this study was guided by the following research question:

What are the main public relations roles that individuals take on while serving as nonprofit board members?

Even though the literature points out six key areas, nonprofit organizations obviously do not have board members focusing on all areas as scandals in the nonprofit sector continue to surface.

Methodology

To determine which public relations roles were most often enacted, board members at four diverse nonprofit organizations evaluated 48 activities common to boards of directors. Using a Q-Methodological design, the board members evaluated the statements on an 11-point Likert scale (-5 to +5) based on how frequently they perform the activities. The activities were chosen after a thorough literature review, interviews with nonprofit executive directors, and a focus group of board members. They are listed in Table 1 by category.

The resulting rankings for all board members were factor analyzed using varimax rotation with the PQMethod 2.09 software package. In Q-Methodology, the participants are viewed as variables rather than the activities they sorted. Therefore, the resulting factor loadings reveal which people have similar rankings. After the statistical outcomes are received, the researcher then interprets the rankings to further understand the factors.

Results

The board members of four nonprofit organizations (n = 49) completed the Q-sort at their annual retreats. Each organization represented a different aspect of the sector: arts and culture, health, and two from the social service sector focusing on child welfare and homelessness. Two of the organizations had budgets of more than $1 million per year; the others had operating budgets less than $300,000 per year. An effort was made to work with organizations with different budgets to see how organizations with varying resources for public relations efforts utilize their board members.

Four factors emerged as being common public relations roles that board members enact while serving the nonprofit organizations. All but two of the participants had statistically significant loadings on at least one factor. An analysis of the factors revealed four distinctive public relations roles that board members enact: (1) The Strategists, (2) The Connectors, (3) The Financiers, and (4) The Generalists. Table 2 presents the breakdown of the participants on the factors.

Table 1
List of the public relations activities sorted by classification*

Accountability	1. I work with others in the organization to decide what information will be included in the annual report.
	7. I work with the organization's executive director to make sure overhead costs are kept at a reasonable level.
	13. I work with others in the organization to conduct regular financial audits.
	19. I help to define what investment strategies the organization will pursue with its endowment/savings.
	25. For each board meeting, I demand high quality financial reports that reveal the latest information on the organization's cash flow, balance sheet, and income and expense statements.
	31. I strive to make sure our programs and services are reaching the groups they are designed to help.
	37. I strive to make sure our programs and services are working to meet our mission.
	43. When problems arise within the organization, I work to resolve them quickly.
Branding and Writing	2. I contribute content for the organization's press releases and public service announcements.
	8. I write a column or article for the organization's newsletter or magazine.
	14. I work with the organization to develop content for the Web site.
	20. I take photographs of our programs/services/performances to use in the organization's publications and Web site.
	26. I am actively involved in developing talking points for the organization.
	32. I worked with others in the organization to design the logo, letterhead, envelopes, and business cards.
	38. I play a role in designing the organization's communication strategy to reach our key stakeholders.
	44. I write personal thank you notes to financial, political, and social supporters.
Community Outreach	3. I participate in recruiting new board members.
	9. I actively recruit new volunteers for the organization.
	15. I discuss the organization and programs with my family, friends, and co-workers.
	21. I attend conferences and meetings on my own time to learn more about issues that affect the organization.
	27. I give speeches to community groups on behalf of the organization.
	33. I serve as a media spokesperson for the organization.
	39. I participate in planning special events for the organization's key constituents.
	45. I frequently introduce the executive director and key organization employees to people I think ought to become involved with the organization.

Fundraising	4. I host fundraising events for the organization.
	10. I attend fundraising events given by the organization.
	16. I have introduced my organization to corporate contacts to develop sponsorships for the organization.
	22. I attend meetings and events given by foundation representatives.
	28. I actively participate in the organization's annual fundraiser by making significant donations.
	34. I actively participate in the organization's annual fundraiser by contributing names and addresses of possible donors.
	40. I attend appointments with major gift donors when asked by the executive director or development officer.
	46. I work with the organization to plan its annual fundraising campaigns and activities.
Organizational Advancement	5. I play an active role in hiring and evaluating the performance of the organization's executive director.
	11. I plan an active role in hiring and evaluating the performance of the organization's staff.
	17. I work with the executive director to plan the agenda for the board meetings.
	23. I work to develop relationships with professionals outside the organization (e.g., accountants, lawyers) to receive pro bono assistance for the organization.
	29. I work with the organization to conduct and evaluate research on the services and programs.
	35. I read materials distributed to the board before attending board meetings so I am able to participate actively in discussions.
	41. I play an active role in developing and evaluating the organization's key vision and mission.
	47. I lobby on behalf of the organization to local and state political leaders.
Strategic Planning	6. I am involved in setting the organization's annual goals.
	12. I look forward to sessions where the organization's services are examined.
	18. I play an active role in evaluating the organization's programs.
	24. I keep an eye on the legal and political environments to see what developments may impact my organization.
	30. I identify areas within the organization that we can use to strengthen our existing relationships.
	36. I identify areas within the organization that can hinder our existing relationships.
	42. Before I make organizational decisions, I think how the vote will impact our stakeholders.
	48. I strive to bring diverse voices to our board meetings so we hear multiple sides of the issue.

* The Q-statements are numbered so that the statements of one category are not numbered sequentially.

Table 2
Frequency Distribution of Statistically Significant Loadings on the Resulting Factors*

Factor Name	Significant Positive Loadings	Significant Negative Loadings
Factor A: The Strategists	11	1
Factor B: The Connectors	14	0
Factor C: The Financiers	10	4
Factor D: The Generalists	13	0

*As defined by the PQMethod 2.09 software, factor loadings were significant ($p<.01$) when the resulting correlation was .50 or higher. Some participants loaded positively on more than one factor.

Factor A: The Strategists

After examining the datasets of the participants who had significant loadings on Factor A, the first factor was termed "The Strategists." The literature review stated the areas of public relations activities were interrelated, and the analysis of this factor supported this statement. Figure 1 presents the rankings of the individuals with statistically significant factor loadings on Factor A. The activities that received the highest evaluations came from all of the categories that emerged from the literature review. As nonprofit scholars suggested, strategic planning was not limited to the evaluation of the organization's goals, mission, and vision. Based on their rankings, individuals used strategic planning in every aspect of the organization, including communication, outreach, and fundraising. "The Strategists" was a bipolar factor as one individual negatively evaluated the strategy activities.

Figure 1
Factor Array for "The Strategists."

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5
20	22	8	39	16	5	19	46	24	38	18
2	11	10	17	28	26	42	12	21	41	6
	33	13	9	1	37	47	36	45	30	
		4	40	14	35	29	43	23		
			32	34	3	48	27			
				15	25	31				
					7					
					44					

Factor B: The Connectors

Factor B is the largest of the four groupings. Participants in this factor view their roles as being bridges between the organization and the community. They sought to reach out to others in the community and invite them to be part of the organization. Much like the first factor, "The Connectors" are actively involved in all aspects of nonprofit leadership. Figure 2 displays this group's factor array. While recruiting volunteers and new board members are among the top activities, these participants also are involved in advocating to political leaders, hosting fundraising events, and introducing the community to the organization. Because it appears that these individuals are used primarily to bring others to the organization and to get them involved, this factor was termed "The Connectors."

Figure 2
Factor Array for "The Connectors."

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5
46	32	5	36	5	37	27	15	4	42	9
11	14	18	22	2	17	30	10	45	3	48
	28	41	1	29	35	38	25	44	31	
		20	12	7	16	23	34	47		
			19	13	8	2	26			
				43	39	40				
					24					
					21					

Factor C: The Financiers

Factor C is a bipolar factor with 10 positive loadings and four negative loadings. Unlike the first two factors, these participants did not perform activities from all areas identified in the literature review. Instead, they consistently rated accountability and fundraising activities highly (See Figure 3 for the complete ranking). Because of the factor's strong focus on money, this factor was labeled "The Financiers." The individuals who loaded positively on this factor are primarily concerned with the fiscal health of the organization. They demand quality fiscal reports and are actively involved in the organization's investment strategies. Additionally, they were involved in fundraising activities to ensure that the organization was financially secure. The individuals with negative loadings on this factor indicate that the financial management of the organization is not an activity in which they participate.

Figure 3
Factor Array for "The Financiers."

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5
2	20	34	9	18	5	37	6	28	13	7
8	41	14	11	4	22	26	43	1	25	19
	21	36	46	42	29	3	10	16	33	
		32	47	35	44	31	23	40		
			27	39	17	38	24			
				12	48	15				
					12					
					23					

Factor D: The Generalists

Whereas the first three factors focused on specific types of public relations activities, the fourth factor represents them all in many ways. For this reason, the final factor was named "The Generalists." This factor had 13 participants with significant positive loadings. They felt their public relations roles covered many different areas rather than concentrating on a specialty. As Figure 4 shows, the rankings show that individuals favorably evaluated activities that were ranked highly by the previous 3 factors. These participants were involved in conducting research to help with strategic planning, reaching out to stakeholders in the community, and assisting in the fundraising campaigns. One unique activity that this factor identified as important to their board membership involved the regular board meetings. These individuals valued the meetings and the time that went into them. They not only read all of the materials for the meetings, but they also actively participated in them.

Figure 4
Factor Array for "The Generalists."

-5	-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4	+5
38	24	21	48	41	14	10	8	27	46	15
47	33	28	16	3	29	1	25	37	34	17
	19	18	13	22	6	45	9	35	39	
		32	40	2	7	20	31	26		
			11	30	43	42	44			
				36	5	4				
					12					
					23					

The Remaining Participants

There were two participants who did not have a significant loading on any of the factors. Reflecting a public relations technician role, the first of these participants evaluated all of the writing statements very high, and the second favored all of the fundraising activities. Had there been others who were highly active in these areas alone, additional factors might have emerged. Their inclusion on the board for these nonprofits indicates that they might have been recruited specifically because of their skills.

Discussion

It is interesting to examine the factors in relation to the four nonprofit organizations that participated in the study. Table 3 breaks down the board members of these nonprofits by the factors. All of the organizations had at least one board member on each of the factors; however, the differences tell an interesting story for the sector.

Table 3
Analysis of Board Members' Significant Loadings on the Four Factors by Nonprofit Organization.

Organization	Factor A	Factor B	Factor C	Factor D	No Factor
Healthcare ($)	5	4	2/-1	3	0
Child Welfare ($)	1	1	2	4	1
Arts ($$)	3	3	4	4	1
Homeless Services ($$)	2/-1	4	2/-3	4	0

($) = Organization with an annual budget less than $300,000.
($$) = Organization with an annual budget greater than $1,000,000.

The child welfare organization had only one board member load significantly on either the strategy or community connection factor, and it only had two members who viewed their primary role as a financier; however, half of this organization's board members viewed themselves as generalists. This organization also had one of the participants who did not load on any of the factors, but felt his role on the board was one of serving as a communicator through writing and assisting with the group's publications and Web site. The resulting analysis for this organization mirrors how many nonprofits choose their board members (Schleck, 1985). This organization appears to identify specific needs within the board and seek individuals to fulfill those needs.

The healthcare and arts organization have well-rounded boards with all of the roles divided fairly evenly among the board members. As King (1994) points out, board members that take on distinct roles allow the chairman to establish subcommittees and get the board's work done easier. It is often more difficult to get some tasks done when the entire board insists on having a part in minor activities.

The arts nonprofit's board members are the most evenly divided of all the groups with three board members loading significantly on each of the strategy and connectivity factors and four members loading significantly on

each of the financial and team player factors. Despite the nature of its board composition, there is some cause for concern. With the increasing demands for accountability, it is alarming that one would have a negative loading on the financial factor. Even with other board members having significant positive loadings on the factor, a great challenge exists when any of the nonprofit's leadership views financial accountability as a low priority. The statements described the activities so they would not require a board member be an accountant or auditor to enact them. Therefore, negative loadings can truly become a hindrance to the nonprofit's long-term viability.

Even more alarming, the homeless services organization had three negative loadings on the same factor. This organization only had two board members say they actively participate in financial accountability activities. This organization's entire board completed the sorting, so it is unsettling that more board members avoid tasks that ensure financial accountability than actively participate in them. This organization also has one of the highest budgets of the nonprofits examined, so one would hope that the board would work to ensure the organization's longevity.

One possible explanation for the lack of a true financial consensus on the homeless services organization's board could come from the use of consultants. As Holland and Jackson (1998) note, the use of consultants is increasing in the nonprofit sector so that the nonprofit can focus on its programs and services. Further evidence of the role of consultants in this organization stems from the two significant positive loadings on the strategy factor. Both of these board members placed the statement, *I work to develop relationships with professionals outside the organization (e.g., accountants, lawyers) to receive pro bono assistance for the organization,* in one of the top positions. Nonetheless, the management of the organization should pursue board members who will push for the financial security and integrity of the organization.

Looking at the entire overall picture of nonprofit board membership, it is interesting to note that the main roles that resulted from the Q-sort were slightly different from those highlighted in the literature on nonprofit board leadership. The areas that were found to be common among board members through the literature review were accountability, communication, community outreach, fiscal governance, fundraising, and strategic planning. Of the resulting factors, none directly came from the statements of only one of these different areas. For example, the strategy factor did not rely solely on the statements reflecting the tasks involved in an organization's strategic planning. The board members who participated in this study took a strategic approach to fundraising, community outreach, and communication.

The factor that did most closely resemble the literature was "The Financiers." The majority of this factor's top statements came from the accountability section. Board members felt they had a strong role in financially securing the organization's future and making sure that the organization's services and programs were being conducted at a reasonable cost that maintains the quality of the services. Board members with significant positive loadings on "The Financiers" also viewed themselves as playing a big role in the fundraising activities of the organization.

Of the 49 participants in this study, four had an overall negative loading on this factor, which signifies that they did not view either dimension of the factor (fundraising and accountability) as their responsibility.

Limitations

One of the main limitations of the research is the inability to generalize the results to the larger population because of the qualitative nature of the analysis. However, the quantitative studies from which the literature review for this study was drawn did not reveal the subtle differences in how the 6 main categories were viewed by board members. Additionally, the resulting factors could be due to the organizations that were examined. With the massive scope of the sector, it is possible that different results could have been generated if additional types of nonprofit organizations, such as advocacy groups, membership organizations, or public policy research groups, were included.

The study also only explored four organizations; perhaps if additional organizations were studied, then more factors, such as a fundraising or a communication one, might have resulted from the statistical correlation of the Q-sortings. These additional factors might also have been revealed had the entire board participated at each of the four sessions. Eight additional board members were eligible to participate in the study. In 2 of the sessions, members of the board were unable to participate because of their absence from the regular meeting.

Future Research

The differences between this study's resulting factors and the nonprofit literature provide the main area for further inquiry. Even though there are some signs of similarities in how the board members viewed their roles in the areas of accountability, strategic planning, and community outreach, there were distinct differences from what the previous literature review had said were the dominant roles. By forcing participants to rank the 48 activities in relation to what tasks they routinely performed, it is possible to use the subjective datasets to see how board members see their roles in the organization. A future qualitative study can use in-depth interviews and board documentation to further examine the level of interconnectivity of the board member's roles identified in the nonprofit literature. Perhaps, this study and future qualitative studies could provide a greater understanding of the role of the board member, and a more complex survey could be generated to test these results and provide the ability to generalize the results to the larger nonprofit community.

In the meantime, the results are encouraging for the field of public relations and the nonprofit organizations. Even though the board members may not have formal training in public relations, they are utilizing the field's best practices while working with the nonprofits. Strategic planning, regular evaluation of the organization's mission and services, and the consideration of all the organizations' stakeholders were reported as being common activities of all of the 4 boards. These practices should also help the nonprofit community overcome recent negative publicity stemming from scandals.

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About The Author

Richard D. Waters is a doctoral candidate in the Department of Public Relations in the College of Journalism and Communications. His research interests include the fundraising process, relationship management and cultivation in the nonprofit sector, and the use of public relations by nonprofit organizations. He is a former fundraising practitioner and consultant to healthcare organizations in Northern California

An Analysis of Psychological Contracts in Volunteerism and the Effect of Contract Breach on Volunteer Contributions to the Organization

Becky J. Starnes, PhD
Austin Peay State University, Clarksville, Tennessee, USA
starnesb@apsu.edu

Abstract

Studies of the private sector indicate that psychological contracts develop between employers and employees and play an important role in employee performance and retention. This study explores if the same relationship develops between volunteer workers and the organizations they serve. The findings indicate that the volunteers do develop psychological contracts with their not-for-profit organizations and that volunteers perceiving breaches of the contract decrease the number of hours they work, increase (or perceive an increase in) the quality of their work, and do not reduce their intentions to remain with the organization. Suggestions for managing the psychological contracts of volunteers are included.

Keywords:
volunteers, psychological contracts, contract breach

At the start of the 21st century public officials are increasingly calling on American citizens to voluntarily help provide critical public services (Scott, 2002). However, the number of citizens performing volunteer work is increasing only slightly and the number of hours they are providing is remaining steady at 52 per year (Bureau, 2004).

While the not-for-profit sector consists of 10.2 million paid employees, it relies heavily on the support of volunteers to respond to increasing demands for service, quality, and accountability at a time when many sources of revenue are disappearing (Aspen, 2001; Starnes & Wymer, 2001). Therefore, it is essential that managers of volunteers do all they can to recruit, retain, and improve the efficiency of their volunteer workforces.

Private sector studies indicate that psychological contracts develop between employers and employees and that these contracts play an important role in employee recruitment, performance, and retention (Robinson, 1996). This study explores if the same relationship develops between volunteer workers and the not-for-profit organizations they serve.

Literature Review Of Psychological Contracts

Morrison and Robinson (1997) define a psychological contract as individual perceptions created by organizations about what will be exchanged for each other's contributions. To have a psychological contract, a relationship between an individual and organization must exist, and the individual must have expectations about what he will get from the organization (Morrison & Robinson, 1997). Expectations become obligations, thus contractual, when the organization promises a return based on some reciprocal behavior on the part of the individual (Rousseau, 1990).

Morrison and Robinson (1997) define a "perceived breach" of the psychological

contract as an individual's perception that the organization did not fulfill the obligations of the psychological contract. Research shows that when employers meet the perceived obligations of the psychological contract, employees are motivated, willing to apply greater effort, seek out creative solutions, support their leaders, and remain with the organization. (Rousseau, 1990; Sims, 1994; Spindler, 1994). However, when obligations are not fulfilled, employees tend to lose trust in management, reduce their levels of organizational commitment, and decrease their contributions (Levinson, Price, Munden, Mandl, & Solley, 1963; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Sapienza, Korsgaard, & Schweiger, 1997). Psychological contracts are enforced through an implied understanding that the parties can withhold services or withdraw from the relationship (Rousseau, 1995; Spindler, 1994). This investigation explores if volunteers perceiving a breach of the psychological contract would decrease their level of support as well.

Methodology

Research purpose, logic, and goals. This research was conducted to answer the management question: "What can managers of volunteers do to maintain and improve the contributions made by their volunteer workforces?" The study applied the deductive reasoning that volunteers develop psychological contracts with the not-for-profit organizations they serve and that they will reduce their levels of contribution if they perceive a breach of the contract. A longitudinal cross-sectional panel design consisting of volunteer responses to a survey instrument at two points in time was used. The three goals were to (a) discover if volunteers perceive psychological contracts and if they do, (b) assess if they perceive breaches of the contracts and, (c) discover if those who perceive a breach reduce their contributions to the organization.

Population and sample. The population consisted of 532 adults providing volunteer services for not-for-profit organizations within the state of Alabama. The sample consisted of 276 volunteers serving in a variety of community, professional, and fraternal organizations.

Key Concepts And Operational Definitions

Psychological contract. Robinson's (1996) measure for determining if employees develop psychological contracts with their employers was used as a guide for the development of an instrument to measure this relationship between volunteers and their organizations. At Time One volunteers were asked to indicate the extent to which their not-for-profit organizations were obligated to provide a set of benefits to them. The survey instrument read: "Managers of volunteer organizations may promise volunteer workers certain rewards in exchange for their contributions. An important part of this study is to determine your perception of these promises. Using the scale below, please indicate the extent to which you believe you've been promised (implicitly or explicitly) the following opportunities: to help others, use skills and knowledge, gain learning experiences, obtain work experience, for career enhancement, to socialize, to feel useful, for public recognition, to fulfill employer requirements to volunteer, to practice religious beliefs, to return good fortune, or work for a prestigious organization." This list of opportunities came from the literature regarding what people expect to receive in return for performing volunteer services (Cnaan & Goldberg-Glen, 1991; Murrant & Strathdee, 1995; Rubin & Thorelli, 1984).

Respondents used a four-point multidimensional scale ranging from *"not at*

all" promised to *"very highly"* promised. The aggregated score (ranging from *12* to *48* for all 12 promises) was used as the operational definition for determining if the volunteer developed a psychological contract with the organization.

Perceptions of Contract Breach

Robinson's (1996) measure for the development of a psychological contract was again used to develop a measure for breaches of the contract. At Time Two (six months after completing the initial survey) the survey instrument read: "Volunteer organizations make implicit and explicit promises during recruitment which obligate them to give certain things to their volunteers in exchange for their volunteers' contributions to the organization. Volunteer organizations vary in the degree to which they subsequently fulfill those promises to their volunteers. Read over the following items listed below. Think about the extent to which your not-for-profit organization made, implicitly or explicitly, promises to provide you these opportunities. Then think about how well your organization has fulfilled these promises." (The same list of 12 promises used to measure the concept of a psychological contract was again provided.) The volunteer rated how well each of the 12 organizational promises had been met using a scale ranging from *"not at all met"* to *"very highly met."* Again, the responses for each of the 12 individual scores were aggregated into a single score. The operational definition to determine the volunteer's perception of contract breach was to subtract each respondent's total Time Two score (perception of contract fulfillment) from each respondent's total Time One score (perception of contract development). A decreased score indicated the volunteer had perceived a breach. This calculation was made for each of the 85 volunteers responding to the survey instrument at both Times One and Two. A Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test was used to rank and compare these scores.

Volunteer contributions. Time donated, quality of work, and intentions to remain were used as measures of contributions to the organization. At both Times One and Two the volunteers were asked: "How many hours of volunteer service do you provide per month?" The second question was: "How would you rate the quality of your work for this organization?" The third question was: "How long do you intend to continue to volunteer for your current not-for-profit organization?" The Time Two scores for each contribution were subtracted from the Time One scores. A decrease in score indicated the volunteer had reduced his contribution to the organization.

Hypotheses, Measurers, and Tests

- Hypothesis One: Volunteers who perceive the not-for-profit organization has breached the psychological contract (at Time Two) will be more likely to decrease the number of hours served than volunteers who do not perceive a breach in the psychological contract (at Time Two).
- Hypothesis Two: Volunteers who perceive the not-for-profit organization has breached the psychological contract (at Time Two) will be more likely to decrease the quality of their work than volunteers who do not perceive a breach in the psychological contract (at Time Two).
- Hypothesis Three: Volunteers who perceive the not-for-profit organization has breached the psychological contract (at Time Two) will be more likely to decrease their intentions to remain with the organization than volunteers who do not perceive a breach in the psychological contract (at Time Two).

Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients and the statistical significance of these results were used to test Hypotheses One, Two, and Three.

Findings and Conclusions

Study sample. The sample participating in this study consisted of individuals performing volunteer work for nonprofit organizations within the state of Alabama. On the average, they were White or Black, Protestant, middle-aged, financially comfortable, females who had attended some college, and were providing direct service to clients (f =53) in predominantly health-related organizations (35%) for an average of two to three years (21%).

Operational definition—psychological contract. A Cronbach alpha coefficient of .88 indicated that the instrument used to measure the volunteers' perceptions of organizational promises (psychological contracts) was reliable. The operational definition indicated that one volunteer did not develop a psychological contract with his not-for-profit organization and that 84 (99 %) developed contracts to varying extents. (See Table 1.)

Table 1

Percentage Distribution for the Development of a Psychological Contract at Time One (N = 85)

Psychological Contracts	Percent
No contract developed	1
Psychological contract somewhat developed	23
Psychological contract highly developed	58
Psychological contract very highly developed	18

Operational definition—psychological contract breach. A Cronbach alpha coefficient of .82 indicated that the instrument used to measure the volunteers' perceptions of how well the psychological contract had been fulfilled could be considered reliable. Table 2 presents data comparing each of the 12 individual promises and the volunteers' responses at both Times One and Two. This analysis demonstrates a consistency in the respondents' perceptions of what organizational promises were made and how well they had been fulfilled. A paired-samples t-test comparing the means between Time One (Me = 2.36, sd = .469) and Time Two (M = 2.51, sd = .529), $t(11) = -3.32$, $p < .05$) found the differences statistically significant.

The operational definition used to determine the volunteer's perception of contract breach was to subtract each respondent's total Time Two score (perception of contract fulfillment) from each respondent's total Time One score (perception of contract development). A negative score indicated the volunteer had perceived a breach of the psychological contract. This calculation was made for each of the 85 volunteers responding to the survey instrument at both times. (The Cronbach alpha score for this Time Two-

Table 2
Organizational Promises and Average Scores at Times One and at Times Two (N =115 at Time One and N= 85 at Time Two)

	Contract Made Time 1		Contract Fulfilled Time 2	
Developed Opportunity	me	sd	me	sd
Help others	3.07	.7	3.34	.7
Use skills and knowledge	2.79	.8	2.89	.8
Learning experiences	2.45	.9	2.68	1.0
Gain work experience	2.21	1.0	1.96	1.0
Career enhancement	1.96	1.0	1.96	1.0
Socialize/develop relationships	2.82	1.0	3.03	.9
Feel useful/do something worthwhile	3.16	.8	3.36	.8
Public recognition	1.97	1.0	2.21	1.0
Fulfill requirements to volunteer	1.91	1.0	2.04	1.1
Practice religious/spiritual beliefs	2.08	1.1	2.34	1.1
Return good fortune	1.92	1.0	1.97	1.1
Work for a prestigious organization	2.10	1.1	2.44	1.0

Time One measure was .85.) The differences showed that 36 (42 %) of the 85 respondents had a drop in score between Times One and Two, indicating the contract had not been fully met; 43 (51 %) had an increase in score indicating the contract had been more than fulfilled; and six (7 %) had no change in score indicating the contract had been met. While the majority of the respondents reported the contract had been fulfilled (51 %), the researcher decided that the 42 % report rate of a breach in the contract was large enough to validate the operational and conceptual definitions of a breach in the psychological contract. (See Table 3.)

The data in Table 4 compares the volunteers' perceptions of levels of contract fulfillment at Time Two with their perceptions of contract development made at Time One.

Table 3

Wilcoxon Sign Test Scores for Volunteers' Perceptions of Psychological Contract Development at Time One and Contract Fulfillment at Time Two (N = 85)

Scores	Negative Ranks[a]	%	Positive Ranks[b]	%	Ties[c]	%	Z[d]	Asymp. Sig.
Time 2 – Time 1	36	42	43	51	6	7	-1.22	.222

a. Contract Fulfillment at T2 < Contract Perceptions at T1 (Contract not met.)
b. Contract Fulfillment at T2 > Contract Perceptions at T1 (Contract more than met.)
c. Contract Perceptions at T1 = Contract Fulfillment at T2 (Contract met.)
d. Based on negative ranks

Table 4
Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Psychological Contract Development and Fulfillment (N = 85)

Psychological Contract Developed Time One			Psychological Contract Fulfillment Time Two		
	f	%		f	%
No contract made	1	1	Not at all fulfilled	1	1
Somewhat made	20	23	Somewhat fulfilled	14	17
Highly made	49	58	Highly fulfilled	56	66
Very highly made	15	18	Very highly fulfilled	14	16

Discussion For Hypothesis One, Two, And Three

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Tests were used to measure the changes in hours worked, the quality of work, and the volunteers' intentions to remain with the not-for-profit organization between Times One and Two. These data revealed 43 of the 85 volunteers reduced the number of hours they worked for the organization between Times One and Two, 14 increased the number of hours they worked, and 28 made no change (Z = -4.35, Asymp. Sig. = .000). Second, 10 of the 85 volunteers reduced the quality of their work between Times One and Two, 13 increased (or perceived an increase) in the quality of their work, and 62 made no change in the quality of their work. (Z = .537, Asymp. Sig. = .591). The third set of data indicated that 40 of the 85 volunteers reduced their intentions to remain with the organization between Times One and Two, 22 increased their intentions to remain with the organization, and 23 made no change in their intentions to remain. (Z = -2.61, Asymp. Sig. = .009).

Testing Of Hypotheses One, Two And Three

The decision of rejecting or failing to reject the hypotheses was made using three statistical results: the strength of the relationship between the variables, the significance of that strength, and a comparison of the means. A weak, statistically significant positive relationship existed between the number of hours worked and the volunteers' perception of a breach in the contract (r = .256). A statistically significant inverse relationship existed between the volunteers' assessments of the quality of their work with their perception of a breach in the psychological contract (r = -.235).

Table 5
Means, Standard Deviations, Pearson Product-Moment Coefficients Comparing the Relationship between Volunteers' Contributions to the Not-for-Profit Organization with Perceptions of Contract Fulfillment (N = 85)

Variable	Means	sd	r	r^2	Sig
Hours worked	2.09	1.50	.256*	.065	.051*
Quality of work	3.49	.60	-.235*	.055	.095
Intentions to remain	5.63	3.93	.105	.011	.830

* Significant at .05 (two-tailed)

A weak positive relationship appeared between the volunteers' intentions to remain with the organization and their perceptions of a breach in the contract (r = .105), but this finding was determined not to be statistically significant. (See Table 5.)

The second analysis involved breaking the sample into two groups and comparing the means using independent sample t-tests. The first group consisted of volunteers who did not perceive a breach in the contract. The second group consisted of volunteers who did perceive a breach in the contract. The dependent variables — hours worked, quality of work, and intentions to remain — were compared with each group. (See Table 6.)

A positive relationship (r = .256*) was found to exist between the number of hours worked and the volunteers' perceptions of a breach in the contract and the calculated t-value of 1.98 was greater than the critical t-value of 1.96. Therefore, the researcher rejected the Hypothesis One null hypothesis and found that the volunteers who perceived a breach in the psychological contract were likely to reduce the number of hours they worked.

A negative relationship (r = -.235*) was found to exist between the volunteers' assessments of the quality of their work with their perceptions of a breach in the psychological contract and the t-value of -1.68 was less than the critical value. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the Hypothesis Two null hypothesis and found that the volunteers who perceived a breach in the psychological contract were likely to increase (or perceive an increase) in the quality of their work.

Lastly, a statistically insignificant positive relationship (r = .105) was found to exist between the volunteers' intentions to remain with the organization and their perceptions of a breach in the contract and the t-value of .21 was less than the critical t-value. Therefore, the researcher failed to reject the Hypothesis Three null hypothesis and found there was no relationship between the volunteers' intentions to remain with the organization and a perception of a breach in the psychological contract.

Table 6
Comparison of Means for Contributions to the Organization Made by Volunteers who Did Not Perceive a Breach in the Psychological Contract With Volunteers who Perceived a Breach in the Contract (N = 85)

	Perception of Contract Fulfillment				
	No Breach		Breach		
Variable	Me	sd	Me	sd	t
Hours worked	2.36	1.65	1.72	1.20	1.98*
Quality of work	3.38	.63	3.61	.54	-1.68
Intentions to remain	5.71	3.90	5.52	3.96	.21

$p \leq .05$

Additional Findings for Hypotheses One, Two, and Three

Table 7 reflects the differences in contributions made to the organization by those who did and did not perceive a breach in the contract. Tables 8 and 9 present the data of controlling for the volunteers' ages and time with the organization. The data suggest age and the length of time served may influence the relationships between the volunteers' perceptions of a breach of contract and their intentions to remain with the organization.

Table 7
Frequencies and Percentages of Contributions to the Organization (at Time Two) Compared by Contract Fulfillment (at Time Two) (N = 85)

	Perception of Contract			
	No Breach		Breach	
	f	%	f	%
Hours worked per month (.48)				
0-5 hours	30	35	26	31
6.15 hours	12	14	10	12
16 hours or more	6	7	1	1
Quality of work (.43)				
Very poor	0	0	0	0
Poor	1	1	1	1
Good	24	28	12	14
Very Good	12	14	24	28
Intentions to remain (.42)				
Less than 1 year	14	16	9	11
1-5 years	14	16	13	15
6-10 years	5	6	2	2
More than 10 years	15	18	13	16

Table 8
Means, Standard Deviations, Pearson Product-Moment Coefficients Comparing the Relationship between Volunteers' Contributions to the Not-for-Profit Organization (at Time Two) With Perceptions of Contract Fulfillment (at Time Two) Controlling for Age (N = 85)

Variable	Means	sd	r (T1)	r (T2)
Hours worked	2.09	1.50	.255	.239
Quality of work	3.49	.60	-.234	-.227
Intentions to remain	5.63	3.93	.105	.075

Table 9
Means, Standard Deviations, Pearson Product-Moment Coefficients Comparing the Relationship between Volunteers' Contributions to the Not-for-Profit Organization (at Time Two) With Perceptions of Contract Fulfillment (at Time Two) while Controlling for Tenure (N = 85)

Variable	Means	sd	r (T1)	r (T2)
Hours worked	2.09	1.50	.255	.208
Quality of work	3.49	.60	-.234	-.242
Intentions to remain	5.63	3.93	.105	.018

Management Implications

To prevent the negative organizational repercussions that can result from perceived breaches, managers may find it useful to learn more about what psychological contracts are, how to periodically assess them, and consider making appropriate changes to nurture them. Managers may consider conducting honest feedback sessions with volunteers as a tool for identifying and correcting perceived breaches before they result in negative feelings and behaviors on the part of the volunteer (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Sims, 1994). Acknowledging breaches when they occur and offering honest explanations may help prevent volunteers from reducing their contributions (Morrison & Robinson, 1997).

Limitations and Future Research

This study's design may limit results in three ways. First, it is likely the timeframe and the sample were too small. Therefore, it is recommended that this study be repeated over a longer period with a larger sample of people just starting their volunteering experience. The second limitation is that there was no follow up with the volunteers who dropped out of the study between Times One and Two. The third limitation lies in the measures used to detect perceptions and breaches of the psychological contract. There is no one recognized standard and researchers are debating whether accurate measures can be created (Morrison & Robinson, 1997; Robinson & Rousseau, 1994; Turnley & Feldman, 1999).

Conclusion

This research was conducted to answer the management question: What can managers of not-for-profit organizations do to maintain and improve the contributions made by their volunteer workforces. Specifically, it sought to determine if volunteer workers develop psychological contracts with their not-for-profit organizations and, if they do, if perceptions of breaches of the contract would result in the volunteers reducing their level of contributions to the organization.

The findings reflect volunteers can develop psychological contracts with their not-for-profit organizations and perceive breaches of those contracts. Hypotheses One, Two, and Three found that volunteers who did perceive a breach of the contract reduced the number of hours they work, improved (or perceived an improvement) in the quality of their work, and made no changes in their initially stated intentions to remain with the organization. These findings support Farmer and Fedor's (1997) argument that the study of psychological contracts may play a purposeful role in understanding volunteers' contributions.

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About the Author

Becky J. Starnes received a PhD in public administration and public policy from Auburn University Montgomery. She is an Assistant Professor of Professional Studies for the School of Technology and Public Management. This article is from her dissertation: An analysis of psychological contracts in volunteerism and the influences of trust, job, satisfaction, and organizational commitment published by *Dissertation Abstracts International*, *65*(06), 2359 (UMI No. 316015).

Volunteer Driven Fundraising: Lessons from Total Resource Campaigns

G. Jason Jolley
Center for Competitive Economies
The Frank Hawkins Kenan Institute of Private Enterprise, CB#3440
The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill
Chapel Hill, NC 27599-3440
919-843-6287
jason_jolley@unc.edu

Abstract

An increasing number of Chambers of Commerce depend on Total Resource Campaigns to increase organizational revenue. Total Resource Campaigns (TRCs) are annual volunteer-driven marketing campaigns where chambers sell memberships, marketing, sponsorships, and other services in one package during a designated fundraising period. TRCs rely heavily on personal and team-based incentives to recruit and mobilize volunteers in the fundraising effort. The success of TRCs offers lessons for successful volunteer driven fundraising that can be utilized by other not-for-profits.

Key Words:
fundraising, total resource campaign, chamber of commerce

Total Resource Campaigns (TRCs) are a new model for revenue generation in chambers of commerce. The principles of successful TRCs are generalizable to volunteer administration and fundraising in other not-for-profit organizations. Chambers of commerce are business associations voluntarily formed to represent and advocate for member interests and provide marketing and network opportunities. Chambers are generally incorporated as not-for-profit 501(c)(6) businesses and many contract with local governments or other entities to perform additional functions such as tourism or economic development.

Traditionally, chambers were funded through membership dues, which may be tiered or structured based on member characteristics such as business sector or number of employees. The reliance on membership dues directly tied the financial health of a chamber to the strength of its membership base. Over time, chambers began to diversify the financial base by relying on non-membership dues in the forms of sponsorships and advertising. While the reliance on non-dues revenue streams improved the financial health of many chambers, it also forced chambers to engage in constant sales of not just memberships, but also sponsorships, advertising, and other related services.

To increase revenue from these sales, some larger chambers engage commissioned sales persons to sell memberships and other services. Yet, many chambers have relatively small staffs and the constant sales

mentality can detract from other duties designed to provide member benefits. Constantly "selling" leaves chambers with less time for membership services, networking, and advocacy, which are among the primary reasons many members joined a chamber. Too much focus on selling new memberships and sponsorships can lead to a revolving door of new members joining at the expense of existing members leaving because of lack of attention and service. On the other hand, focusing too much attention on existing members at the expense of generating new memberships or sponsorships can lead to stagnation and lack of financial resources. Many chambers find their organization challenged to achieve the proper balance of revenue generation and service provision.

To address this dilemma an increasing number of chambers of commerce of all sizes have turned to Total Resource Campaigns (TRCs) to generate a sustainable yearly revenue stream in a short amount of time. TRCs are annual volunteer-driven marketing campaigns where chambers sell memberships, marketing, sponsorships, and other services in one package during a designated time period (Roth, 2005). TRCs have led many chambers to record fund-raising levels. The positive record of this volunteer-driven model of fundraising makes TRCs an important tool for other nonprofits to employ in meeting their fundraising needs. Fundraising and membership goals are accomplished in a much shorter timeframe, volunteers are engaged and energized, and a chamber has more time throughout the year to devote to member services. However, there are important lessons from successful TRCs that chambers or other not-for-profits should consider before engaging in a similar campaign.

The first key lesson is volunteer management. TRCs are unique in their heavy reliance on volunteers for selling/ fundraising a considerable share of the organization's revenue. TRCs succeed or fail primarily on the basis of volunteers. Successful TRCs motivate volunteers by developing incentives for personal and team success and utilize a kick-off event, reporting parties, and victory celebration to keep volunteers informed and motivated (Roth, 2005). Volunteers self-select into teams and enjoy friendly team competition to win a group trip for the best performing team. Individual incentives in the form of random door prizes at reporting parties and monetary or other incentives for the best performing individual are also key motivators. While repeat volunteering is key to the success of an organization and a TRC, the process of engaging donors or members during the campaign can also lead to the recruitment of new volunteers.

The second key lesson is the establishment of ground rules concerning the division of prospective donors. Having multiple volunteer fundraisers solicit the same individual or organization can damage a not-for-profit's reputation and make the campaign and the not-for-profit appear disorganized. The division of prospective donors/members should occur in a manner that maximizes the organization's fund-raising capacity and engages the most volunteers. Chambers often engage a TRC consultant for a fee to assist in establishing the initial TRC campaign ground rules and infrastructure for success. Consistency among campaigns and the retention of experienced volunteers with tacit campaign knowledge are key components to successfully repeating the TRC without consultant assistance (Roth, 2005).

A third key lesson is buy-in from organizational members, management, and board leadership. While a TRC ultimately saves member, staff, management, and board time by limiting fundraising to a

shorter period, rather than throughout the year, it does demand a considerable commitment of time and resources during the TRC period. All staff and board leadership should be involved in some capacity, even if fundraising is not their primary area of expertise or normal organizational contribution (Roth, 2005).

Chambers have successfully utilized TRCs to meet their revenue needs and increase volunteer commitment and productivity. Following the lessons of successful TRC implementation, other membership-based not-for-profits can reap the same benefits for their organization. The benefits to the organization and enjoyment provided to volunteers, also suggests that other volunteer administrations in non-membership based organizations may similarly employ team and personal based incentives to entice volunteer participation toward particular fundraising or other goals. TRCs have a track record of success and should be considered among the revenue generating programs not-for-profits utilize.

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About the Author

G. Jason Jolley is the Research Director for the Carolina Center for Competitive Economies (C^3E) in the Kenan Institute/Kenan-Flagler Business School at the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. He has authored/co-authored scholarly articles appearing or forthcoming in *Business Strategy & the Environment, Review of Policy Research,* and *The Journal of Extension.* He is pursuing a Ph.D. in public administration at North Carolina State University and has research interests in economic development, environmental policy, and diffusion of innovation.

Philanthropy in Mexico

Anthea Stein de Levy
Honorary President
IMSS (Mexican Social Security Institute)
Health Volunteers (Promotores Sociales Voluntarios)
2000 – 2005
Rincon de las Lomas #93
Reforma #3041
Cuajimalpa, D.F. 05130
Mexico City, Mexico
Tel. 011-5255-5292-1535
e-mail: anlevy@prodigy.net.mx

Abstract

The author summarizes the historical development of the voluntary sector in Mexico, and discusses the contemporary situation regarding voluntarism, volunteerism, and philanthropy.

Key Words:
Mexico, voluntarism, volunteerism, philanthropy

Introduction

Over recent years, voluntary organizations in Latin America as in Mexico have changed direction in an interesting way. Whereas traditionally, voluntary organizations had been involved in giving assistance out of charity and caring, with a sense of correcting social inequalities, a more political orientation to volunteering has evolved. The main priorities of this politically oriented agenda are improved economic levels for lower income sectors of the population and improvement of relations with government for more recognition of philanthropic efforts. This has led to a significantly greater role within public institutions as compared to how the voluntary sector used to participate.

Volunteerism in Mexico is not as well-developed as in the United States and some other countries, and there is very little hard data on volunteer numbers and types of volunteering. Generally volunteering means work without pay. In countries where there is extreme poverty there is little room for altruism among the general populace. Mexico's economic situation, history, and specific indigenous background have shaped its culture and attitudes towards volunteering. The definition is ambiguous.

Early History

Many Mexican historical researchers have studied the Mexican nonprofit volunteer sector. There are a couple of phenomena specific to Mexico that may help to understand differences in cultures towards volunteering.

In Mexico, a large proportion of its total population is poor and extremely poor (estimated to be 20-25% of the total population of about 110 million). The culture of the indigenous people has traditionally been to assist one another in a communal sense of solidarity for one another's well being. In this sense, volunteering is a natural activity in some communities of lower income sectors. The culture of the indigenous people before the Spanish arrived was built on a social unit

which owned and worked the land and was individually vested as well as communally vested in supporting the same members of the social unit – in social, economic and political ways. "Reciprocity" was important rather than an altruistic sense of helping others. In a marginal, world people need to rely on one another for social and economic advancement. To this day, members of a community may take on relatively important responsibilities like caring for elderly people and young children more in an ambiance of "reciprocity" than as a charity activity.

A 20th Century Historical Background

One study in particular (Reygradas, 2001) identified four stages in the latter part of the 20th century during which nonprofits – CSOs (Civil Society Organizations) - have attempted to establish themselves as recognized institutions and to enlist the citizenry in their membership. Briefly, the first period led up to the student movement of 1968, which was a time of strikes and meetings where organizations began trying to establish more autonomy for themselves as well as more democratic operations internally. Between 1969 and 1981, after the 1968 student movement and governmental repression of students, new groups formed in response. Some of the first NGOs came into existence at this time. The 1985 earthquake created a widespread humanitarian response and is considered to be a turning point in the strengthening of CSO activity in Mexico.

From 1989 to 2000, after the contested 1988 presidential elections, CSOs began working towards a more democratic focus. By 1991 the IFE (Instituto Federal Electoral – Federal Electoral Institute) was founded in order to ensure fair elections. During this movement towards eliminating fraudulent elections and promoting democratic practices, citizen groups sought governmental recognition and moved to establish concrete plans in economic, ecological, and social development. Several CSO heads were recruited by the President's office to participate more closely with government, ensuring legitimacy for nonprofits in Mexico. Despite this development path of nonprofits, on the whole, the culture of volunteering in Mexico is still evolving to what it is in the United States and other countries.

The Current Status of Philanthropic Culture in Mexico

The CIVICUS Index Report is very instructive in understanding Mexico's current philanthropic culture. In summary, major relevant points from this study include the following.

1. Voluntary service is still very related to a religious and moral sense of responsibility and "charity work".
2. There is no tradition of philanthropy in Mexico. Volunteerism has not developed as a value in society. The concept of volunteering is still not well-established – as a contribution of one's time, work, effort to the benefit of others outside of oneself and family.
3. Educational programs for children to learn how to volunteer are not well-developed.
4. In rural areas, where there is a lot of migration northwards to the U.S. border, the age-old communitarian traditions and solidarity among villages to aid one another persist.
5. There are barriers to voluntary participation: setting up a nonprofit organization (Asociación Civil) in Mexico is a very complicated and lengthy legal procedure. The law and public access to information on volunteering are insufficiently developed.
6. Private and public institutions do not promote volunteerism because there are lesser financial resources available and a certain pressure from the

workforce is evident that counters volunteering.

7. Large companies in Mexico do not have an established tradition of supporting volunteering. Even foreign companies operating in Mexico do not participate as much in Mexico as in other countries where they operate due to low expectations of it. Employee donations - financial or of time - are not sought.

With recent acceleration of change in Mexico, due to globalization, accessibility of government, volunteering has also undergone changes. Consequently non-profit activity has flourished over the past 10 years. During the 10 years between 1984 and 1994 as many new nonprofits were formed as had evolved during the previous 100 years. (CEMEFI). Volunteer numbers have never been counted. Most people who "work" for philanthropies are unpaid, whereas in the United States it is estimated that about 7.8% of the labor market works for nonprofit organizations. According to CEMEFI there are about 10,000 philanthropies in Mexico today. Of these about 2,500 are involved in health and education. Another important detail is that in Mexico, nonprofits that provide volunteer services generally do not gain anything from the government as they do in the U.S. where many services that are related to health and education are closely connected to the government for funding.

Description of Volunteer Function in Mexican Social Security Institute

In Mexico, the Social Security Institute (IMSS – Instituto Mexicano de Seguro Social) has fostered and administered two sets of volunteer programs. One program is a "charity" based hospital-work program where about 2,500 persons volunteer their time to work in hospitals around the country, mostly in urban areas. The other program operates among rural indigenous communities. Both have been extremely successful. The discussion focuses on the rural program, which once established, runs fairly autonomously and on very low budget. The highlights of the program and how it functions follow.

Briefly, the Mexican Social Security Institute includes a pension plan for employees, employee insurance as well as health services for workers and their families. There are administrative offices headquartered in every state as well as in small towns and rural communities that coordinate the paperwork and delivery of pension and insurance services. Additionally, there are medical facilities - hospitals, clinics and rural clinics - that provide direct medical services to the population.

In rural areas there is a specific program that targets lower income groups - "IMSS-Oportunidades" (Mexican Institute of Social Security – Opportunities). IMSS-Oportunidades operates in 17 of the 32 Mexican states where there are highly concentrated lower income populations. Each of the 17 states contains many rural localities where there is a rural hospital or a clinic from which medical services are offered and medical supplies are dispensed to the local population. (Many of these areas are impassable by any means other than foot. A total of 17,193 such rural locations operate in the 17 states. The central offices of Oportunidades within the Mexican Social Security Institute administration coordinate these efforts. As an extra service – outside of direct medical services - the IMSS-Oportunidades program runs an intense volunteer service to educate the local population using its own community members. The volunteers come directly from the immediate communities and are trained by paid Oportunidades personnel to educate their families and neighbors. The rural volunteer health workers are men and women from the community who are interested in the health and well-being of their communities and who help people maintain good health and a better quality

of life. There are two tiers of volunteers, the "coordinators" or Asistentes Rurales de Salud (Rural Health Assistants) who train and supervise and the Promotoras Voluntarias Rurales (Rural Volunteer Promoters). The task of the latter group is to promote health education among its fellow rural community members. There are to date 14,132 Rural Health Assistants working in the 17 states that operate IMSS-Oportunidades. The Rural Volunteer Promoters comprise a large group, mostly women, of 155,019 persons within the 17 states.

The job of the Rural Volunteer Promoters is to educate families on health issues. Each volunteer receives a list of 10 to 12 families in his or her region within walking distance as well as training in about 35 specific health themes (developed in an independent program known as Oportunidades, or previously as Progresa, which is administered also by the federal government through the Social Development Ministry). A critical part of the program is to teach people self-reliance and co-responsiblilty for their own health-care. The themes include, for example:

1. basic hygiene – including how to boil water to make it safe for drinking and cooking, how to cover prepared foods so that flies do not lay eggs on the surface, how to wash hands before preparing food and eating;
2. basic health care tips for pregnant women so that they have monthly prenatal exams during their pregnancies, receive folic acid supplements, etc.;
3. basic health care tips for nursing mothers and for caring for their newborns;
4. health and nutritional care for children under five years old, including vaccination plans, administering formula, prevention of accidents;
5. sexual and reproductive health; and
6. diabetes and hypertension.

The health volunteer promoter passes from house to house, to explain each theme, one at a time, until the recipient family understands all aspects of that topic. Once the volunteer has passed through all the assigned households with one topic, the next is selected, until all 35 have been taught. If there is a particular health campaign announced by the local rural hospital, then the volunteers are asked to help in the promotion of those issues specifically in addition.

In addition to these topics there is a very successful program for young people, which is called CARA and consists of the setting up of an adolescent resource center, usually a room within the rural hospital or clinic, and the teaching of themes important to 10 to 20-year-olds. This becomes a valuable opportunity to reach young people with very important themes regarding drugs, alcohol use as well as, reproductive health, (including: sexual behavior, prevention of teenage pregnancies, STDs and AIDS education). Trained health workers identify the youth group leaders within the community and train them as young volunteer health promoters in the adolescent-focused themes. The new young volunteers begin to bring their friends into the resource center where counselors offer educational programs, counseling, printed materials on adolescent health themes, condoms, and other birth control methods. A computer is available for use as a teaching aid as well as for individuals with interactive games.

This program has reached 2.6 million young people. The acceptance of birth control methods has gone up significantly over the past 5 years, obstetric costs for teenage pregnancies have gone down, and maternal mortality rates are down from a high of 11.5% in 1994 to a low of 4.13 in 2005, partly due to the contributing factor of better teenage reproductive health and education. There is no compensation for this work, but there is an implicit understanding that the health care volunteers are

contributing to the betterment of their communities and that ultimately everyone in the villages will benefit.

Conclusion

It is of great interest within Mexico to augment its volunteer function, especially where it can aid in the delivery of vital education and services to the poor and extremely poor sectors of society. Some upcoming publications will have the first conclusive statistical studies of volunteer numbers in Mexico. Changes in legislation continue to facilitate the establishment of nonprofits.

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About the Author

Anthea Stein de Levy holds a B.A. from McGill University, Montreal, Canada in Urban Planning and an M.B.A. from the Simmons College Graduate School of Business in Boston. She has been a resident of Mexico City since 1992. She held the position of Honorary President at the Mexican Social Security Institute's (IMSS-Instituto Mexicano del Seguro Social) volunteer organization, known as "Promotores Sociales Voluntarios". The group administers 2,500 volunteers that work within hospitals in preventive healthcare education and in programs to counsel terminally ill patients. Additionally, the group administers the rural indigenous volunteers, which comprise about 150,000 persons in rural areas of Mexico.

Torn Between Two Sectors: Government or Business?

Lucas C.P.M. Meijs,
RSM Erasmus University
Department of Business-Society Management
P.O. Box 1738
3000 DR Rotterdam
The Netherlands
Telephone: +31-10-4081921
FAX: +31-10 408 90 12 (Fax)
E-mail: lucas.meijs@planet.nl

Abstract

This article describes the variety in the Dutch nonprofit/volunteer sector and shows five phases in the development of the Dutch nonprofit sector. The first four phases lead to the development of a huge nonprofit sector which is paid staff dominated. Volunteers play an important role in rendering services in many fields but not in fundraising. Recently, the governmental subsidy system has changed fundamentally leading to pressures on nonprofit and volunteer organisations to raise more voluntary input, both in time as well as in money. Staying in line with the historic development, the Dutch government has undertaken several initiatives to support and improve volunteering which have had little success. Initiatives from the corporate sector are on the rise. The expectation is that volunteer administrators can play an important role in helping their organisations attract more voluntary support, both in time and money.

Keywords:
Netherlands, sector relations, government, business

Introduction

The Dutch nonprofit sector is of considerable size and importance (Burger & Dekker, 1998) including is for European context high level of volunteering. The corporatist nonprofit regime (Salamon, Wojciech Sokolowski & Anheier, 2000) leads to a dominant financial relation with government and a low level of relations with businesses. This paper will present a story of developing these relations based upon Hupe and Meijs (2000) and more recent developments, including the business community.

As in many other countries, the Dutch nonprofit sector is not monolithic. One part is dominated by service delivering professional organisations in sectors like education, public broadcasting, public housing, welfare, and healthcare. The *small* nonprofit sector is much more volunteer oriented and consists of many local (volunteer) chapters that are part of nationwide organisations (e.g., in sports, recreation, hobby, additional care services like friendly visiting, and more small initiatives.) These organisations cannot really be described as grassroots (Smith, 2000) because of their size and national vertical integration (Meijs, 1997). Many organisations can be typified as mutual supports. Nevertheless, in the *small* nonprofit sector, paid staff, until recently, was to a high degree, paid for by governmental subsidies.

A Short Historic Overview

Extending a previous study (Hupe & Meijs, 2000), a crude five- phase development can be described:

Phase 1 – Pre-pillarisation: an emancipation process

Phase 2 - Pillarisation: serving the public by serving your own group

Phase 3 - De-pillarisation: going public
Phase 4 - Going private: introducing market
Phase 5- Going private: reintroducing civil society

In the 1900s, Roman Catholics, some Protestant groups, and the working class were in a constant battle for recognition by the state which ended in 1917 when general voting rights were traded against (close to 100%) governmental financial support for religious schools. Pillarisation, phase 2, refers to a society "divided into clearly identifiable and measurable segments which have their own separate social and political organisations" (Lijphart, 1984, p. 11). At the top (parliament), the elites of the different pillars met and made certain that each pillar got its fair share of subsidies for their own organisations, including, for example, church-based youth organisations. This created a huge nonprofit sector with a declining *ownership* position for volunteers in service delivery organisations and a limited need to volunteer for fundraising. Volunteer administrators and other paid staff were paid for by the government. Due to processes such as secularisation, depillarisation (phase 3) started, leading to the merging and fusion of the large pillarised nonprofit providers into *professional* organisations that have adopted field wide norms (Powell & Friedkin, 1987). It became hard to draw a line between nonprofit and governmental organisations. This means private norms and values (e.g., religion) became less visible in most nonprofit organisations. Many paid staff in nonprofits perceived themselves as working for a governmental institution. The next phase started when *market* was introduced for the big service delivery organisations. It is important to understand that until about the year 2000, there were very limited or almost no direct financial lines between nonprofit organisations and businesses; philanthropy (individuals, businesses and foundations) made up less than 3% of the overall funding of the sector (Burger et al, 1999).

Phase 5: Going Private: Reinventing Civil Society

The fifth phase, going private: reinventing civil society, represents a major change in the Dutch nonprofit regime from corporatist to liberal (Salamon et al., 2000; Meijs & Voort, 2004). In the public discourse, civil society plays an important role defined as taking one's own responsibility and rendering informal care and formal volunteering service to people in need. There is big public pressure on people to volunteer and on organisations to work with (more) volunteers. Volunteer administrators and volunteer centres are forced to recruit more volunteers although the paid staff part of the organisations that wants to volunteer is still resentful for having lost the financial and job security of governmental subsidies.

To support this move, the Dutch government undertook several initiatives to support and improve volunteering (Davis Smith & Elis, 2003; Brudney, 2004; Hal, Steenbergen & Meijs, 2005). The immediate results of these campaigns are limited but have lead to the establishment of a supporting infrastructure. In mid 2006, in about 200 of the 470 municipalities, there is an active volunteer centre. Volunteer administrators use this infrastructure to recruit new volunteers, to have volunteers and themselves trained, and to establish contact with businesses.

Also in this time frame, the Dutch business sector has taken corporate social responsibility to the local level of business community involvement. As stated before, corporate philanthropy and volunteering were unfamiliar concepts until somewhere at the end of the 1990s. From then, there has been a slow developing tradition. By early 2003, about fifteen largely multinational companies had become involved in Samenleving en Bedrijf (the Dutch Business in the Community). The majority of these organisations are in banking or

consultancy (Meijs & Van der Voort, 2004). In 2006 one of the front-runners in this field celebrated its first 5-year lustrum of having a well-organized corporate volunteering program. Volunteer administrators still are not comfortable going to businesses themselves. There are also no examples of (former) volunteer administrators working for corporate volunteering programs**.**

Conclusion

Dutch nonprofit organizations rapidly face the question of who to turn to for getting paid staff funded. The corporatist tradition in which every nonprofit organization gets government money is diminishing, while there is no tradition of high fees or large private donations. Although the signs are hopeful, there is also not yet a real tradition in corporate community involvement, including philanthropy.

It must be clear that this really influences the position of volunteer administrators. Firstly, their job security is under stress because of the increasing funding insecurity. Much more positively, volunteer administrators can and must play an important role in helping their organisations attract more private and voluntary contributions, first in time but also in money. Volunteer administrators need to establish new volunteer programs aimed at fundraising instead of delivering services. They also must play a more public role in helping to develop a tradition of private and corporate philanthropy.

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About the Author

Lucas C.P.M. Meijs, Ph.D., holds a chair on “Volunteering, Civil Society and Businesses” at the RSM Erasmus University, Department of Business-Society Management. He also consults organizations that work with volunteers or wish to stimulate and support volunteerism.

Are We Tending to the Future of Volunteerism?

Irv Katz
President, National Human Services Assembly
Managing Director, Volunteer Impact Fund
1319 F St, NW, Suite 402
Washington, DC 20004
Tel. (202) 347-2080
E-mail: irv@nassembly.org

Abstract

The author discusses the need for change among volunteer nonprofit organizations in partnering with public, private, corporate, and community organizations to provide the resources necessary to catalyze innovation. People of all ages and backgrounds have the skills, passion, and interest to help strengthen their communities. Whether and how they are engaged and supported is the difference between meaningful and sustainable impact, and disassociation with a sector that no longer meets their needs. Who better to develop and champion innovation in the sector than volunteer managers?

Key Words:
change, nonprofit, volunteer, collaboration, partnerships

We are rather proud in the United States (US) of our tradition of volunteerism and the "third sector," the voluntary or nonprofit sector. While there are similar traditions in other countries, it is exhilarating to witness, as this journal documents it, the growth of volunteerism around the world. But is the voluntary sector in the US as dynamic as it needs to be? Is it changing to adapt to sweeping societal changes? Has it found its place alongside the public and private sectors as they evolve?

If I thought the answers to these questions were "yes," I would not be writing this commentary. These issues are on the minds of many in the nonprofit sector but there is not yet a movement to reinvent or re-conceptualize the sector as the tectonic plates that hold it shift---the changing workplace, a primary source of volunteers for many organizations; increased work and family demands that cut into discretionary time; the changing nature of community and how we relate to one another, including the enormous explosion in online communities, among them.

Today, it is impossible to consider the nonprofit or voluntary sector as something entirely distinct from the other two sectors. Consider the massive support for voluntary organizations and volunteerism that comes from government and business---financial support, in-kind support (including volunteers), policies and practices that make it possible for nonprofit organizations to function. There is no doubt that volunteerism is fueled in great part by contributions of time and treasure from individuals, but nonprofit organizations would have a fraction of the impact they now do without funding and volunteers, both policymaking and hands-on volunteers, that come through the other sectors.

Is the nonprofit sector cultivating the other sectors to help it meet the demand for volunteers it anticipates in coming years?

For example, are we prepared for the enormous changes the aging of the baby boom generation will bring? Can we fill the volunteer slots they will empty or will many of them be there as volunteers but with very different expectations than those to which we are accustomed? Another: The private sector has historically played a significant role in populating the boards of nonprofit organizations. Will that change as companies struggle to fill management and leadership positions as anticipated, by the same demographic trends that will affect nonprofits, in the coming years? And beyond the voluntary sector's relationship with the public and for-profit sectors per se, what are we doing on any kind of significant scale to engage the increasingly diverse populations that make up these United States?

It comes down to the sector's capacity to recruit and manage volunteers, today and as the kinds of changes noted above unfold. In February 2004, the Urban Institute, the well-regarded independent think tank, released a report entitled, *Volunteer Management Capacity in America's Charities and Congregations.* The study, commissioned by The UPS Foundation, the Corporation for National and Community Service, and USA Freedom Corps, found that *nonprofit organizations and congregations have the will but not the way to engage more volunteers*. Capacity to engage more volunteers—in terms of staff to manage volunteers, widespread adoption of accepted volunteer management practices, access to more potential pools of volunteers and those with specific skills, and the like—is severely limited.

The Urban Institute report suggested strategies for addressing the volunteer management capacity deficit and that work was detailed further in *From Research to Action: A Unified Response to the 2004 Volunteer Management Capacity Study*. *From Research to Action* was produced by the National Human Services Assembly based on significant input and involvement from diverse people and organizations in the voluntary sector. It identified three aspects of the challenge to increasing volunteerism: suppliers—current and potential sources of volunteers; demand—the need for volunteer services; and management capacity—the abilities of organizations and the sector to receive and deploy volunteers and achieve results.

From Research to Action depicts these three as part of a giant pipeline for channeling volunteers and voluntary effort to produce impact in communities, with several pinch-points that, if not addressed, can constrict the flow. Among those factors that can facilitate or impede the flow are: support by nonprofit and civic leaders for increased investment in volunteer management; policies and practices of "suppliers" of volunteers that are conducive to volunteering; accessibility of information leading to desirable volunteer opportunities; and the range of options for getting involved.

IMPACT: A Fund for Change Through Volunteerism (also known as The Volunteer IMPACT Fund) was launched by The UPS Foundation two years ago to support innovative efforts that address some of the key challenges to increasing the capacity of the sector to recruit and manage more volunteers effectively; among them: establishing new suppliers and sources of volunteers (e.g., recruiting from industries and settings which had not promoted volunteerism as prominently in the past; broadening dissemination of curricula and information on effective volunteer management practices; and educating community leaders on the value of investing in volunteer management capacity).

Projects selected by the Volunteer Impact Fund demonstrate the kind of outside-the-box thinking and action necessary to increase our collective capacity to engage more volunteers and widen the pipeline of volunteerism. Some examples:

- The Minnesota Association for Volunteer Administration engaged business and civic leaders in understanding the value of volunteer management and has taken a training program on volunteer management practices across the state.
- The Rhode Island Land and Water Partnership is taking to scale a pilot effort in which multiple environmental groups share volunteer management support.
- The Free Library of Philadelphia, working in partnership with the local United Way, Chamber of Commerce, municipal agencies, and others, uses the infrastructure of the library system to leverage volunteerism for the benefit of public and private agencies.
- Action Without Borders, perhaps better known as Idealist.org, a go-to resource for young adults inclined toward public and nonprofit service, is raising the visibility of volunteer management as a viable and important career path.
- United Way of America will leverage its work with the national 2-1-1 information and referral network to equip 2-1-1 programs to effectively handle volunteers in times of disaster or crisis.
- American Humanics, which works with universities across the country, is working with the Points of Light Foundation and others to introduce students and faculty to careers in and skills of volunteer management.
- The National Council on the Aging is capitalizing on the skills and leadership of retiring baby boomers and other older adults by helping agencies understand how to engage volunteers with higher-order skills.
- Through Temple University's Center for Intergenerational Learning, immigrant college students reach out to immigrant communities to engage them in volunteerism.

Space limitations prevent my listing all of the exciting initiatives that will contribute to our knowledge and skill in this arena.

The Volunteer Impact Fund, in which The Home Depot, Capital One Financial Corporation, the AT&T Foundation, and others have invested as well as The UPS Foundation, is not alone in employing strategies of *From Research to Action* to increase volunteer management capacity. The Corporation for National and Community Service, state service commissions, local and national nonprofit agencies, volunteer centers, and many others have begun to address the challenges identified in the Urban Institute study and strategies cited in the National Human Services Assembly report.

The UPS Foundation, Corporation for National and Community Service, and USA Freedom Corps did the sector an immense service by commissioning the Urban Institute study, which has served to shed light on the deficit in volunteer management capacity the sector experiences. These organizations, the Points of Light Foundation, and many others continue to press the issue and encourage solutions. For example, the $1 million invested by The UPS Foundation has helped leverage an additional $3 million from some 30 other organizations and funding sources. And the will to increase volunteer management capacity was clearly demonstrated as 152 concepts papers and proposals were submitted for the relatively modest Volunteer Impact Fund,

which would eventually support seventeen projects.

The challenge moving forward is about nonprofits embracing the need for change, and funders–public, private, corporate, community-–partnering with them to provide the resources necessary to catalyze innovation. People of all ages and backgrounds have the skills, passion, and interest to help strengthen their communities. Whether and how they are engaged and supported is the difference between meaningful and sustainable impact, and disassociation with a sector that no longer meets their needs. Who better to develop and champion innovation in the sector than volunteer managers?

About the Author

Irv Katz is president and CEO of the National Human Services Assembly in Washington, DC The National Assembly is an association of the nation's leading national nonprofit health and human service, human development and community development organizations. The National Assembly manages the Volunteer Impact Fund.

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

Gesa Birnkraut
Professor and Department Head
Cultural Management & Humanities Department
Estonian Academy of Music and Theater
Ravala pst. 16
10143 Tallinn, Estonia
Telephone: +372 6675 861
FAX: +362 6675 865
E-mail: gesa.birnkraut@ema.edu.ee
article is reprinted (with updated format editions) from The Journal of Volunteer Administration

Abstract

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

Keywords:
cultural institutions, arts sector, volunteers, Germany, volunteer management

Introduction

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

Historical Background

The history of volunteering in the United States and in Germany is paradoxically very different and very similar at the same time. Many of the developments that resulted in the strong communitarianism in the United States arrived with European immigrants.

In Germany and in all of Europe there, is a very long tradition of taking responsibility for the community one lives in-to take responsibility in political and social fields. In the late 18th century, many registered societies and charities were founded, most whose sole purpose was to educate their members. A multitude of music and literature societies were founded as well as amateur choirs (Gall, 1989:196). Since then, Germany has maintained a very strong

network of registered societies for the recreation and education of its citizens. In these societies there always has been and still is a lot of volunteering. Though Germany has a strong tradition in volunteering in the amateur arts field and the sociocultural field, major arts institutions have almost no volunteers. A reason for this might be that in the early days the ruling aristocracy founded most of the arts institutions in Germany (Birnkraut, 2003:80). Every noble court had its own musicians, painters and actors. But in the 19th century there were also a lot of initiatives originated by interested citizens who founded theatres and financed opera houses. After a while, the city government partly or wholly financed these institutions. In 1918-after the First World War-all noble court institutions were transferred into the hands of the state. This development has continued today where most of the major German arts institutions are heavily subsidized by the state. German arts institutions still have concerns about private money and the influence of private donors on the arts, so the government took over much of the responsibility of the single citizen for the arts. This had a strong influence on the attitude of institutions towards volunteerism but also on the attitude of the single citizen regarding volunteering for arts institutions.

In the United States there has been, from the beginning, a very strong tradition to help the community. It was a vital part of the Puritan religion to take charge of one's own life but also to give back to the community. Americans are more or less still educated in this sense: "You are going to get a lot in this life but you have to give a lot back, too." (S. Stevens, personal communication, 2001). Donating money shows this, as does spending time for the institutions one cares for. This illustrates differences between the founding of arts institutions in the United States and Germany. Devoted citizens not only donated the first funds but also initiated the support of the community and founded most of the arts institutions (Dobkin Hall, 1992:39). *As* for most arts institutions in the United States, first there was the community's wish to found it symphony orchestra and then they started raising money and hired professional artists. Support and financing of these arts institutions remained in the hands of citizens and were not handed over to the government. To this day, the citizens still have the responsibility for arts institutions; without citizen support, they could not exist.

The Research Outline

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

- the collection of data and facts, the organization and content of the individual programs
- the recruiting process
- the relationship between employees and volunteers, especially volunteers and artists
- threat of loss of positions, professionalism and responsibility
- results of volunteer activity
- introduction of management theories
- basic advantages and disadvantages of the engagement of volunteers, and,
- motivation of the volunteers.

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

of volunteerism.

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

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

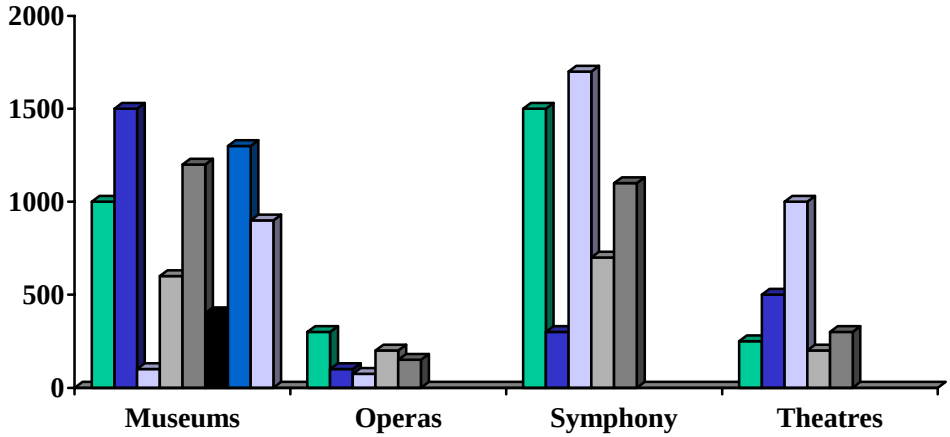
Results

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

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

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

FIGURE 1
Number of volunteers in the different programs of the interviewed institutions

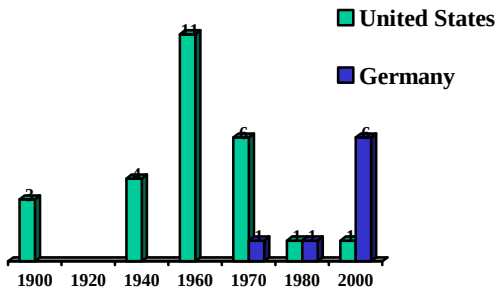


*When were the programs founded***?** The programs in the United States were founded mostly in the 60s and 70s, but there were some that were as old as 98 years, founded in 1904. The existing volunteer programs in Germany were mostly founded in the 90s, the oldest founded in 1976 (Figure 2).

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

Profile of the volunteers. In United States institutions the average volunteer is female, in her sixties and with a fairly well established background, education and financial situation.

FIGURE 2
Number of volunteer programs founded over the years



Fields of volunteer work. Volunteers in arts institutions in the United States work in a wide variety of jobs, including

- fundraising
- archiving
- guiding or giving pedagogical lectures, helping the curator
- doing translations
- selling tickets
- ushering.

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

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

- In theatres and operas volunteer work is concentrated on admissions and ushering. This, however, is only the case in institutions that are not unionized. Volunteers are frequently given free admission as a reward.
- The symphony orchestras engage most of their volunteers in fundraising, and in the last few years also in education. Symphony orchestras in the United States use education programs as an active too to strengthen the bonds with the community.

Museums focus on informational guest services and also develop broad educational activities with the help of volunteers. Volunteer guides are a special type of volunteer because of the long and rigorous training they have to go through before they start working. Guides often go through one or even two years of training including weekly lectures by curators, one to two days of library work per week, and written and oral exams. For these positions volunteers have to sign long-term commitments (for example, a three-year contract at the Metropolitan Museum of Art in New York City). Despite the difficult requirements and the long training period, there are waiting lists for these positions.

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

Integration into the organization. Volunteer programs are integrated into cultural institutions in the United States in a variety of ways. Some are subsumed under the personnel department (Seattle Symphony),

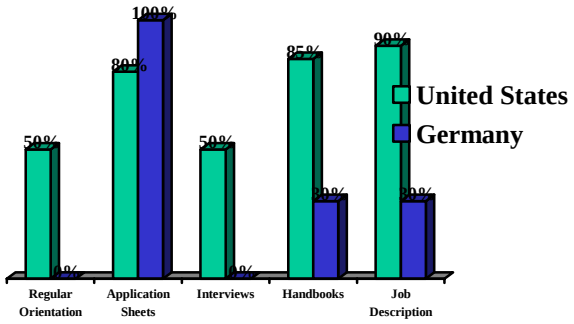
some belong to the development department (Philadelphia Orchestra, Chicago Symphony). Some have their own department directly under senior management (Metropolitan Museum of Art). Sometimes the volunteer activities are included in the organization as special events (Oregon Shakespeare Festival. San Francisco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

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

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

Attitudes about volunteerism. In Germany there is a general concern that the work to operate a volunteer program is greater than the benefit. Most of the institutions do not see any potential areas of work for volunteers-which clearly illustrates that the major arts institutions in Germany are still quite well staffed. Moreover, there is a concern that the volunteers will not represent the institution properly.

FIGURE 3
Percentage of volunteer programs using the described instruments



An impressive result from the research was the trust American institutions have in their volunteers. Most of the managers of volunteers interviewed-especially in the education and the guide programs-have their volunteers represent their institutions to all of their visitors, potential donors and customers.

In Germany, the institutions do not see potential work fields for volunteers and thus do not see any potential volunteers either.

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

Arts institutions in the United States gave no reasons against volunteerism. Most of the American institutions stated that the programs executed and supervised by

volunteers simply would not exist without their support.

Advantages and disadvantages of volunteer programs. Two main advantages were named by the American institutions:

- volunteers are their ambassadors in the community and with potential sponsors
- volunteers serve as motivators of a multitude of programs that only exist because of them

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

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

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

Volunteer manager as a profession. In the United States, the profession of manager of volunteers has been fighting for acceptance since its beginnings 40 years ago. Many of the managers of volunteers found themselves in this job either because it was vacant or because it was the only way to be promoted. The acceptance, importance, and interpretation of the position varies greatly in different institutions. The reasons for this probably lie in the many important personal attributes that are necessary for the position of manager of volunteers:

> *Creating and communicating a shared vision; embracing diversity while nurturing pluralism; accepting change and managing ambiguity; acting within shared values and championing ethical behavior; linking effective management to personal leadership; reflecting. (Safrit & Merrill* 1999:28-43)

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

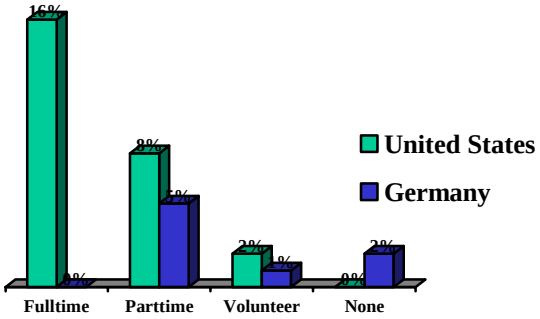
In all the American institutions that were interviewed there was a special, permanent manager whom volunteers could address. The positions differ, however, in the paid status of the manager, the number of staff in their division, and whether the management of volunteers is only a part of their job (Figure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

Only two institutions had a "volunteer" coordinator of volunteers. In the case of six coordinators, their work with volunteers constitutes only a small part of their position, and there were two half-time positions. All others devoted themselves full-time to working with volunteers, and had up to seven additional paid staff in their division (four institutions had over five employees, and five institutions had up to three co-workers).

The manager of volunteers position has existed in the interviewed institutions from 36 years to less than five years. Seven institutions have had the position for more than 20 years.

FIGURE 4

Percentage of institutions that employ managers of volunteers.



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

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

Implications and Follow-Ups

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

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

Volunteer effort can be most effective if a strong structure is implemented before starting to utilize volunteers. It is necessary to find the right place within the organization and to have a maximum backup by the senior management of the institution.

For American institutions, this research allows a different perspective and shows that apart from all the success volunteer programs have, there still is the need for

even more professionalism and improved networking. Long range and strategic planning still have to be implemented as normal instruments for volunteer programs. The level of volunteering in the arts accomplished so far has to be the starting point for even higher efforts.

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

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About the Author

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

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A Look Inside Corporate Employee Volunteer Programs

Dr. Ellen J. Benjamin
[Editor's Note: author's contact information not available]

Abstract

This article provides insights into how corporate employee volunteer programs are run, what they hope to accomplish and how these results are assessed by their administrators. Data presented were collected in a survey of individuals who administer corporate volunteer programs in the Chicago area. Findings will be useful to those companies wishing to initiate or fine-tune their efforts to encourage employees' work with nonprofits, as well as to agencies and communities seeking to work with corporate volunteerism programs.

Key Words:
corporate volunteerism, employees, administration, management

Introduction

A great deal has been written about the nonprofit sector's reliance on volunteers and the habits of volunteers themselves (Lake; Saxon-Harold). As a result we know much about who volunteers, where and why people volunteer, what is expected while on the job, what turns volunteers off and how officials within nonprofits might effectively administer their volunteer programs (Brudney;Cnaan and Amrofell; Hedden). Research has focused narrowly on defining the terms (Cnaan, Handy and Wadsworth) and broadly on identifying the determinants (Fleishman-Hillard Research; Smith), resulting in resources for nonprofit administrators that range from websites (www.energizeinc.com; www.volunteertoday.com), to textbooks (Fisher and Cole), to journals (*The Journal of Volunteer Administration*).

Among the critical things we have come to realize is that while most Americans believe more volunteerism is needed today than five years ago, they are devoting fewer hours to it themselves (Marchetti). Corporate employee volunteer programs, which include a variety of company-sponsored efforts to encourage employees (and sometimes retirees) to donate time and skills in service to the community, are potentially one method for addressing this problem (Meyer; Van Fossan). These volunteers have the potential for supplying the nonprofit sector with new talent, energy and resources, as well as a fresh perspective and low cost solutions to meeting needs (Vizza, Allen and Keller).

We still offered by only a limited number of American businesses, these programs appear to be increasing in number, size and scope (Points of Light Foundation), a trend that may in part result from attention drawn to corporate employee volunteerism through the President's Summit on America's Future in April 1997. Curiously though, much less is known about or published on the subject of corporate employee volunteer programs than about the societal need for volunteers and the motivational characteristics of volunteers themselves. This disparity was underscored in a recently published 29 item bibliography on volunteerism (Golensky) that included

only one citation dealing with corporate employee programs.

In part, the lack of citations is due to the fact that several publications pertaining to corporate employee volunteer programs are not out-of-print and hard to obtain (e.g., *Evaluating Corporate Volunteer Programs; Building Partnerships with Business: A Guide for Nonprofits*). Other excellent pieces are decades old and seem to have been forgotten (Wattel), or, were produced primarily for local audiences and not widely circulated (Corporate Volunteer Coordinators Council N.Y. Metropolitan Area; Corporate Volunteerism Council of the Minneapolis/St. Paul Area).

Of the literature that is available, four surveys stand out as presenting particularly useful overviews of the field (Points of Light Foundation; Rostami and Hall; Volunteer- The National Center, 1985; Wild). For the most part however publications on corporate employee volunteerism focus on guidance for company administrators, rather than on analyses of either data or theoretical questions. Topics include suggestions on how to:

- participate in a corporate volunteer council (Kirk, Klug and Monroe);
- identify stakeholders, define levels of company support, identify benefits to the company (Seel);
- develop volunteer motivation and recognition, work effectively with nonprofits, communicate for success (Corporate Volunteerism Council);
- align volunteerism with a corporation's mission and philanthropy, connect employee interests and community needs, shift toward decentralized employee-run programs (Mathieu);
- set goals, develop structures and corporate policies (SSR, Inc.);
- select program options for inclusion such as a clearinghouse, skillsbank, matching monetary or in-kind awards (Plinio and Scanlon);
- create family friendly volunteering (McCurley; McKaughan);
- manage legal liability and insurance issues (Tremper and Kahn); and,
- recruit volunteers and evaluate program impact (Vineyard).

Some of these publications include moving portrayals of employees' experiences as volunteers (Forward), others present case study examples of the sponsoring businesses (Fleishman-Hillard Research; McKaughan; Plinio and Scanlon; Soloman, Ragland, Wilson and Plost; Vizza, Allen and Keller) or provide samples of company materials utilized to promote employee volunteerism, such as newsletters, award certificates, and employee forms (Corporate Volunteer Coordinator' Council). This is a qualitatively rich literature written, for the most part, not by scholars but by those with personal experience running corporate programs who intend to offer practical advice and encouragement.

The relative inattention of academicians to corporate volunteerism is surprising given hat so much research has been conducted about the other half of this equation – the nonprofit programs that want volunteers. The processes of supplying and receiving volunteers are, after all, symbiotic and could perhaps be even more effectively linked if each party better understood the other's desires and constraints (Heidrich).

This study seeks to aid that understanding by contributing further information to existing works on volunteerism. While many of the findings will prove particularly useful to businesses, there are lessons to be considered by both for-profit and not-for profit executives who seek to promote volunteerism.

Methodology

The questionnaire utilized to collect data for the research reported upon in this article was designed by a DePaul University research team with input from two prominent Chicago-based coalitions focused on philanthropy: The Donors Forum of Chicago (a regional association of grant-makers) and The Chicagoland Employee Volunteer Council (a metropolitan alliance of businesses interested in promoting employee volunteerism.) Each of these coalitions proposed topics for inclusion in this study that they considered to be relevant to their membership, yet minimally reported upon in scholarly literature and poorly understood by the effected parties. In addition, corporate foundation directors who had previously run volunteerism programs were utilized in pre-tests of the survey to refine it for maximum validity, reliability and utility; none of these individuals were included in the subsequent data collection.

The questionnaire was mailed during summer 2000 to the 43 members of The Chicagoland Employee Volunteer Council. Fifteen responses (a 35% response rate) were received and analyzed. All but two participants reported the date of initiation for their volunteerism program. Among these respondents, a third indicated they were reporting upon a volunteerism program initiated before 1981, while nearly twice as many respondents represented programs in operation less than 10 years.

Information was collected from a cross-section of industry types, including the fields of banking, telecommunications, manufacturing, retailing, utilities, and service industries. The majority of respondents (67%) reported on companies with 5,000 or more employees and none had less than 100 employees. Although corporate identification was optional for those completing the questionnaire, nearly half the respondents chose to indicate their affiliation. In total, 60% of the study's respondents indicated that their company was national and an additional 20% international in their operations, rather than regional or local. Given this sample, it is not surprising that everyone of the respondents who choose to self-identify listed their affiliation as being with a large and well known corporation, mostly from a corporate headquarters office.

It should be noted that the preponderance of large companies known to have participated in the study through self-identification may be an artifact resulting from the pool willing to self-identify but, probably more importantly, reflects an attribute of the population sampled. For example, both the City of Chicago and the membership of The Chicagoland Employee Volunteer Council contain a disproportionately high ratio of major corporations relative to other cities around the country. As a result, findings of this study cannot necessarily be generalized to practices in all locales or by all businesses.

Administration

Based on a comparison of their 1992 (Wild) and 1999 national surveys, The Points of Light Foundation credits administrators of employee volunteer programs with an increasing application of *II* disciplined management tools and techniques." Despite the evidence they find of increased professionalism during the past decade, Foundation authors also point to the difficulties apparent today as a result of instability in the volunteer management function (nearly a third have been on the job a year or less) and a juggling of multiple duties for those overseeing employee volunteerism (two-thirds spend less than half their time on this effort).

This first section looks at the administration of employee volunteer programs within Chicago-area businesses by focusing

on *Staffing and Financial Management.* The background presented provides a context to draw from in the two subsequent sections that examine PROGRAM DESIGN and PROGRAM RESULTS.

*Staffing.*Not surprisingly, many corporations make a connection between their philanthropic grant-making and their efforts to encourage employee volunteerism. This is particularly evident when looking at the staffing of volunteer programs.

Three fifths of respondents indicate that primary responsibility for their employee volunteer program rests with philanthropic staff (foundation or corporate giving). While one company indicates that responsibility is shared or rotated among departments and examples emerged of companies that assign management of volunteerism activities to communications, corporate affairs and/ or human resource personnel, the predominating pattern is for employee volunteer programs to be run by the same people handling charitable giving.

Although corporate volunteerism programs are generally administered by employees who carry many additional duties within their company and thus cannot dedicate full time attention to this function, two-thirds of respondents report augmenting this staffing through utilization of a committee of employees. In addition to the efficiency of such an approach, this may also be a reflection of the perceived link between grantmaking and volunteerism, since many companies now run their deductible contributions through employee committee systems.

More intriguing though is the possibility that volunteerism committees are being established to meet specific objectives connected to volunteerism itself. Most obvious is the philosophical consistency of staffing a volunteerism program through the use of volunteers. But there is an additional point of importance. Literature on this subject repeatedly suggests that learning "teamwork skills" is a key goal for employee volunteerism programs (Breyer; Raynolds and Raynolds). This study confirmed that emphasis. Ninety-three percent of respondents indicate that it is "very important" to their company that teamwork is experienced among employees as a result of their volunteer program. Formation of internal committees for the purpose of administration can be one tool for reaching this desired outcome.

A different, or additional, motivation for companies to form committees to administer volunteerism programs might be the desire to structure an opportunity for employee input as to the priorities and/ or operations of these initiatives. Some evidence arose to support this possibility, although findings are mixed.

For example, without exception, everyone within this study who describes a committee indicates that multiple levels of employees participate. This suggests an interest in promoting participation in program oversight among a broad range of persons. Furthermore, when asked, "Who in your organization provides input into the design of the employee volunteerism program?" 46% of respondents cite "employees." Since, as described later in this paper, employee input is only casually and sporadically obtained as a *follow-up* to volunteerism performed, it seems likely that much of this is acquired through committees during the planning and implementation phases.

On the other hand, an even higher percentage of respondents report that senior management (rather than employees-at-large) are the ones who provide input into the design of their volunteerism programs. And no one suggests that community or agency representatives are consulted. In fact, four companies that *have* committees did *not* indicate that employees provide input into

the design of their program. This implies that employee participation is valued, and perhaps useful for administration, but that ultimate authority may reside outside this group process.

This impression regarding authority over corporate volunteerism programs is confirmed by responses to the question, "Who in your company has authority to approve the volunteer projects undertaken?" Tellingly, only one respondent indicated their volunteerism committee chair held authority, while everyone else listed a senior manager (e.g., Vice President Community Affairs, Chief Financial Officer, President). Some of this authority is shared with Regional Community Relations Directors and geographically dispersed local managers, a process that seems logical given that 80% of respondents operate employee volunteer programs at locations other than their headquarters. Even in these cases, however, the data shows that decision-making regarding expenditures and program activities is still centralized downtown with company executives.

Financial Management. Interestingly, one-fifth of respondents are operating their volunteerism program *without* an established budget. Of course this could mean that expenditures are simply absorbed by the company without record keeping, a potentially positive situation for entrepreneurial administrators. This would, however, be unusual within a for-profit enterprise; and, in fact, only one administrator indicates that they have a "discretionary allowance." Rather, the lack of financial accounting implicit in the absence of a budget raises the question of whether volunteerism programs without a financial plan receive and/or spend very much money on their activities.

Four-fifths of the volunteerism programs *do*, however, create budgets and track expenses. These programs are clear about how, and how much, they spend; as well as to whom this information must be reported within their company.

Table 1 provides details on this circumstance. As shown, everyone who reports budget allocations indicates that money is spent for program administration. In addition, more than one-quarter of respondents who fund administration internally also spend money on outside consultants. Like the development of internal committees, the use of consultants may be a strategy for augmenting the limited amount of staff time corporations devote to their volunteer programs.

TABLE 1
Items Included in Corporate Employee Volunteerism Program Budgets

BUDGETED EXPENSE	
In-house administration of Program	100%
Food, T-shirts or other Items Given to employees	100%
Photos of Events	91%
Employee Recognition Events	91%
Internal Marketing for Volunteering	73%
Transportation to Volunteer Sites	64%
In-king Donation to Agencies	55%
Cash Grants to Agencies	45%
External Publicity for the Program	45%
External Consultants to the Program	27%
Loaned Executives to Agencies	18%
Employee Release Time	18%

Interestingly, costs for activities designed to encourage and acknowledge employee participation are as likely to be incurred as administrative costs. Everyone who reports budget allocations indicates that money is spent for gifts to employee participants and 91% report outlays for recognition events and photo taking.

But if funds for the internal administration of Chicago-area volunteerism programs

are limited, they are even more constrained when it comes to external activities. As one looks further afield from a direct corporate interest in employees and toward the potential funding of the agencies where volunteerism occurs, the tendency to spend money wanes. While more companies provide in-kind donations than cash to volunteer sites, only about half of respondents do either directly through their employee volunteerism budget. Perhaps it is possible that grants to volunteer sites are provided independently through these companies' charitable giving programs although, as discussed in the subsequent section on Program Goals, the evidence for this is not strong. What does stand out in examining the budgets reported upon in this' study is that the key financial focus for corporate volunteer programs is on the internal elements of administration.

In keeping with this finding, it is of note that substantially more Chicago-area companies allocate funds for internal marketing of their volunteerism programs than to external publicity about the programs (73% versus 45%). In light of the fact that two-thirds of respondents report that creating positive publicity for the company is a "very important" result for their volunteer program, one might expect these figures to be reversed or at least equalized. This is especially the case since the same two-thirds ratio also report that their CEO might wish to increase the external recognition of company sponsored volunteer programs. Perhaps, as is often the case with grant-making programs, companies are hoping that the recipients of their largess will take the lead in generating the desired goodwill. If this is so, the information may provide a helpful hint to nonprofits regarding corporate expectations.

Sixty-seven percent of respondents report that they "regularly establish goals" for their employee volunteer program, a subject that is further discussed later in this paper. For now it is interesting to note that everyone who reports establishing goals for their corporate volunteerism program also creates a budget. Correlation, not causation, has been determined. Nonetheless, there is a logical link: if you know what you want to accomplish it is possible to determine the resources necessary for getting the job done, while it is tough to lobby for or acquire funds while unclear about how or why such money will be spent. The lack of goals for their corporate volunteerism program may, therefore, help explain why one-fifth of these programs operate without a budget.

Perhaps, however, some of this looseness regarding the establishment of goals stems from another source: the lack of corporate policy relative to volunteerism. Only 53% of respondents are aware of any formal policies within their company regarding these programs. In addition, of the companies indicating that they both set goals and establish a budget, less than a third report that the same position has the authority for approving both.

As Rostami and Hall point out, these issues are intertwined and have an important impact on the future of an employee volunteer program. Data from their Canadian-based survey led these authors to conclude that companies that do have formal policies for their volunteerism efforts:

- are more likely to support community volunteering in proactive ways;
- have better-managed volunteer programs;
- enhance their support to the volunteer program through integration of volunteer efforts with other corporate community investment activities; and,
- are more likely to increase their level of support for employee volunteerism in the, coming year.

In summary, findings suggest a compli-

cated milieu within which to administer a volunteerism program given the limited amount of staff time devoted to corporate volunteerism, the lack of clear corporate policy relative to these programs and the dispersion of authority for approving budgets and activities. These challenges are shown by the data to be, in part, offset by the fact that many staff miming corporate volunteerism programs are knowledgeable about the nonprofit sector (through their additional charitable giving duties) and are resourceful in augmenting their staff limitations (through committees and consultants).

Program Design

This section begins by examining the Program Goals of corporate employee volunteer programs. It delves into the motivations for starting these programs and for selecting volunteer sites, then looks into how these intentions are translated into actual Services and Opportunities for Volunteers. These findings provide an overview of why and how Chicago-area corporate volunteerism programs are designed.

Program Goals. Companies describe three distinct motivations for starting volunteerism programs: an interest in their employees, the community and/or the corporation. In some cases all three motivations seem to be operating in a mixture of internal and external concerns. In only one instance was concern for "the community" singularly cited.

Most frequently reported (54% of respondents) are motivations related to employees. Comments include opinions that the program is: "a benefit to employees," "an opportunity for employees," and "good for employees." Fewer, but still a significant number of respondents (46%) report motivations centered on corporate image and/ or objectives, such as a desire to "promote the company as an employer of choice," "enhance business contacts," or to be known as a "good corporate citizen." Much less frequently mentioned (31% 'of respondents) are the needs of the community.

The emphasis on service to the community picks up, however, when asked "What three words might be placed in a press release to describe why your company has a volunteer program?" In this context (where respondents are asked not just what their motivations may be, but what they might publicly claim their motivations to be) "community involvement" and “partnerships" are cited by nearly everyone. In addition, one new motivation surfaces. Here, for the first time, respondents discuss corporate volunteerism in terms of relationships with "customers."

The importance, for many businesses, of connecting employee volunteer programs to their customer base was reconfirmed through a further question. When respondents were asked if they would be likely to sponsor an employee volunteer project if it could accommodate a lot of employees but was located in a community where they had few customers, 33% percent said' "no," 27% were "unsure," and 40% said "yes." In other words, for at least one-third (and possibly as many as 60%) of respondents the potential for enhancing customer relations is a factor weighed in making decisions about their corporate volunteer program.

It is interesting to compare these views with other circumstances that might impact the selection of a volunteer site. Table 2 details opinions about some of the pragmatic choices faced by volunteer administrators and how they predict competing pressures might be weighed in selecting volunteer sites.

Findings here suggest that many factors have the potential for entering into the

TABLE 2
Competing Pressures In Selecting Volunteer Sites

IF YOU THOUGHT A POTENTIAL VOLUNTEER PROJECT…	Yes	No	Not Sure
…was valuable but was not with an agency to which the company made charitable cash gifts, would you be likely to send volunteers?	67%	13%	20%
…was socially valuable but could use only a few employees, would you be likely to place volunteers in this project?	67%	13%	20%
…could accommodate a lot of employees but was located in a community where you had few customers, would you be likely to sponsor this project?	40%	33%	27%

decision to sponsor a new volunteer project, including the social value of a project and the capacity to accommodate a lot of employees. But one factor that appears less influential to Chicago-area companies than it may be to other businesses across the country, is the potential for using volunteer programs to leverage philanthropic giving. While The Points of Light Foundation found in its 1999 survey that "many U.S. companies use their volunteer efforts strategically to reinforce the value of funds given through corporate philanthropy," 67% of Chicago-area companies report that they are willing to send volunteers to a site even if the agency is not one to which the company makes charitable cash gifts.

In addition to the choices portrayed in Table 2, most participants (87%) report that" day and time of a service activity" is of concern. As shown in Table 3, business objectives weigh least heavily in selecting a new project. By contrast, employee preferences are "very important" to about three-quarters of administrators. This claim seems in keeping with the aforementioned "interest in employees" as a motivation for starting a corporate volunteerism program. In addition, everyone considers community and agency needs having some importance.

The interest in selecting socially valuable projects portrayed in Table 2 seems consistent with the further interest portrayed in Table 3 for community and agency needs. Findings do, however, point to a curious inconsistency between administrators' beliefs and actual practices for designing employee volunteerism programs. For although the majority of administrators report that community and agency needs are "very important" in selecting projects, in reality, employees' needs are solicited and considered with greater regularity. This was seen in the section on Staffing, when nary a respondent mentioned community or agency representatives as providing input into the design of their program (only employees and senior management were indicated). And it is shown again in the upcoming section on Services and Opportunities for Volunteers, where one learns that the majority of corporations organize episodic volunteer activities that require large groups of volunteers; a way of organizing volunteerism that is convenient for many employers, although it is suitable to only a limited range of non-profits or community needs.

Services and Opportunities for Volunteers. Among the sample studied, all respondents offer employees a chance to volunteer at one or more nonprofits *pre-selected* by the company. This is handled in a variety of ways.

Less than half (47%) organize activities that operate continuously at pre-selected sites, while nearly everyone arranges some special event at a pre-selected site. Of those arranging a special event, seventy-three percent do this several times per year at a pre-selected site(s), while twenty-seven percent concentrate efforts into one

TABLE 3
Importance of Factors in Choosing a New Project

	VERY IMPORTANT 10	5	NOT IMPORTANT 0
Day and time of service activity	87%	13%	0%
Employee preferences	73%	20%	7%
Community needs	60%	40%	0%
Location of volunteer site	60%	27%	13%
Type of tasks required of volunteers	60%	27%	13%
Agency needs	53%	47%	0%
Business objectives	47%	40%	13%

Volunteer Day annually. For respondents in this study (as mentioned just above), the corporate effort for arranging placements, for the overwhelming majority, is oriented toward activities that can be handled episodically by groups.

The unanimity on the point of offering involvement at pre-selected sites is striking. It also suggests an informed or intuitively insightful strategy for offsetting one of the biggest challenges to volunteer recruitment: the fact that many people's failure to volunteer results from not being asked to serve (Saxon-Harrold). By pre-selecting sites, corporate programs may be overcoming the obstacle that many potential volunteers simply do not know where their service is needed.

Apart from this one commonality however, diversity of approach toward administration and program structure appears to be the most apt descriptor of the corporate volunteerism programs that participated in this study. The lack of uniformity is surprising. A more likely situation would be to find isomorphism among programs since 40% of respondents report that their best external source of ideas for their employee volunteer programs are other company volunteer program administrators. Among the population sampled, the data shows that administrators know one another, share ideas and feel comfortable replicating elements of one another's programs.

Table 4 gives more details on this, indicating that there are some services common to most programs, although only the offering of opportunities at pre-selected sites is universal. Two services organized by the majority of corporate volunteer administrators are: (1) offering employees information about nonprofits in general, which may be used independently by employees in picking a site for volunteering; and, (2) offering placement services on nonprofit boards of directors. It is also of note that four-fifths of respondents encourage employees to carry out volunteering in teams and an equal number report encouraging .employees' family members to participate in company sponsored volunteer programs.

In addition to the services just portrayed, the opportunities attached to volunteering also vary among corporations. Differences may be found on two dimensions: (1) what type of incentive/reward is provided; and, (2) whether the incentive/reward is provided to all employees who volunteer, or, only to employees who volunteer at an agency preselected by the company. Table 5 provides details on this circumstance.

The data shows that a broad range of incentives/rewards (e.g., recognition at a company event, credit for volunteering in employee performance evaluations) are offered to a broad range of employees. In fact, if an incentive/reward is offered,

TABLE 4
Variation in Services Provided to Employees

SERVICES OFFERED TO EMPLOYEES PERCENT OF	COMPANIES OFFERING THE SERVICE
Provides a chance for employees to volunteer at one or more nonprofits pre-selected by the company	100%
Encourages employees to carry out volunteering in teams	80%
Encourages employees' family members to participate in company sponsored volunteer programs	80%
Offers placement services on nonprofit Boards of Directors	60%
Provides information about nonprofits in general, which employees may use independently in picking a site for volunteering	53%

it is much more likely to be provided to all employees who volunteer than exclusively being offered to those volunteering at pre-selected sites. This suggests that, for companies running volunteerism programs, there is a generalized interest in encouraging employee volunteer efforts, rather than a narrow interest in channeling employees exclusively into activities pre-selected by the company. Given that all respondents indicate that they offer the chance to volunteer at pre-selected sites, this is particularly interesting. Clearly the concept of volunteerism remains a focus for most Chicago-area companies, rather than the more narrow possibility of promoting a particular cause or agency.

The one exception to this stance shows up when looking at release time for employees. In this case, employees are far more likely to be permitted time off during normal business hours if the company has pre-selected the volunteer site. This is a reminder of the fact, pointed out in Table 3, that for most administrators "day and time of service activity" is a very important factor in choosing a new project. Agency representatives may wish to note that this points to a clear advantage for nonprofits making it onto a pre-selected list, should they desire volunteers Monday through Friday, during the day.

In summary, one sees that although impacting customers and the community are both desirable goals for volunteerism programs, employee preferences are a more critical concern. In keeping with this priority, the data shows that programs are designed to offer a range of incentives and rewards to nurture employee participation. This is consistent with earlier reports on budget expenditures which were shown to also pay attention to encouraging employee participation (versus nonprofit participation which is only. minimally funded). Having learned this much about the "why" and "how" of corporate volunteerism programs, one naturally then wonders about the results of these efforts.

Program Results

Attitudes and practices regarding selection of projects, as described in previous sections, can be compared to administrators' beliefs about the importance of different types of results to their company, as well as to claims in the literature about what businesses could accomplish through employee volunteerism.

The perceived benefits of employee volunteerism seem to be wide ranging. For example, one study reporting upon inclusion of family members in corporate volunteerism programs suggests that improved corporate image in the community,

TABLE 5
Incentives/Rewards Offered to Employees

	YES, IF EMPLOYEE VOLUNTEERS AT AN AGENCY PRE-SELECTED BY THE COMPANY	YES, FOR ALL EMPLOYEES WHO VOLUNTEER
Release time for employees to volunteer during normal business hours	54%	7%
Cash grants to nonprofits where employees volunteer	27%	73%
Recognition of volunteers by the company (at an event or in a publication)	27%	60%
In-kind donations to nonprofits where employees volunteer	27%	46%
Credit for volunteers in performance evaluations (should this be volunteering)	13%	20%
Enhanced salary or bonus pay for volunteers	0%	0%

enhanced employee morale in the workplace and employee feelings of wellbeing may all be achieved through such programs (McKaughan). Another study contrasts the potential for tangible and intangible benefits, suggesting that the latter are more achievable although tougher to assess. Nonetheless, as the authors of this second study point out, "in to day's environment of increased accountability, it will be important for volunteer programs to be able to demonstrate their value in concrete ways" (Rostami and Hall).

In its publication *Evaluating Corporate Volunteer Programs,* Volunteer-The National Center argues against assumptions that volunteering is "doing good," high on warm fuzzies, low on results, but to be valued for its own sake whether or not there is a concrete outcome. It asserts that volunteering is a form of work, albeit unpaid, and may therefore be judged as are other productivity activities: on the basis of the effectiveness of the process, the results achieved versus those expected, and on the impact upon those involved.

This section examines desired Outcomes for the corporate volunteerism programs that participated in the Chicago-area survey, looking also at the ways in which these results are measured through Evaluation.

Outcomes. Table 6 shows that the four most frequently cited "very important" results desired from corporate volunteerism programs are: helping needy people in the community (93%), having employees experience teamwork (93%), boosting employee morale (87%) and giving nonprofits assistance (80%). Reinforcing corporate culture and building relationships with nonprofits are each "very important" to nearly three-fourths of respondents. And, in each of these instances, almost all respondents consider each of these results as being at least somewhat important.

In general though, company centered objectives (such as creating positive publicity or increasing exposure to potential customers) are of importance to fewer respondents than are employee centered results, or, community and nonprofit centered results. While this seems consistent with earlier findings regarding the importance of meeting employees' preferences, this also points to a recurring incongruity in

TABLE 6
Importance of Possible Results

	VERY IMPORTANT 10	5	NOT IMPORTANT 0	NO RESPONSE
COMMUNITY AND NONPROFIT CENTERED RESULTS				
Needed people in the community are helped	93%	7%	0%	0%
Nonprofits get our assistance	80%	20%	0%	0%
Relationships are built with nonprofits	73%	27%	0%	0%
Community problems are solved	67%	33%	0%	0%
EMPLOYEE CENTERED RESULTS				
Teamwork is experienced among employees	93%	7%	0%	0%
Employee morale is boosted	87%	0%	0%	13%
Employees' individual skills are developed	60%	40%	0%	0%
Employee self-confidence is enhanced	60%	40%	0%	0%
COMPANY CENTERED RESULTS				
Corporate culture is reinforced	73%	20%	7%	0%
Company cohesiveness is encouraged	67%	33%	0%	0%
Positive publicity is created for the company	67%	33%	0%	0%
Exposure is increased to potential customers	46%	40%	13%	0%

that such a high percentage of respondents claim to value achieving results for needy people and nonprofits, but only 50-60% of respondents focus upon community and agency needs when selecting new projects.

This portrait is especially interesting when compared to findings of the two national American studies that sought to understand this same subject (Wild; The Points of Light Foundation). Here the authors report that during the decade in the 1990s between their two surveys, there was a significant increase in the utilization of employee volunteer programs to "support core business functions." Included within this concept of support for core business functions was the idea of developing employee skills, an outcome of corporate volunteerism which was found to be valued by an identical 60% among those studied in both the national and the Chicago-area studies.

Findings of these studies are, however, divergent on a different and critical point. Far fewer Chicago-area companies currently report an effort to utilize their employee volunteer program to fulfill their company's public relations goals (67% locally as compared to 83% identified in the national sample). Perhaps this difference results from real distinctions between the priorities of companies in different geographic regions. It is also possible though that these differences will evaporate over time and that local companies will in the future behave more like the national profile, given The Points of Light Foundation's strong conviction that there is an increasing emphasis on meeting company business goals through employee volunteerism. Such a forecast would comport with the findings of an IBM sponsored study (cited by Wild) which suggests that the majority of businesses now connect their volunteer programs to factors" directly affecting profitability" (Lewin).

This picture is further elaborated when data is examined regarding how Chicago - area administrators perceive their companies' CEOs to be viewing these programs, individuals whose support is critical for

successful corporate volunteerism (Mathieu).

When asked "What might the CEO of your company wish to increase in your volunteer program?" the most frequent response (67%) was "external recognition of company-sponsored volunteer programs." A nearly equal number (60%) suggest that their CEO might wish to increase" effectiveness of volunteer activities in meeting community needs." It is important to bear in mind that this data records administrators' suppositions about their CEOs' views, rather than directly recording such opinions. Nonetheless, it tells us something about the experience and perceptions of those within a company regarding their volunteer program.

Table 7 shows the similarities and differences in what administrators believe should be increased in their volunteer programs versus what they imagine their CEO might wish to change. Notice the particularly large differences when it comes to internal funding of the program, desire to connect company sponsored volunteer activities to business objectives, and, the potential for making a connection between employees' job skills and volunteer responsibilities.

Evaluation. Although 73% of respondents are willing to cite some" accomplishment" of their program, the data of this study suggests that the basis for these opinions is primarily hear-say.

For the most part, feedback on corporate volunteerism programs is received in an informal and ad hoc manner through "word of mouth," "phone calls," "letters," "personal contact," and e-mails." Two companies report supplementing this feedback by looking to media coverage of their activities for assessment of their programs.

Although one-third report that they receive feedback from both nonprofits and employees, evaluations are proactively solicited only from the employees and even this process is extremely limited. Two companies survey their employees regarding their experiences in volunteering but none do this with agencies or communities. When, and if, companies hear from volunteer sites the message offered seems to be a "thanks" rather than an evaluation of achievements or suggestion about future directions.

As a result, and in contrast to practices reported in The Points of Light Foundation's national survey, Chicago-area administrators seem to be aware in only a limited fashion of whether their goals and desired results are being transformed into actual achievements. When asked "How do you know what is accomplished in your employee volunteer program?" a fifth of the companies are unable to suggest any method of assessment. One respondent straightforwardly confides "evaluation is our weakest component, we have no concrete documentation."

When pushed a little further as to whether there is a process to "measure the results" of their employee volunteer program, 73% report that there is none. Ironically, many of those lacking a measurement process nonetheless report regularly establishing goals. And, significantly, of those who attempt to calculate accomplishments, more people report that they tabulate output (quantity of hours and volunteers) than impact (effect of volunteerism).

Given the paucity of information available, it is not surprising that only 53% of respondents make a formal report on the results of their employee volunteer program. Of those that do report, memos to senior

TABLE 7
What CEOs Versus Administrators Might Wish to Increase in Their Volunteer Program

	CEO'S PRESUMED VIEW	ADMINISTRATOR'S VIEW
External recognition of company sponsored volunteer programs	67%	53%
Effectiveness of volunteer activities in meeting community needs	60%	40%
Senior management involvement	53%	67%
Relevance of company sponsored volunteer activities to business objectives	53%	27%
Quantity of hours and/or persons involved in company sponsored volunteering	47%	40%
Connection between employees' job skills and volunteer responsibilities	47%	20%
Diversity of types of agencies where employees volunteer	33%	13%
Quantity of hours and/or persons involved in volunteering generally	27%	20%
Hourly employees' involvement	20%	13%
Diversity of geographic locations for volunteer sites	20%	13%
Internal funding of program	7%	47%

managers within the company and notices in employee-wide forums (such as newsletters) are most commonly utilized.

Companies are, however, willing to discuss their programs externally. Forty percent report that they send out press releases on their corporate volunteerism and 33% speak publicly about their activities, although only one company includes information on their volunteerism program in their corporate annual report and none provide a report to their corporate board of directors.

Why, one wonders, in a corporate setting where results-oriented management is presumably the norm would so few programs evaluate their accomplishments. Sixty-seven percent indicate a "lack of personnel" as being a deterrent and 53% site a "lack of time." As shown in Table 8, these findings are a reminder that corporate volunteer programs are run by staff who carry many additional duties.

It should, however, also be noted that for 40% of respondents "measurement isn't a priority." This finding stands out. For, while one might reasonably debate many elements of calculating and evaluating program results (e.g., the value of quantitative vs. qualitative data, the relative importance of various potential assessors, the indeterminate nature of this work), the fact that goals and results are not compared and aligned is contradictory to generally accepted management principles and the practices of the majority of corporate employee volunteer programs (The Points of Light Foundation).

TABLE 8
What makes measuring the outcomes of your program difficult?

FACTORS	RESPONDENTS
Lack of personnel	67%
Lack of time	53%
Knowledge of effective Measurement practices	47%
Measurement isn't a priority	40%
Lack of defined or measurable objectives	40%
Lack of money	27%

In summary, findings suggest that while Chicago-area administrators hold clear views about desired results for their employee volunteerism programs, these outcomes are not rigorously measured. This stands in contrast to the findings of a national study (The Points of Light Foundation) in which 70% of respondents report conducting both internal and external impact assessments of their corporate employee volunteerism program, assessing benefits to the company, to the community, to the employee and to the company's partnership with the community.

In commenting on the merit of evaluation, The Corporate Volunteer Coordinators' Council urges companies that, "To do a thorough job of assessing the results of the volunteer program, you need to look at the impact a volunteer has on the agency, the community and the problem being attacked; you need to consider changes that take place in the employee's morale, work perfor--mance, self-confidence; and you need to examine the merits of spending corporate resources on volunteerism vs. spending them on other kinds of social action programming. These things apply whether you're reviewing the work of one volunteer or 100." Despite the merit of this guidance and the good intentions of local administrators, the staffing and budgetary realities unveiled through this study suggest that such a process is unlikely to be implemented in the near term among many Chicago-area employee volunteerism programs.

Conclusions

This study complements and elaborates upon themes about corporate employee volunteerism programs raised in other literature on the subject. Among the topics for which confirming evidence was found are: a hope that goodwill will be generated through these programs and a desire to meet the needs of the community. The most recurring emphasis, however, is on serving employees through these programs.

Lessons may be gleaned by both corporations promoting employee volunteerism and by those nonprofits and communities hoping to work with these programs. Tying the findings together, three points stand out:

1. Administrators of corporate volunteerism programs face many challenges in running their programs given the limited amount of staff time devoted to this function, the lack of clear corporate policy relative to these programs and the dispersion of authority for approving budgets and activities. One consequence of this circumstance is that program accomplishments are rarely evaluated or compared to desired results. Another consequence, perhaps confusing to outsiders, is that many different individuals within a company may appear to be involved in overseeing corporate volunteerism while no one seems to have full time responsibility for the function.
2. Although the majority of corporate volunteerism administrators report that community and agency needs are "very important" in selecting projects and in attaining desired results, in reality, employees' needs are solicited and

considered with greater regularity. Given these priorities, companies might wish to consider ways to increase their attention to community and agency interests. Meanwhile, nonprofits will need to recognize the priorities and constraints of their partners.

3. Promoting volunteerism broadly remains the primary focus for most companies (rather than promotion of a particular cause or agency), despite the universal practice of organizing volunteer events at pre-selected sites. While there may be some advantages to nonprofits which make it onto a company's pre-selected list, corporations may more importantly be viewed as a valuable resource for locating and soliciting the volunteers which so many agencies find difficult to obtain.

"In terms of its prevalence, visibility, and monetary value, corporate volunteerism may be the largest and most popular form of non-cash philanthropy," suggest Independent Sector authors Plinio and Scanlon. But if, as they urge, companies are to go beyond the satisfaction of being" do gooders" they need to shape volunteer programs to result in "good doers." Hopefully the findings of this study will assist in that process, assuring that volunteer hours really count for the stakeholders involved.

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About the Author

Dr. Ellen Benjamin is currently a faculty member at DePaul University in Chicago teaching and conducting research in the field of nonprofit management and philanthropy. Two years ago she was a Fulbright Scholar in Turkey teaching nonprofit administration. She has also spent many years directing grantmaking foundations, and as an employee and a volunteer in the non-profit arena.

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Corporate Employee Volunteer Programs: Considering the Interests of Multiple Stakeholders

William A. Brown
Associate Professor
The Bush School of Government and Public Service
Texas A&M University
College Station, TX 77843-4220
Telephone: 979-458-1372
FAX: 979-845-4155
E-mail: wbrown@bushschool.tamu.edu

Robert F. Ashcraft
Director and Associate Professor
Center for Nonprofit Leadership and Management, and
School of Community Resources and Development
Arizona State University
University Center – Mail Code 4120
411 N. Central Ave., Suite 550
Phoenix, AZ 85004-0691
Telephone: 602-496-0500
FAX: 602-496-0952
E-mail: ashcraft@asu.edu

Abstract

Corporate employee volunteer programs are administered to achieve many objectives, such as improved organizational reputation, employee training, and the serving of community needs. This paper presents research into the practices of corporate volunteer programs in Phoenix, Arizona, and considers how different stakeholder groups influence program activities. Results indicate that program administrators assume primary responsibility for running the programs fairly independent of employees or community members. They desire improved public recognition for their programs, but lack consistent practices to encourage promotion. Primarily the programs are operated to encourage employee participation, and the number of hours donated is the most consistent indicator of success. Implications provide guidance for how nonprofit volunteer coordinators can work with employee volunteer programs.

Key Words:
corporate, employee, volunteers, stakeholders, volunteer management

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

This paper will consider how different stakeholder groups influence the administration and implementation of employee volunteer programs. Three primary groups or interests are reflected in the potential reasons why corporations operate employee volunteer programs (Snyder & Jimmerson, 1988-89). First are the business interests, such as improved public image and reputation, which might serve to attract customers and potential employees. Second are the employees themselves. Employees have mixed motivations for engaging in corporate volunteer programs: not only do they have pragmatic career objectives such as enhancing opportunities for career advancement and skill building, but they also join these programs as an opportunity to give back to the community. As well, corporations also want to express a commitment to their communities. Nonprofits and community members represent the third constituency group. These three groups have different interests in the employee volunteer programs, and consequently may attempt to exert control over how these programs are operated. The consideration of stakeholder interests will begin to explain how these programs operate and help community volunteer coordinators access these programs more effectively (Brammer & Millington, 2003).

Methods/Participants

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

Results

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

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

Business interests are revealed by investigating where the programs are operated, and what administrative controls are used to guide program decisions. Phoenix area organizations are most likely to operate their corporate employee volunteer programs through a communications or public affairs department (46%, n=6) or by the philanthropic staff (n=4, 31 %). Over 60% (n=8) of the programs are operated by an individual instead of a committee. When compared to Benjamin's (200 1) study, which found that slightly less than half the sample

indicated that "employees" provide input into the program, only one respondent in the Phoenix study indicated that employees provide "input into the design of the employee volunteer program."

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

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

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

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

TABLE 1

Importance of Various Factors in Selecting Volunteer Opportunities

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

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

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

Nearly everyone indicated that accomplishments for the program are documented through the number of

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

TABLE 2
Importance of Possible Results

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

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

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

When asked to specify why their company started the employee volunteer program, respondents specified 20 different rationales. The most common explanation, expressed by eight individuals, related to the community, such as "It is important to give back to the community." Employee benefits such as team building and building morale were specified in six of the comments. Three comments reflected potential business rationales, for instance, one individual stated it "increases our visibility." When asked about what results are important for the program, community-related results were consistently ranked the highest, (see Table 2), for instance, helping needy people and nonprofits were ranked second and third. Unfortunately, only about 40% of the programs actually sought feedback from agencies, and even fewer reported to community agencies about program results.

Conclusion/Discussion

According to these results, the Phoenix area corporate employee volunteer programs were run primarily by program administrators, in conjunction with selected senior managers. The programs tended to emphasize employee interests and increased public relations as benefits from the volunteer activities. The informal and relatively new nature of some of these programs (three had indicated they were relatively new), limited their ability to achieve these benefits. In addition, it is not clear that systematic measures, or reporting, reinforced any of the desired objectives, since the vast

majority of these programs only account for hours served and employee attitudes. Only a little over a third of the programs actually have a process to measure results or develop formal reports of their programs. Most appear to communicate results more informally one-on-one with direct supervisors and in general meetings. They do not necessarily integrate with the charitable giving of the organization in that only four of the programs operate in conjunction with the offices of corporate philanthropy. Predominately, the programs operate to meet the interests and desires of employees, and it is employee involvement that constitutes success for these programs; yet, respondents clearly desired additional outcomes such as improved public relations and community assistance. They do not, however, have resources allocated or structures in place to ensure these additional objectives are obtained.

Implications for Volunteer Coordinators

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

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

These results are drawn from a relatively small sample of corporate volunteer programs in the Phoenix metropolitan area. These programs do represent a large number of employee volunteers in the area, but they are not necessarily representative of the entire population; hence, direct inferences from

these results should be cautiously extrapolated. In conjunction with the Chicago area study, however, the implications of stakeholder influences and control can be used to guide how specific corporations might or might not respond to volunteer opportunities. Volunteer coordinators can use the framework of stakeholder relationships to determine who runs corporate volunteer programs in different organizations, and how the interests of those stakeholders might influence the objectives and purposes of those programs. Understanding those multiple influences helps frame the case of a volunteer coordinator hoping to access corporate volunteers.

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Authors' Biographies

William A. Brown is an Associate Professor in The Bush School of Government and Public Service at Texas A&M University. A former faculty member in the School of Community Resources and Development at Arizona State University, his research interests include the management and leadership of nonprofit organizations, organizational effectiveness, board governance, and organizational theory.

Robert F. Ashcraft is the Director of the Center for Nonprofit Leadership and Management, and Associate Professor in the School of Community Resources and Development. His research interests include nonprofit organization leadership and management, youth development, philanthropy, and volunteerism.

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Utilizing Employees as Volunteers

Connie Pirtle
Founder & Director, Strategic Nonprofit Resources
10103 Edward Avenue
Bethesda, MD 20814
Telephone: (301) 530-8233
FAX: (301) 530-8299
E-mail: AskConnieP@cs.com

Abstract

When employees volunteer in their own workplace, it blurs the lines (factually and perceptually) between employment and voluntary engagement. It can become very difficult to distinguish between what employees do for salary and what they do voluntarily. This article looks at the legal and management implications of allowing staff to volunteer within the same organizational structure.

Key Words:
volunteers, employees

With the advent of volunteerism in all levels of service for nonprofit organizations, the distinction between salaried employees and unpaid "workers" has begun to blur (Sixel, 2002). This issue gained national visibility in 1999 when volunteer moderators asked the U.S. Department of Labor to investigate unfair practices at AOL (Junnarkar, 1999). One volunteer in fact sued AOL for unfair labor practices. Some of these claims have been settled financially and others may still be pending.

While AOL is a for-profit company, these incidents served to heighten concerns throughout the nonprofit sector. We realized that our good intentions had potential liability implications for our organizations, didn't protect our employees as much as we thought, and could undermine the important work of our volunteers. Suddenly people were thinking about the Fair Labor Law, ADA, workers' compensation insurance, and a host of other legalities in a very different way.

Could employees feel coerced, no matter how subtly, to volunteer for us? What happens if an employee-volunteer gets hurt while volunteering and then we learn that workers' compensation doesn't apply to them because they are wearing their volunteer hat for us? How do we ensure that the work of an employee-volunteer is "substantially" different from their paid job?

And then there are the human resource management questions. Will a potential employee-volunteer resent being rejected from the volunteer program? Do we have to be careful not to single out for special treatment employees who volunteer for us? Can we ask volunteers to supervise employee-volunteers or will they resent that? If someone sues us, how will we manage the public relations and potential ill will in the community? How do we protect the organization, our employees, and our volunteers?

Conventional wisdom right now is that the best thing to do is not utilize employees

as volunteers for your own organization. The labor issues are too gray and the potential risks are not worth taking. Many organizations have taken a straightforward approach and written a policy that prevents employees from volunteering for their employer. For example, according to the HR director at a science museum in Ohio, their policy is that employees cannot volunteer for the museum. This policy was formulated to avoid any confusion or perception of an employee doing any work as a ”volunteer” for which he/she would normally be paid. She also cited concerns about terminating an employee-volunteer if necessary, along with concerns related to federal discrimination laws, the Americans with Disabilities Act, and the federal Fair Labor Law.

In a personal survey of nonprofit institutions in the Washington, DC, area, colleagues revealed the following information (quotation marks indicate specific wording from respondents):

- One organization permits employees to volunteer on an "emergency" basis, e.g., when a volunteer is sick or when one is absent without notice. Employees do their "volunteer" work during regular business hours with an excused absence from their supervisor and do not volunteer on their personal time.
- Another organization does not permit employees to volunteer for it. This is based on their philosophy that "volunteers receive benefits in thanks for their work (memberships, programs, etc.) and employees receive remuneration."
- One federal institution permits employees to volunteer in other similar federal institutions for which they are not paid, e.g., an employee of one Smithsonian museum could volunteer at another Smithsonian museum. This policy was established to "keep supervisors from abusing their volunteer/staff members (by declaring someone a volunteer on certain tasks when they didn't want to or couldn't afford to pay them) and to keep the volunteer/staff person from suing the organization for back wages if he/she decided they were treated unfairly as a volunteer for their [employer] institution."
- One museum does not permit employees to volunteer for it. Occasionally, employees work during special events "beyond their usual work times," and they receive compensatory time off in these instances.

In the right circumstances it is not illegal for employees to volunteer for their employer, but it is not advisable unless an organization is willing to create policies and procedures that specifically govern employee-volunteers to avoid liability and provide protection for their employees and volunteers. And, even taking those steps does not guarantee that a dissatisfied employee won't seek redress for perceived unfair treatment.

In the absence of any statutory or regulatory exemption, the Department of Labor has utilized statutory precedent to formulate an exemption for the employees of charitable entities who wish to perform volunteer work for their nonprofit employers. The Department has drafted a set of six criteria or conditions under which not-for-profit employees can volunteer:

1. The services are entirely voluntary, with no coercion by the employer, no promise of advancement, and no penalty for not volunteering.
2. The activities are predominately for the employee's own benefit.
3. The employee does not replace another employee or impair the employment opportunities of others by performing work

that would otherwise be performed by regular employees.
4. The employee serves without contemplation of pay.
5. The activity does not take place during the employee's regular working hours or scheduled overtime hours.
6. The volunteer time is insubstantial in relation to the employee's regular hours.

In addition, although not specified above, the Department of Labor appears to require that nonprofit employee-volunteers offer their uncompensated services in activities distinct from their normal employment duties (U.S. Department of Education, 1998). Thus, the following would constitute permissible volunteer situations for the employees of a nonprofit public broadcasting television station:

- an administrative assistant or janitor who volunteers to work as a member of the production crew
- a secretary or bookkeeper who offers to do some announcing and on-air work.

Employee Or Volunteer?

Terminology often sets the stage for determining how laws may be applied. For example, the applicability of a specific labor law will depend on whether the worker in question falls under the law's definition of "volunteer" or "employee." The classification chosen by the service organization will not affect the law's applicability. Therefore, whether a charitable entity refers to its personnel as "volunteers," "participants," "gratuitous employees," or "interns," the organization's choice of appellation will not modify its obligation to afford certain protections to all personnel who meet the statutory qualifications of an "employee." Just as the characteristics of volunteers may vary, so do the classifications imposed by different laws. An individual, who may qualify as an "employee" under one law may not meet the "employee" criteria for another. For example, the Internal Revenue Code uses different rules for distinguishing between employees and independent contractors than the federal Fair Labor Standards Act uses when determining whether someone must be paid the minimum wage. As a result, those who administer volunteer service programs must familiarize themselves with the classifications posed by both the state and federal laws that potentially affect their volunteer and salaried personnel. See Nonprofit Risk Management Center, http://www.nonprofitrisk.org (Johnstone, 2002).

Some additional considerations include:

- **Americans with Disabilities Act –** Because volunteers are not regarded as employees, they are not covered by some parts of the ADA. When an employee is also a volunteer, the organization may subject itself to unnecessary risk and/or liability related to volunteer recruitment procedures and decisions, how people are treated while they are employed (versus how they are treated as volunteers), or volunteer separation/termination procedures and decisions.
- **Federal Employment Discrimination Law -**
  Federal laws prohibiting employment discrimination based on race, color, religion, sex or national origin include Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, (1) the Age Discrimination In Employment Act of 1967 and (2) the Pregnancy Discrimination Act. Several cases under these laws have involved volunteers or prospective volunteers who claimed discrimination and sued organizations. These cases held that volunteers who receive no compensation are not protected by federal employment discrimination laws. Thus, the issue for any organization that allows employees

to volunteer for it is whether or not it is worth the risk to blur the lines between who is a volunteer and who is an employee.

- **Workers' Compensation**-Workers' compensation laws provide a means of recovery for individuals injured during the course and scope of employment. Workers' compensation benefits are commonly reserved exclusively for injured "employees" and their families. In a few states, the courts have addressed the question of whether a volunteer may receive workers' compensation benefits. Some of these decisions hinge on whether the volunteer receives any form of compensation, such as a living allowance, stipend, room and board, benefits or even reimbursement for expenses. Volunteers are not covered in most states. When employees volunteer for their employer, there may be a risk that they will not be covered by workers' compensation when they feel they should be because they are also employed by the same organization.

When employees volunteer in their own workplace, it blurs the lines (factually and perceptually) between employment and voluntary engagement. It can become very difficult to distinguish between what employees do for salary and what they do voluntarily. It can also lead to frustration and resentment among employees who work for pay and who don't volunteer in the workplace because they can't or choose not to volunteer. Also, volunteers from outside the organization can have these same frustrations with employees who volunteer.

Negotiating the legal maze of volunteer service administration can be confusing. The laws that have been designed to protect volunteers from exploitation and employees from unfair competition often make it difficult for service organizations to offer community service in a legal and economically feasible manner. One of the key questions to answer before embarking on utilizing employees as volunteers in your organization is how to guarantee that the legal requirements for employee-volunteers are met.

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About the Author

Connie Pirtle is Principal Consultant with Strategic Nonprofit Resources, a Washington, DC, area firm serving nonprofit organizations in all areas of volunteerism. For more than 15 years she has worked extensively with volunteer program managers, volunteers, board members, executive directors, and marketing and development directors to increase effective utilization of volunteers in nonprofit governance and direct service. Connie also writes an online advice column on

volunteerism. “Ask Connie” appears monthly at www.VolunteerToday.com, where she answers questions about volunteer management issues and provides Internet resources. You may contact her at AskConnieP@cs.com.

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An Analysis of the Voluntary Activities of Military Spouses

Sherry Fontaine, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
School of Graduate and Professional Studies
Park University
MB 1107
8700 N.W. River Park Drive
Parkville, MO 64152
Telephone: 816-584-6452
E-mail: sherry.fontaine@park.edu

Mark A. Brennan, Ph.D
Department of Family, Youth, and Community Sciences
3002 McCarty Hall, PO Box 110310
The University of Florida
Gainesville, FL 32611-0310
Telephone: (352) 392-1778 x229
Fax: (352) 392-8196
E-mail: MABrennan@ifas.ufl.edu

Abstract

An analysis of voluntary activities among military spouses offers a view of volunteerism within a population that is *in a unique circumstance. Military spouses often are placed in an unknown geographic area in which new social networks have to be forged and where employment opportunities are not always available. Volunteerism, in this instance, serves to build skills for future employment. In fact, "useful training" was cited as the most important factor by survey respondents in increasing a spouse's interest in volunteerism. The study also indicates that improvements in operational areas can lead toward more interest in volunteering. Having assignments of interest, recognition, and better organization of volunteer programs were all cited as factors that would increase interest in volunteering. Management and leadership improvements would aid in structuring programs that would be useful for individuals involved in volunteer projects, as well as for those considering volunteer activities.*

Key Words:
military, volunteers, spouse, reasons, barriers

Introduction

An analysis of voluntary activities among military spouses offers a view of volunteerism within a population that is in a unique circumstance. Military spouses often are placed in an unknown geographic area in which new social networks have to be forged and where employment opportunities are not always available. Given these circumstances, one would expect that volunteer opportunities would appeal to military spouses, easing the social isolation they may be experiencing, as well as enhancing their employment skills. It is not surprising then that spouses of military personnel have traditionally provided volunteer services to the military community (Martindale, 1987).

The analysis presented in this paper is based on the results of the 1992 *Department of Defense* (DOD) *Surveys of Enlisted Personnel and Their Spouses.* Before proceeding to an analysis of this survey, it will be useful to describe the results of an earlier (DOD) survey done in 1985, which also included an examination of volunteerism. A report issued from the Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense (Family Support, Education, & Safety) and authored by Melanie Martindale (1987), Defense Manpower Data Center, provides an excellent description of volunteer behavior and volunteer frequency by spouses of active duty officers and enlisted personnel and serves as historical and comparative background for this report. The report is based on data analysis from the 1985 DOD *Survey of Military Spouses* and administrative information. Data on volunteers was examined in conjunction with socio-demographic and other variables in order to develop a profile of characteristics and factors pertaining to volunteerism. Spouses of both officers and enlisted personnel (military wives, military husbands, civilian wives, and civilian husbands) were examined for this report.

The 1985 survey and subsequent report revealed a number of important characteristics regarding military spouses' interest and propensity to volunteer. The report indicated that life-course stage is a determinant in volunteerism. Individuals least likely to be involved in volunteer activities are young adults without children in the household or young adults with preschoolers. However, individuals with children aged 6-17 are likely to be involved in volunteering. As the children in the household reach young adulthood, the parent's volunteer activities decrease.

There are other characteristics of respondents drawn from the survey that indicate differences in volunteerism. One of these is sponsor pay grade. Among the spouses of enlisted personnel, the percentage of volunteer activity increased as the pay grade increased. Similarly, within the officers' spouses main group (civilian wives), as the pay grade increased so did the level of volunteering. In other groups of officers' spouses, no relationship was found between pay grade and volunteer activity.

Similarly, the 1985 study showed that spouses of officers have more volunteers in relation to their population than do enlisted spouses. Of this group, the civilian wives of officers supply the majority of volunteer time (50.5%). However, there is no difference in volunteering behavior or volunteering frequency by service.

Other important factors were labor force status and occupation. In terms of labor force status, the report noted that in civilian spouse groups, both full and part time workers had a higher level of volunteer activity than those who were unemployed.

However, respondents who were unemployed were more likely to volunteer than respondents who were working full time. Additionally, part-time workers were more likely to volunteer than fulltime workers were. An exploration of the ability to find work fitting skills at the "current location" found that both the civilian spouses of enlisted personnel and the civilian wives of officers were more likely to volunteer if they could not find such

applicable work.

Rank coupled with occupation revealed differences among those spouses who volunteered. Within the civilian spouses of enlisted personnel, the most likely volunteers were those in the technical/professional/managerial fields. Within the civilian spouses of officers, the most likely volunteers were those grouped in the craft/ operative fields.

In addition to the characteristics of respondents who volunteered, the survey and report also examined the attitudes of volunteers. Data demonstrated that in many cases volunteer activity is not related to satisfaction with specific aspects of military life, but rather is associated with overall satisfaction. It appears that familiar and personal factors, as well as external expectations, are more likely to influence volunteer activities than satisfaction or dissatisfaction with specific aspects of military life. Furthermore, the frequency of volunteer activity among the spouses of enlisted personnel is higher among those who are satisfied or very satisfied with the military way of life compared to those who are dissatisfied or very dissatisfied.

Martindale's analysis of the *1985 DOD Survey of Military Spouses* provides an important historical and comparative context for our report on volunteerism based on the *1992 Department of Defense Surveys of Enlisted Personnel and Their Spouses.* In this report, we will present similar demographic and socio-economic characteristics of spouses who responded to the survey questions on volunteerism. The *1992 Survey* provides additional questions on volunteer satisfaction, reasons why spouses do not volunteer, and practices or additional services that would increase a spouse's interest in volunteering.

Methodology

Data was collected from the *1992 Department of Defense Surveys of Officers and Enlisted Personnel and their Spouses* where questionnaires were mailed to 64,643 spouses. The survey included twenty-two variables related to volunteerism; these variables served as the basis for this analysis. The questions encompassed volunteer activities that were both on-installation (i.e., military unit support activities and installation/ support activities) and off-installation (i.e., local community support activities).

There were a total of 23,847 respondents to the survey questions regarding spouse's involvement in volunteerism. The unadjusted response rate was 37%. The 1992 DOD survey reported responses from 23,847 military spouses. Of this number, 16,061 (67%) did not engage in any type of volunteer activity; 7,786 (33%) did perform volunteer work/ activity. Frequencies and percentages were calculated for the responses to individual questions regarding reasons why spouses did not volunteer and factors that would increase a spouse's interest in volunteering.

Comparatively, in 1995, the Independent Sector (1996) reported that 48.8% of the adult U.S. population was involved in some sort of volunteer activity. Reasons for the differences in volunteerism between the general population and military spouses can be due, in part, to the three-year time difference between these two surveys. However, given that less than 35% of the military spouses were involved in volunteerism, it is worthwhile to explore the reasons why spouses did not volunteer. Of equal importance will be to assess the factors that might increase a spouse's interest and participation in volunteer activities.

Patterns Of Volunteerism

The role of spouses and volunteerism in the military is particularly noteworthy. According to Katherine Reardon,

> "Spouses are frequently called upon by the military command to provide formal support through volunteerism when paid formal support services are absent or inadequate to serve community

need." (Reardon, 1996: 98).

If military spouses are often asked to volunteer, the fact that only 33% did volunteer is puzzling. Anecdotal accounts provide one explanation: that the psychological demands of military life dampen a spouse's enthusiasm to volunteer rather than increase it. No studies supporting that explanation were found. It is more likely that military spouses are motivated to volunteer for the same reasons that civilian spouses volunteer. The DOD survey contained eighteen questions regarding respondents' reasons for volunteering and, conversely, reasons for not volunteering. These questions encompass both personal reasons for choosing whether or not a spouse volunteered, as well as organizational and management concerns. Before proceeding to this analysis, we will give a brief overview of the characteristics of the volunteers and non-volunteers.

Characteristics of Respondents

The majority of the spouses who responded to the survey were women. Of the total 7,786 spouses who performed volunteer work, eight-six percent (86%) were female and fourteen percent (14%) were male. Since it is a military population, the respondents were younger than the general population of volunteers, which would include a larger number of retirees. Specifically, 52% of the spouses were age 36 or older; twenty-seven percent were between the ages of 31 and 35 years of age. The maximum age of respondents to this survey was 65 years of age. Twenty-seven percent of survey respondents reported having some college experience short of a two-year degree. This was followed by 23% that reported having earned a four-year college degree. Overall, 55% of the volunteers reported an educational attainment of a two-year college degree or higher. Volunteers were predominantly Caucasian (86%) followed by African American and Hispanic respondents, representing seven percent and six percent of the sample, respectively.

Both the availability of childcare and parental involvement in their child's activities are factors in volunteerism. Among the military spouses in this study, 76% had children. Martindale's earlier report indicated that the age range of children was also a factor in willingness to volunteer. Spouses with children age 617 were the most likely to volunteer, and volunteering decreases as children reached young adulthood (Martindale, 1987). Unfortunately, our data did not provide specific information on the age of the military spouses' children.

Types of Spouse Volunteer Activities

Overall, the majority of spouses (70%) volunteered in their local communities. This broad category ranged from volunteer efforts in well-established organizations to informal volunteering such as organizing a bake sale for a school fundraising event. Thirty percent of spouses volunteered in installation/ support activities and thirty percent volunteered in military unit support activities. While both activities can be considered a volunteer activity within the military community, they are differentiated by the fact that military unit support activities focus on a small unit stationed at an installation while installation/ support activities are, as the name suggests, installation-wide.

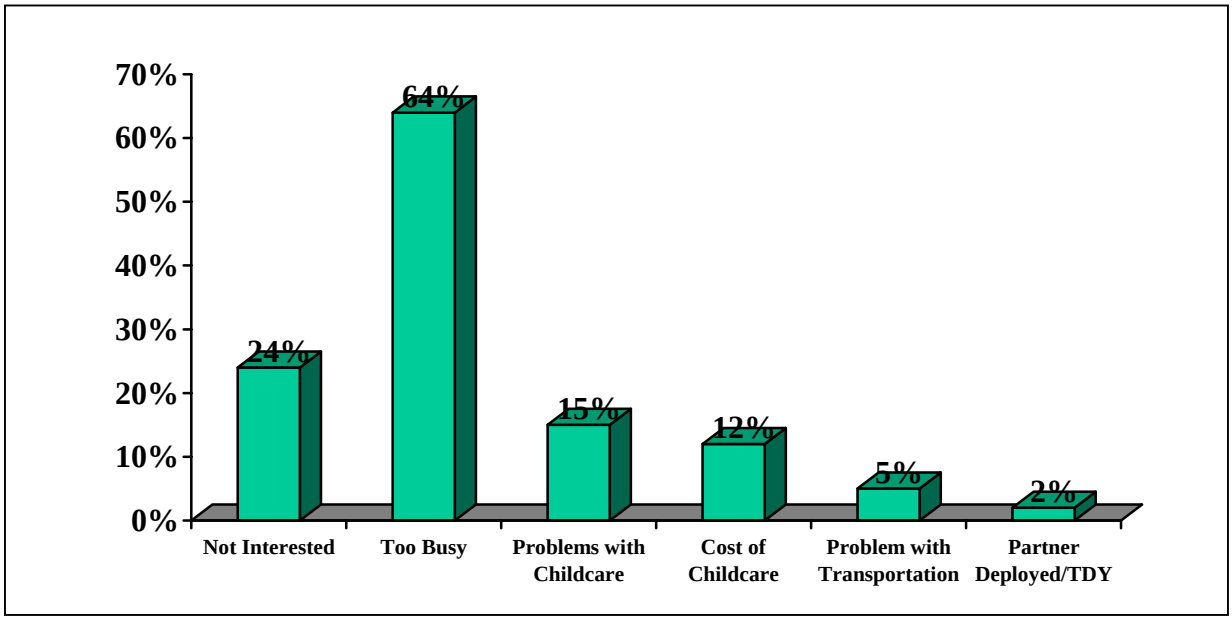
Noteworthy is the fact that only recently, under the *National Defense Authorization Act of Fiscal Year 1995*, expanded authority was given for the increased use of volunteers in the following areas:

- medical services, dental services, nursing services, and other health-related services
- museum or natural resources program
- family support programs
- child development and youth services programs
- religious programs
- housing referral programs
- programs providing employment assis-

tance to spouses
- recreation programs

Preceding this Act were several acts that incrementally increased volunteerism within the military community. The first was in 1983 (P.L. 98-94), which provided volunteers in family support programs and military museums legal protection from lawsuits related to their volunteer activity. Family support and military museums were, until 1995, the customary positions of volunteers on military installations. The Act considered these volunteers Federal employees for purposes of Torts claims and workers compensation. In 1987, the *National Defense Act of 1987* authorized reimbursement for personal expenses from nonappropriated funds. In 1992, the

Figure 1
Reasons for Spouses Not Volunteering



National Defense Authorization Act of Fiscal Year 1992 authorized reimbursement of personal expenses from appropriated as well as non-appropriated funds.

Reasons for Not Volunteering

The primary reason given for not participating in volunteer activities was simply that the spouses did not feel they had the time (Figure 1). Sixty-four percent of survey respondents listed being too busy as the primary reason for not volunteering. This response is consistent with national surveys on why individuals do not volunteer. In a survey conducted for the Independent Sector by Hodgkinson and Weitzman (1996), it was reported that 59.9% of Americans did not volunteer because personal schedules were too full.

Women who were not in the workforce have, in the past, been disproportionately involved in the volunteer sector. A women entered the work force and two-income families became the norm, less women had time to become involved in volunteer activity (Firstenberg, 1996). In a family with two working spouses, much of the free time of both spouses may be spent with their children (Gerson, 1997). This raises another concern, which is the general preference for short-term, episodic volunteerism. Short-term volunteering works well for one-time events such as bike-a-thons or disaster relief. However, other programs such as tutoring or mentoring programs, require a long-term commitment in order to achieve demonstrable results (Gerson, 1997).

A more general reason given for not volunteering was simply a lack of interest. Twenty-four percent of survey respondents listed they had no interest in volunteer activities. This compares with the national figure in which twelve percent of the population cited "lack of interest" as the primary reason for not volunteering (Hodgkinson and Weitzman, 1996).

Neither lack of interest nor lack of time is an atypical response unique to the military population. Stephen McCurley (1994) offers some practical recommendations on how to overcome the more tangible issue of time constraints. One alternative is to design volunteer programs to accommodate shorter time periods. A second is to share assignments among a group of volunteers (McCurley, 1994). The lack of interest of non-volunteers requires more creative responses. One approach is to view volunteerism as a leisure time activity (Boughton, 1996). Since volunteers give their time freely and are not bound to the organizations by monetary interests or need, the rewards are parallel to those found in leisure time pursuits. If volunteer managers can offer equally rewarding experiences from volunteer efforts, it follows that individuals will consider volunteering as a worthwhile pursuit in their leisure time.

Specific Barriers to Volunteerism

Research on volunteerism indicates that, while an individual's reasons for volunteering tend to be value laden, personal reasons for not volunteering are more particularistic (Clary, Snyder, Copeland, French, 1994). It is important to also examine these particularistic barriers to volunteer activity among military spouses.

Problems with securing childcare and the cost of childcare itself are indicative of some of the problems spouses face when considering volunteer activities (Figure 1). Among those spouses that did not volunteer, 15% cited problems with childcare and 12% cited child care costs as reasons why they did not participate in volunteer activities.

Difficulties in obtaining transportation to a site can also be a significant barrier to volunteering. A small percentage of non-volunteers (5%) listed problems with transportation as a specific reason. However, since many volunteer opportunities exist on installation, transportation may not be an important barrier in volunteerism in military spouses.

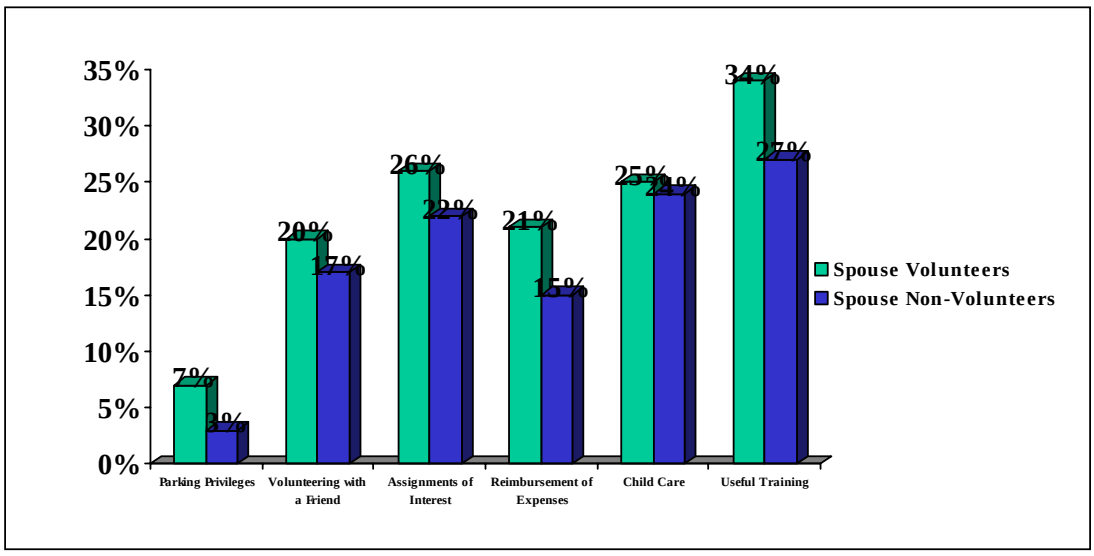
Factors that Would Increase Spouse Interest in Volunteering

Integral to this study is the analysis of factors that would increase interest in volunteerism among spouses who have not yet volunteered and maintain the interest of those who are presently volunteering (Figure 2). The most cited factor that would increase one's propensity to volunteer was "useful training," which we have interpreted as the job or career advancement skills gained through volunteering. As noted in the introduction, military spouses often move to new locations where employment opportunities are not always available.

In these situations, volunteer positions can offer valuable alternatives to paid employment. Volunteer activities can provide ways for spouses to learn about various types of employment, acquire new skills, and even develop contacts for future jobs (Clary, Snyder & Ridge, 1992; Schram, 1985). This is supported by studies which found that volunteerism does provide volunteers with important job skills that are transferable to paid employment (Schram, 1985). It appears that many respondents recognized that volunteerism can provide useful training for their future careers. Twenty-seven percent of spouses who did not volunteer and 34% of those who did volunteer, noted that volunteer opportunities would provide useful training for the future and would increase their interest in volunteer activities.

Another important factor in increasing volunteerism (22% of non-volunteers and

Figure 2
Development Factors that Would Increase Spouse Volunteerism



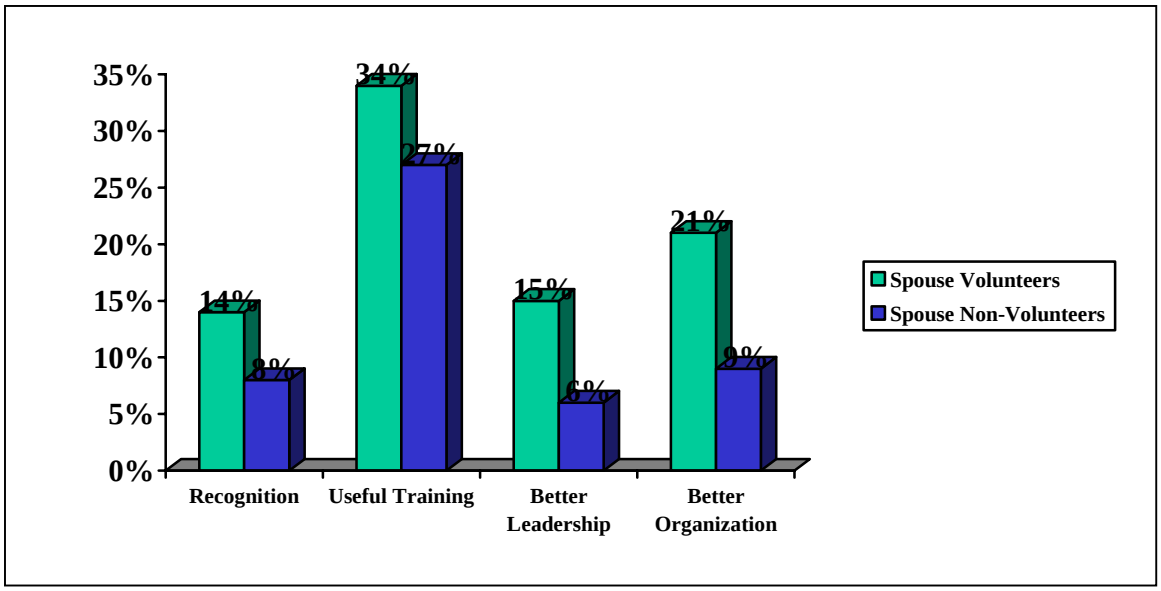
26% of volunteers) was the need to have more assignments of interest. All too often volunteers are not appreciated and are given uninteresting tasks. Interest in volunteer activities would increase if volunteers were provided with more skill-oriented tasks and were involved in the operational decisions of a program.

The overall management of volunteers is related to the types of volunteer assignments (Figure 3). Three questions on the survey addressed improvements in volunteer management as factors that would tend to increase volunteerism: better leadership, better organization of volunteers, and recognition of assignments. Both non-volunteers (6%) and volunteers (15%) felt that better leadership would increase interest. Non-volunteers (9%) and volunteers (22%) believed that better organization of volunteers would increase interest in volunteering. Both groups (8% of non-volunteers and 14% of volunteers) expressed that recognition for assignments would increase their interest.

Shortly following the Volunteer Summit, a Newsweek article (Gershon, 1997) noted the importance of volunteer management in a painfully direct manner. The article stated that most volunteers are not employed effectively and the management of volunteers is often poor. Consequently, it was concluded that volunteers are not going to be able to provide the solutions particular to the social problems that policy-makers have optimistically sought from the volunteer sector. In part, lack of effective volunteer management is an organizational problem. Brudney (1993) noted that organizations do not provide support for volunteer managers or the programs for which they have responsibility. The author went on to note additional research that found volunteer managers unappreciated and their accomplishments trivialized (Scheier, 1988a, 1988b, 1988-1989). In a contrasting example, Drucker (1990) reported how one parish increased its volunteerism by transforming the volunteers from the status of helpers to that of colleagues. One can conclude that better leadership and organization of volunteers could be strengthened in an organizational atmosphere that recognizes the contributions of volunteers to nonprofit organizations and the importance of the role of volunteer administration.

Increased recognition for the contributions of volunteers was listed by fourteen percent (14%) of respondents as a factor that would increase interest in volunteerism.

Figure 3
Management Factors that Would Increase Spouse Volunteerism



Volunteer administrators, or in smaller organizations, executive staff members, should formally recognize the work of volunteers. This could be formally accomplished, for example, through institutionally sponsored award ceremonies or through periodic acknowledgements in newsletters (Chasen, 1999). It should also be understood that recognition of volunteers' efforts serves as a form of non-monetary reward. Moreover, recognition of their efforts and accomplishments would help in raising a sense of satisfaction and value to the organization among volunteers.

The social aspect of volunteering is reflected in the finding that many volunteers would be interested in volunteering with a friend (17% of non-volunteers and 20% of volunteers). Based on a meta-analysis of research on rationales for volunteerism, Chinman and Wandersman (1999) found that volunteers cited the benefits of socializing with others and the satisfaction of reaching the goals of an organization as primary reasons why individuals participated in voluntary activities.

Other Factors

Given that volunteer work is unpaid, it may be an added burden for potential volunteers to actually pay for the costs of volunteering. Consideration should be given by organizations to pay for these costs by methods such as reimbursing mileage costs, providing parking privileges, and providing at least partial reimbursement or vouchers for childcare. Volunteers who use their own automobiles for transportation may be reimbursed for mileage. Another example would be to validate parking or provide parking spaces for volunteers. These expenses are generally minimal and would be offset by the contributions of volunteers. In the survey, childcare availability was ranked as an important factor in increasing volunteer activity (27% of volunteers and 24% of non-volunteers). Also, twenty-one percent of volunteers and fifteen percent of non-volunteers felt that reimbursement of expenses would increase interest in volunteer activity. A small percentage (7% of volunteers and 3% of nonvolunteers) considered that parking would positively affect their interest in volunteer activities.

Conclusions

The analyses of responses to this survey among military spouses reveal patterns of volunteerism that are applicable to the broader sector of volunteers. The barriers of lack of time, lack of interest and need for child care are examples of barriers that are shared by the larger potential volunteer population. What may be a more pronounced factor for military spouses are the training and career development opportunities provided by volunteer activities. This report noted that for military spouses, relocation to unfamiliar areas, particularly abroad, and geographic isolation could limit employment prospects. Volunteerism, in this instance, serves to build skills for future employment. In fact, "useful training" was cited as the most important factor by survey respondents in increasing a spouse's interest in volunteerism.

The study also indicates that improvements in operational areas can lead toward more interest in volunteering. Having assignments of interests, recognition, and better organization of volunteer programs were all cited as factors that would increase the interest in volunteering among respondents. Management and leadership improvements would aid in structuring programs that would be meaningful and useful for individuals who are involved in volunteer projects, as well as for those considering using their personal time for volunteer activities.

This study provides a number of interesting insights into the patterns of volunteerism among military spouses. It also raises more questions regarding how to encourage more volunteerism among this population. How do we structure volunteer programs to accommodate the time constraints potential volunteers might face? Do volunteer opportunities offer skill building responsibilities? How can we manage volunteer programs more effectively and ensure that volunteers are recognized and rewarded for their efforts? Upon reflection, these insights, as well as the questions raised by this study are worthwhile topics for further research on the volunteer population at large.

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Authors' Biographies

Sherry J. Fontaine, Ph.D. is an Associate Professor in the School of Graduate and Professional Studies at Park University. She formerly served as the Principal Investigator for the Scholar Initiated Research Project on Volunteerism Among Military Families. The project was supported by the Military Family Institute at Marywood University. Dr. Fontaine has served on several nonprofit boards and has been a consultant for nonprofit organizations. She has also taught and published in the areas of nonprofit management, public policy, and health policy.

Mark A. Brennan, Ph.D. is a faculty member in the Department of Family, Youth, and Community Sciences at The University of Florida. His current teaching, research, writing, and program development concentrates on the role of volunteerism and community involvement and action in the community development process. He has over 15 years experience designing, conducting, and analyzing research and has conducted comparative research extensively throughout America, Ireland, Northern Ireland, Scotland, and Japan. He served formerly as Senior Research Associate on the Military Family Institute Volunteerism Among Military Families project.

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Why do they Do It? A Study of Volunteer Commitment in the Parish Setting

Marilyn C. Nelson
Professor of Christian Ministry
Baptist Theological Seminary at Richmond
[Editor's Note: author's contact information not available]

Abstract

To study factors that contribute to volunteer commitment, questionnaires were sent to members of Baptist congregations who were, or recently had been, involved in volunteering. In this setting, how well the volunteer's position utilized her/his talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's/church's mission, a person's satisfaction in volunteering, and the religious and altruistic reasons for volunteering far outweighed material rewards and the desire to have personal needs met. This article adds to the limited literature on church-affiliated volunteers and suggests areas for further study.

Key Words:
religion, volunteers, church, commitment, Baptist, altruism

Jean is a 60-year-old woman who lives in the Maryland suburbs and comes from a middle class family. For the past three years, she has driven past blighted neighborhoods and drug deals in process in order to teach quilting to senior adults in an economically depressed neighborhood of Washington, DC. After years of working with people like Jean, I ask myself, "Why do they do it?"

Margaret and Glenn, a spirited retired couple, live among extended family on a beautiful hillside in North Carolina. They frequently leave this idyllic lifestyle to help people in settings ranging from a small Indian reservation in New Mexico to a small town in upstate New York. Again, I ask, "Why do they do it?"

After more than 20 years of work among Baptist churches and agencies, I have become increasingly conscious of the important role the lay person plays in the local church as well as in denominational agencies. As the director of a Baptist neighborhood center in Washington, DC, I depended heavily upon volunteers for service provision. This experience raised questions about the factors that contributed to volunteer commitment.

Earlier in my professional career I worked with volunteers who gave large blocks of time solely to ministry projects under the auspices of the Baptist denomination, often requiring them to relocate for a period of weeks to years. I became profoundly aware of the important contribution of church members. Most of the programs could not function without the volunteer, the lay minister. In noting the decline in volunteer commitment in some churches and the strong commitment in others, I began to question what made the difference. Why were some committed, while others were not?

The research reported in this article examined the relationship between volunteer commitment and the costs and rewards in volunteering. Volunteer commitment (the dependent variable) was defined as the value

of volunteering and the probability of fulfilling that value. The hypothesis was that, when controlling for income, age, marital status, race, education, gender, and length of time as a volunteer, there would be a direct positive relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the rewards for the volunteers. It was also predicted there would be a direct negative relationship between the level of volunteer commitment and the cost in volunteering (factors -to personal and family concerns).

Independent variables included rewards to the volunteer and costs to the volunteer. Rewards to the volunteer included: trans-personal (religious and altruistic reasons for volunteering); social interaction (a person's need to be around people); material (the desire to have personal needs met); personal fulfillment (a person's satisfaction in volunteering); self-role congruence (how well the volunteer's position utilized her or his talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's/ church's mission); relations with staff (satisfaction of the volunteer with her this staff at the church/ agency); relationships with clients {satisfaction of the volunteer with her/his relations with the people to whom he or she ministered); relationships with other volunteers (the level of involvement of the volunteer with other volunteers in the setting); and climate (the attitude of the church/ agency toward the volunteer).

Costs to the volunteer included personal costs (personal or family concerns in volunteering), and environmental costs (costs concerning safety and availability of transportation).

The Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework for the study was social exchange theory. Initiated by Homans (1961) and further developed by Blau (1968), exchange theory is concerned with exchanges between people. It focuses on the costs and rewards inherent in all social relations and attempts to explain why people enter into specific social transactions. Things exchanged involve not only money, but other commodities including approval, esteem, compliance, love, and affection. Blau's work recognized fairness in exchanges, the varying value of rewards, a person's multiple goals and preferences, and the social commitments that limit alternatives.

This theoretical perspective suggests why people volunteer when, in fact, there are limited or no economic returns. Social exchange theory was used in this study to determine what rewards contributed to volunteer commitment. It was also utilized to help determine what sustained the volunteers in continuing to donate their time and talents without economic returns.

The Study Design

A 15-page self-administered mail questionnaire was developed for the study. The questionnaire requested information about the respondent such as age, gender, marital status, and work experience. It also asked questions concerning the person's past and present volunteer involvement such as setting, length of time volunteered, and people served. A few open-ended items were included which sought additional data, such as recommendations for preparation for this volunteer position, the most difficult aspect of the volunteer work, and the greatest advantage of the volunteer work. The remainder of the questionnaire contained descriptive items concerning rewards and costs in volunteering. The purpose of this design was to examine the relationships between the independent variables (costs and rewards) and the dependent variable (volunteer commitment).

The Study Population

The study population included Baptist church volunteers from Northern Virginia and. the Richmond, Virginia, areas. These Baptist church volunteers were persons whom the pastor or staff member believed were currently' or had recently been involved in volunteer activities within the church or in church-related agencies outside the church. A total of 47 pastors or church staff members submitted 1,108 names. Questionnaires were sent to all of these individuals. Of these, 628 were returned for an overall response rate of 56.7 percent. Of the 628 questionnaires, 66 were unusable resulting in a usable response rate of 50.7 percent.

Study Findings

Most of the volunteers in this study were white, largely from an affluent population, had attended college, were middle-aged and married. They ranged in age from 19 to 84 years, with a median age of 54 years. Of the respondents, 16 percent were under age 40, and 18 percent were above age 69, which suggests that churches should target younger as well as older people for volunteer work. The ethnic background of almost the entire study population was white with an over-representation of white women in the study population when compared with women in all Baptist churches and in the nation as a whole. More than two-thirds of the respondents were women, as compared to just over one-half nationwide and church-wide. Of the respondents, 95 percent were white, as compared to approximately 80 percent nationwide and 77 percent in Virginia (Scan/US, 1995). More than 80 percent were married. Close to 60 percent had partial college or a college degree, whereas 16 percent had never attended college, and 25 percent had done post-graduate work. Incomes ranged from $20,000 to $79,999, while close to one-third had incomes over $80,000. Only 6.0 percent had incomes under $20,000.

Most volunteers became engaged in volunteering because they were asked to volunteer. This points up the importance of actively approaching people concerning volunteer needs. Most of the volunteers did not have job descriptions, nor did they have contracts, an area which should be given consideration by volunteer coordinators or directors in church related volunteer programs.

Although most of the respondents had no special preparation for their volunteer positions, they found their background experiences extremely helpful. In addition, they reported they received adequate training on the job. They served mainly middle and upper-middle class persons. Few received reimbursement. If they did, it was generally for supplies. This points out that reimbursement or monetary gain is not a factor in volunteering with this population. It also points out that life experiences help in preparation for volunteering, as does on-the-job training.

Volunteer Profile

According to the study data, the typical volunteer was a white woman between the ages of 40 and 59. She had some college training and was married. Her household income was approximately $65,000. She was a church member and probably also related to religious organizations on the associational or state level. She had been a member of various committees in her church and most likely held an office in the church. She was employed full-time in a white-collar professional job.

The primary setting of her volunteer activity was the church. She had volunteered 15-20 years, her primary activity being that of educator or commission member. She initially became involved in volunteering because she was asked to do so. Her

volunteer position provided no job description or written contract, and she came without training. Her previous education and work experience proved helpful, and she did feel that she received adequate training during her volunteer experience. The people she served in her volunteer position were middle, upper-middle, or mixed class in a suburban locality. Except for occasional supplies, she received no reimbursement for her volunteering. She did not, participate in volunteering for any monetary gain.

Findings Related To The Study Hypothesis

Among the study participants, volunteer commitment was high and they were committed to religious and altruistic ideals. They also experienced high levels of self-role congruence (a feeling that one's volunteer position utilized ones talents and gifts and coincided with the agency's mission), positive relationships with those to whom they ministered, and a positive organizational climate. The data show that respondents did not gain material rewards from their volunteering. These data suggest that church volunteers are often willing to accept any costs associated with volunteering as part of their commitment to the church and to God.

The study findings related to the hypotheses showed that the major variables positively correlated with volunteer commitment were self-role congruence, personal fulfillment, and altruistic and religious rewards. Personal or family costs in volunteering were not notable. Social interaction, relationships with clients, staff, and volunteers, and climate were not significantly correlated with volunteer commitments either. There was no support for the sub-hypothesis that the higher the personal material rewards, the higher the volunteer commitment. In fact, the opposite influence was found to be true.

Those who felt the most strongly committed to their volunteer involvement and to volunteerism in general had a strong sense of self-role congruence. They found their skills valuable to the agency and their interests congruent with agency goals. Volunteering lived up to their expectations and was well suited to their talents. They planned to continue to volunteer and to encourage others to do so.

Personal fulfillment was also significant in influencing volunteer commitment. Those who found in volunteering an opportunity for self-expression and personal growth felt strongly committed to volunteering. The volunteers in this study found that through engaging in meaningful work they broadened their knowledge and developed their creative potential.

According to the data, these Baptist church volunteers consider it a favorable exchange to give their time and energy to activities that use their skills and talents through which they experience personal growth and the release of creativity. These findings have important implications for church-related agencies. They need to find challenging jobs for this population of volunteers, not merely routine activities such as stuffing envelopes or answering the phone. Church-related agencies may find diminishing volunteer commitment if the talents and skills of the study group of volunteers are not used for meaningful roles rather than exclusively for menial tasks.

Volunteers who defined rewards as being beyond one's self and connectedness with God and humankind experienced high levels of volunteer commitment. The volunteers in this study volunteered to meet the needs of others and to provide a service for someone else and for the purpose of serving God by helping others. They were following the leadership of God in sharing their spiritual gifts with others and they

wished to bring joy into the lives of others and make their world better.

In this study, personal material rewards were negatively correlated to volunteer commitment. Those who volunteered in order to meet influential people, to get practical experience, to learn new skills, to get ahead in a career, or to investigate new career possibilities had low volunteer commitment. In fact, the more important these material rewards were to them, the lower their level of volunteer commitment.

Social interaction rewards did not have statistically significant influence on volunteer commitment.' The respondents were less likely to volunteer to make new friends, to have meaningful social contacts, or to be in a stimulating social environment. They were less likely to volunteer in order to feel accepted and valued by others, to be around interesting people, or to be with people they knew and enjoyed. According to the demographic findings of this study, the people who responded to this survey were well educated and well socialized and had well established social networks which may have influenced these findings. They possibly were not seeking the volunteer context for social interaction rewards.

In the overall study results, the need to feel affirmed, appreciated, and respected by the people the volunteers helped did not significantly influence their commitment. Nor did their relationship with staff or other volunteers. The volunteers in this study did not have a great need for affirmation. That does not necessarily mean they would continue to volunteer if their relationships were negative or if they were treated shabbily. The need for positive relationships may not be driving this group of volunteers, but this finding does not address the effects of negative relationships.

Climate, or the prevailing attitude of the agency toward the volunteer, was not a significant influential factor on volunteer commitment in this study. The amount of emphasis on and respect toward the volunteer was not significant in volunteer commitment. How volunteers are treated may not be as big a factor as the sense of satisfaction from their volunteer contributions. Their commitment may be high enough that minor irritants would not cause them to quit. However, it is still reasonable to believe that a highly negative environment would drive volunteers away. While they may not demand a strongly affirming climate, it is unlikely they would have a high level of commitment if the atmosphere of the agency or church were highly negative. This needs to be addressed in future studies.

Costs, or factors which could deter a person from volunteering, were not significant in volunteer commitment. Environmental costs included driving through a dangerous neighborhood, difficulty in commuting, and commuting after dark. Given the fact that most of the respondents volunteered in suburban neighborhoods with middle or upper-middle class individuals, it is not surprising that environmental costs were not high. They probably did not encounter dangerous neighborhoods as a part of their volunteer involvement. Also, given the affluence of the volunteers, they probably had access to safe and dependable transportation.

Yet, it is somewhat surprising that personal costs were not a deterrent 'to volunteering. These costs included caring for children and/or senior adults, feeling overwhelmed by the needs presented to the volunteer, and lack of confidence in their own skills and talents. These were insignificant to volunteer commitment.

Of all the control variables (income, age, marital status, education, race, gender, and length of time as a volunteer) only length of time as a volunteer had any influence on volunteer commitment, and it

was slight. The longer the period of service as a volunteer, the higher the volunteer commitment.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited in its focus to volunteers from Baptist churches. Care should therefore be taken in generalizing to a wider population. Most of the volunteer activity of participants took place in their local church. This has only limited generalizing to other than church related agencies. In addition, names of these volunteers were obtained form church staff. Although criteria for including volunteers in this study were given to staff, the opinions of the staff were relied upon in determining whether or not these were active volunteers.

Members of non-Anglo groups were under-represented in this study. Therefore, their unique perspectives and experiences were not examined.

The study also was limited by the drawbacks of self-reported data. While there is ample evidence to support the use of this form of data collection, the content of this study was derived from the perceptions of the volunteers. It was not deemed feasible to elicit the comparative perceptions of others in the setting or to use participant observations. However, use of these alternative methods of data collection might have strengthened objectivity.

Utilization of mail-questionnaires without a supportive method of data collection, such as representative interview samples, was another limitation of this study. This procedure would have provided additional qualitative information for more in-depth study in selected areas.

Recommendations for Action and Further Research

Recommendations are based on the present research. They are organized around three major content areas: methodological concerns, contribution to social exchange theory, and contribution to the knowledge base about volunteers. Rationales specific to each recommendation are included with this presentation of the recommendations.

Methodological Concerns

Sample Base. As noted in the study findings, two-thirds of the respondents in this survey were women, while only 51 percent of the national population and of the church population is female. Research findings show that both men and women provide valuable volunteer services. Research also indicates that there are more women than men in the volunteer force. Future studies need to be conducted to determine why women volunteer in larger numbers than do men. Factors which motivate men to volunteer also need to be investigated.

There are very few studies concerning ethnic involvement in volunteering. Efforts need to be made to determine the involvement of minorities and people from non-Anglo groups in church-related volunteer activity. Motivational factors for greater involvement in volunteering need to be determined. This study could be replicated or a similar study conducted in other communities.

Predictors of Volunteer Commitment. This study was conducted with Baptist church members and contains the biases of that population. Valuable contrasts could be obtained through replicating the study with a secular population or with other religious groups. Other independent variables which influence volunteer commitment might emerge. It would be especially interesting to find out whether or not religious and altruistic rewards are significant for volunteers in the secular community.

Because the independent variables in this study only explained approximately one-third of the variation (or influence on) volunteer commitment, studies should be

conducted that seek to identify other predictors of volunteer commitment, such as the types of positive and negative influences related to middle-aged or older volunteers. This has important implications for volunteer satisfaction and retention.

Most of the volunteers in this study were of the middle and upper class and volunteered with a similar client group where safety was not an issue. This study could be replicated with a sample drawn from a lower socioeconomic status who provide services in poorer neighborhoods. Would environmental costs become a significant factor?

In this study, personal costs were not significant predictors of volunteer commitment. Including items in future studies concerning family situations such as number and ages of children, single heads of households, and care-givers for parents would reveal whether or not these factors influence volunteer commitment or the ability to volunteer.

Although the study respondents were satisfied with their preparation for their volunteer positions, studies to determine the type and effectiveness of training for volunteer positions need to be conducted. The difference training makes on the volunteer's ability to function well and independently needs to be determined. It would also be helpful to know the relationship of training to length of service. Knowledge concerning types and duration of training for optimum effectiveness for the volunteer is needed.

Only 15% of those in this study had written job descriptions and contracts. Studies need to be conducted to determine why these administrative tools are not used more widely with volunteers in these settings and if they are widely used in non-church related settings. Contracts clarify roles and responsibilities and formalize the relationship with the volunteer, thus potentially strengthening volunteer commitment. It would be useful to examine the utility of contracts and to determine what might motivate agencies, particularly religious organizations, to implement the utilization of written contracts. The importance of contracting needs to be considered by those who recruit and supervise volunteers in church-related settings.

Climate (the attitude of the church-based agency toward the volunteer) was not significant in this study. It would be useful to examine other aspects of organizational climate that might be associated with volunteer commitment.

Contribution to Exchange Theory

This study extended the use of social exchange theory to the volunteer population. It showed the types of exchanges that were meaningful to volunteers. Findings in this study helped to clarify the types of exchanges in volunteer work in the study population and those that were associated with volunteer commitment.

This study showed that intangible rewards (such as utilization of a person's talents and skills and the ability to provide a needed service) can be more significant than tangible exchanges (such as payment for service) in commitment to a job. Rather than expecting material rewards or considering the costs in exchanges, the volunteers in this study were concerned with the fit between their interests and the church or agency goals. 'These intangible exchanges were the most significant to the volunteer.

The study findings highlight the usefulness of exchange theory in understanding volunteer commitment. Further studies need to be done to examine the significance of non-tangible exchanges in non-church-related settings as well as in other organizational structures.

Contribution to the Knowledge Base Concerning Volunteers

Since no empirical studies in the past two decades could be located on volunteer commitment in the church setting, this fills a gap in the literature on volunteers. The results of this study point to the types of exchange relationships involved in the commitment of the church volunteer. It provides information about the nature bf the commitment of the church volunteer and suggests significant predictors of volunteer commitment.

With reductions in funding and the increases in needs of the community, churches and church-based agencies should give greater consideration to the development of volunteer programs. Knowledge of the importance of intangible rewards to the volunteer could help church-based agencies incorporate such rewards into their program designs. The agency needs to be aware of the skills and interests of the volunteers and seek to match these with their volunteer tasks. Those intangible rewards the agency should offer can enhance volunteer commitment.

Conclusion

Volunteerism has been strongly woven into the fabric of American society. The contribution of volunteers has become increasingly important through the development of the team concept where social workers work with representatives in other fields to provide the most comprehensive plan of care for the client, and because of personnel shortages in the independent sector. Traditionally, volunteers have been involved in church-related services and in recent years social workers have developed social service programs (social ministries) in congregational and parish structures. The purpose of this study was to examine selected factors that influence volunteer commitment in church-related services. More recently, the contributions of the volunteer have become critical in the delivery of services, as needs are greater than can be met by the paid professional.

Similarly, the volunteer, or lay minister, in the parish setting is of central importance in the ongoing ministries of the church. Knowledge of the factors that contribute to the committed parish volunteer should aid in the successful development of programs that are dependent on volunteers.

From a theoretical perspective, this research extended the use of social exchange theory and showed the significance of intangible exchanges in social interaction. The data generated by this study add to the knowledge base of volunteering and should be useful to social work practitioners and volunteer coordinators, as well as to those conducting volunteer programs in church-related settings.

Author's Note

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences was the computer program utilized to analyze the data. . The demographic and volunteer related information was analyzed by simple frequencies and percentages and through measures of central tendency and variability. Pearson's product moment correlation and stepwise multiple regression analysis were also utilized.

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About the Author

Marilyn C. Nelson trained, coordinated, and supervised volunteers throughout the United States from 1970 to 1983 as missionary consultant with the Baptist Home Mission Board. Under her leadership as director of Johenning Baptist Center and of Christian Social Ministries for the Washington; DC Baptist Convention from 1983 to 1993, over 50 volunteers committed weekly time to ministry activities. Another 150 contributed significant blocks time annually. As professor of Christian ministry for the Baptist Theological Seminary at Richmond, she involves students in volunteer activities. Throughout her adult life she has been a volunteer lay minister in her denomination, filling a wide variety of roles.

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Investing in Volunteerism: Recommendations Emerging From the Study of the Impact of Volunteers in Texas State Agencies

Sarah Jane Rehnborg, Ph.D.
LBJ Center for Philanthropy and Community Service
University of Texas
P.O. Box Y
Austin, TX 78713-8925
Telephone: 512-475-7616
E-mail: rehnborg@mail.utexas.edu

Meredith DeSpain

Abstract

Volunteer participation is big business in Texas State Government agencies. A recent study performed by the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service on behalf of the Texas Commission on Volunteerism and Community Service reveals that significantly more than 200,000 Texans serve this state through structured service opportunities, providing contributions in time, in-kind contributions, and donations valued in excess of $42 million. Their work significantly expands the reach of state government, leverages scarce financial resources and actively engages citizens in the work of a democracy. A review of volunteer practices and citizen engagement in eighteen selected state agencies and organizations, points to the extensive, successful deployment of volunteer resources throughout the state of Texas. It also suggests recommendations ranging from the sharing of best practices and the building of partnerships and professional networks, to standardizing data collection and providing liability coverage, which are detailed in the following article.

Key Words:
volunteers, impact, government, agencies, Texas

Introduction

Volunteers are indispensable to the functions of Texas State government. Individuals seeking to do good works, to gain professional experience, to repay a debt to society, members of community service organizations and school clubs, participants in national service initiatives and many others regularly give their time, effort and expertise to state agencies. When well-managed, state agencies leverage the work of their volunteers to increase efficiencies and deliver sound government and effective services to the people of Texas, they accomplish things that simply would not happen through tax dollars and state employees alone. Putting the time of volunteers to good use is not only a matter of common sense and common concern, but it is also an issue of good management and adequate fiscal allocations. It does not happen on its own. It does not happen without thoughtful attention. Volunteers may work for no pay, but they are not free!

A modern state requires the skilled orchestration of dozens of institutions and the collective efforts of thousands of permanent employees as well as thousands of volunteers. All too often we lament the inefficiency and lethargy of government agencies. Yet when jobs are done well, when benefits are delivered, when children and seniors are safe and cared for, when parks are clean and inviting, when services are rendered efficiently and well, and when historic sites are preserved and made available for all to see and appreciate, we rarely acknowledge the efforts behind the countless duties and innumerable tasks that make it so. Likewise, we rarely notice and even less frequently hear about the work of the volunteers who serve state government agencies willingly and effectively every day, 365 days a year.

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Background

At the request of the Texas Commission on Volunteerism and Community Service, the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service at the University of Texas at Austin undertook a qualitative analysis of the work volunteers perform, an assessment of the management structures governing volunteer involvement, and a review of the data collection practices associated with volunteer programs among state agencies. From the findings-based on responses to a 46-question survey instrument from 20 of the 22 organizations contacted[1]-the following "snapshot" of volunteerism in Texas state government emerged:

- More than 200,000 Texans serve the state through structured service opportunities providing contributions in time, in-kind contributions, and donations valued in excess of $42.5 million.
- Four organizational models facilitate the delivery of volunteer service--centralized models with dedicated staff at a central office and support at the regional level; decentralized models operating on a project or program specific level; hybrid models representing a combination of these two systems; and institution-specific programs focused on a single service-delivery site. The investigation points to a strong relationship between the centralized organization model with dedicated community resource staff and the more frequent employment of effective management practices. The eight state agencies with the most well-developed volunteer management systems engage 81 % of the volunteers identified in this study and account for 97% of the cash contributions raised by volunteers.
- More than 100 different service opportunities and 9 distinct "adopt-a" programs were described. People of all ages volunteer, although seniors are often more engaged in service. RSVP was the most frequently utilized national service program. Less than half of the programs were prepared to engage youth of high school age or younger in service endeavors. Volunteer positions ranged from avocational archeologists and GPS Mapping volunteers to tutors, fund raisers and web developers.
- Placement, not recruitment, is the volunteer managers' greatest challenge. Other

key challenges to greater volunteer involvement include staff availability to supervise and support volunteers and staff understanding *of* the roles and functions volunteers can perform.

- Texas does not provide a uniform work environment for its volunteers. Fewer than half *of* the state agencies queried covered their volunteers with liability insurance. Similar inconsistencies were reported on criminal background checks.

Summary Comments and Recommendations

The purpose of this paper is to present to the reader a summary o*f* the study's key findings which appear below. Persons interested in the full report can access the RGK Center for Philanthropy and Community Service web site for a PDF version *of* the study at http://rgkcenter.utexas.edu/research_invest - ing.html.

Although volunteers are clearly indispensable to the delivery *of* government services, the study does identify numerous opportunities to refine current practices and to enhance program management.

A standardization of these data collection processes across state agencies would be extremely beneficial in order to better understand the scope of volunteer involvement.

1. Standardize Data Collection Practices

Volunteers make an incredible contribution to the work of state agencies by delivering needed services, protecting our environment and preserving our cultural heritage. Their contributions represent serious commitments and clearly extend the reach of government and enhance service delivery. Documenting and reporting this contribution is, however, an arduous and challenging task. Recordkeeping systems are idiosyncratic at best. In some cases, volunteer contributions of time are carefully monitored and assignments tracked. In other situations, hours are collected and outcomes enumerated, but the number of persons providing the service are not counted. The variations are as diversified as the programs studied.

A standardization of these data collection processes across state agencies would be extremely beneficial in order to better understand the scope of volunteer involvement. Serious consideration should be given to adopting a uniform system *of* valuation thereby eliminating the existing confusion. A uniform system would help to clarify the statewide picture of volunteerism and facilitate its promotion as well as its evaluation.

2. Provide Liability Coverage for Volunteers

Volunteers provide an alternative delivery system for important state services. The study documented more than 100 distinct jobs volunteers perform within state agencies. It also documents that when liability coverage is available it is provided on an agency-by-agency basis. *Investing in Vo1-unteerism* recommends that the state of Texas provide a blanket policy offering uniform coverage to all residents engaged in formal, organized volunteer service within Texas state government entities. The state should also consider allowing volunteers to drive vehicles in select situations, and provide those volunteers with the same automobile insurance that it provides to salaried state workers. While volunteers may be willing to contribute their expertise to the state, this service should not expose citizens to additional personal risk or expense.

3. Expand Volunteer Recognition Programs and Events

Hundreds of thousands of people volunteer to serve state government agencies. Recognizing the contributions of volunteers is critical to volunteer retention. The Texas Commission on Volunteerism and Community Service is charged with orchestrating the annual Governor's Volunteer Leadership Awards. Although this ceremony is meaningful to the persons who receive this commendation, attention should be given to finding additional ways to recognize volunteers. Recognition events should be staged regionally, and designed to recognize far more individuals, as well as groups of people dedicated to causes or representing service organizations.

4. Hire Competent Qualified Volunteer Managers

Volunteers should be treated well and managed competently. Research demonstrates that volunteers leave positions where their time and expertise is poorly utilized. The data collected in this investigation point clearly to the advantages of centralized systems of volunteer management supported by qualified staff on both a state and regional basis. Model programs should be highlighted, and the experience of those currently managing these centralized programs should be broadly shared with other state agencies and commissions serious about expanding their systems of volunteer involvement and community engagement. Additional research should be undertaken to develop accurate cost-benefit analyses, and to address issues of position classifications and the necessary qualifications of competent volunteer management personnel.

5. Support Adequate Infrastructure and Fund Program Development Activities

Adequate infrastructure is critical to the development of any volunteer initiative. When asked about significant, challenges facing volunteer managers, funding and staff development were key. Insufficient funding for support personnel prevents agencies from engaging all the volunteers willing to serve, though it could also be the case that agencies under-allocate their funds to this end. Experienced volunteer managers suggested that more volunteers were generally available to serve than could be assimilated into available openings. Although the sample was limited, this finding is of critical importance. This study does *not* support the development of a media campaign to encourage more people to volunteer, rather it strongly recommends the attention to infrastructure development to utilize those resources fully and effectively. Similarly, the lack of certainty among middle managers regarding appropriate roles for volunteers thwarts a number of available opportunities. The Commission is encouraged to engage the state agency volunteer managers, along with policy advisors, to design strategies to gain additional support for volunteer program development and staff training opportunities.

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6. Study and Replicate Best Practices From Nonprofit Organizations

An analysis of volunteer management practices suggests that programs administered through centralized organizational structures are more effectively managed than those administered through hybrid or decentralized structures, or programs that are institution-specific. Surpassing even the centralized programs in management acuity, however, is Texas CASA, the one community-based agency included in this report. While it would be premature to assume this behavior from all community-based management systems (because only one such agency was analyzed), the finding does merit attention and call for additional research. Does the volunteer management system in place at CASA reflect the organization's years of operation? Do these good management practices translate into high levels of volunteer retention? Are they worthy of careful investigation so that the findings should be shared? What are the ingredients of successful "adoptions"? What is the optimal level of staffing support? What publicity is most effective? These programs appear to address current trends in volunteer participation by providing short-term, episodic options for service as well as activities in which groups of people can participate together. Other adoption programs appear to encourage a sense of ownership between the volunteer group and the targeted problem or issue, providing participants with a clear picture of the value and consequences of services rendered. Understanding these and of4er successful service experiences will facilitate appropriate replication.

7. Share Best Practices From State Agency Volunteer Programs with USA Freedom Corps Initiatives

Expanded knowledge about all forms of public sector service is particularly significant given the country's current attention to the roles volunteers can perform in response to disaster. A great deal can be gleaned from current practices and existing challenges. These findings can be applied to homeland security and citizen mobilization concerns, and shared with nonprofits to encourage more effective volunteer involvement.

8. Encourage State Agencies to Engage More National Services Programs in Volunteer and Community Engagement Initiatives

The contribution of volunteers can be augmented by participants in national service programs. Although many state agencies commented on the expertise and commitment of volunteers registered with the Retired and Senior Volunteer Program, the other Corporation for National and Community Service (CNCS) programs were not as well represented. One agency commented that AmeriCorps had been tried unsuccessfully. To facilitate greater integration of national service members with community volunteers, the Commission might consider seminars targeted specifically to state agency personnel to explain all of the CNCS programs as well as the methods to access these services. Special attention could be given to streamlining the AmeriCorps grants process to facilitate applicants from within state government. Additionally, state agencies could be encouraged to join together to submit joint applications designed to meet collective needs.

9. Encourage and Facilitate a Formal Network of State Level Volunteer Resource Personnel

An experienced group of state level volunteer managers currently meets in Austin on a regular basis to share experiences and learn

from each other. A larger and more formalized version of this group exists in Arkansas. Calling themselves "The Council for Promoting Volunteerism in State Government," these managers of volunteer initiatives meet to "(1) promote volunteerism in State Agencies by acting as a clearinghouse, (2) for sharing information, solving problems, and (3) identifying information, trends and issues."[2]

The Commission should consider serving as focal point for such a group in Texas. In addition, such an organization could be organized to address the unique needs of state agency managers based on their level of experience and the organizational structure of their programs. Such a partnership could leverage the educational opportunities available through the Governor's Volunteer Leadership Conference with a track of programs and workshops designed to meet the specialized needs of this audience.

Likewise, the Commission website could be expanded to provide the information and data needs of volunteer programs in state government. Respondents shared several excellent policy and procedure manuals. With permission from the developers, posting documents such as these would assist other agencies with the creation of comparable documents. In addition, some of the state agencies have prepared materials to facilitate community volunteer involvement. Prepared in both English and Spanish, these documents are a valuable public service. The Commission should explore partnering with these groups and disseminating proven resources more broadly.

> Active citizen service in the day to day affairs of government encourages thoughtful analysis and supports informed participation.

Conclusion

In its inception, this report and the aforementioned recommendations ostensibly aim to create awareness and dialogue concerning the utilization of volunteers by Texas state agencies, and the role of the Texas Commission on Volunteerism and Community Service in sustaining and strengthening public sector volunteerism. But the report has broader applicability by contributing knowledge and research to an area where an exploration of the literature confirms there is much to be done. The data collected from this survey suggest that Texas is home to many innovative state agency volunteer initiatives. In this respect, the report serves as a case study to practitioners and volunteer program personnel in state governments around the United States not only by observing the extent to which volunteers can be deployed in state-run initiatives but perhaps more importantly, by identifying common challenges and model solutions.

Yes, we are a "nation of joiners" and Texas is clearly "a state of joiners." We are a people who want to make a difference, a people who care deeply about the problems and the challenges facing Texas. Yet, in today's complex and bureaucratic environment, joining requires an open door and frequently a guiding light so that people can focus their time, their efforts, their skills and their talents in the places where those gifts can make a difference. While tight budgets may propel the discussion of volunteer engagement, citizen involvement is far more than the response to fiscal or other crises. A democracy is predicated on the active and informed involvement of citizens in the affairs of governance. Knowledgeable voters need to know far more than the names and political slogans of candidates seeking office. It is imperative that they understand the consequences of their political actions and the ramifications

of policy decisions. Active citizen service in the day to day affairs of government encourages thoughtful analysis and supports informed participation. Volunteerism as a mechanism to support citizen involvement is, in its most basic analysis, simply good government.

Endnotes

[1]There are 136 state agencies in Texas. The authors distributed the survey instrument only to those agencies believed to engage volunteers. Of the twenty agencies responding eighteen reported engaging volunteers in more than 30 different programmatic thrusts. One of the agencies surveyed, Texas CASA, is technically a 501 c (3) organization. It was included in this study because it serves the state court system and receives a significant legislative appropriation. The state agencies participating in this study were:

Texas State Government Agencies Participating in this Study.
Texas Department on Aging
Texas Commission on the Arts
Office of the Attorney General
Texas Commission for the Blind
Texas Department of Criminal Justice Texas Commission on Environmental Quality
General Land Office
Texas Department of Health
Texas Historical Commission
Texas Department of Human Services Texas State Library & Archives Commission
Texas Department of Mental Health and Mental Retardation
Parks and Wildlife Department
State Preservation Board
Department of Protective and Regulatory Services
Texas School for the Blind & Visually Impaired Texas Youth Commission Texas Court Appointed Special Advocates

[2]*Spirit of 110 Council's By-laws,* March 24, 2000, p. 1

About the Author

Sarah Jane Rehnborg has an extensive background as a consultant and trainer in volunteerism and community engagement in government agencies. Presently, she leads the research and instructional agenda in the field of volunteerism for the RGK Center for Philanthropy & Community Service at UT-Austin's LBJ School of Public Affairs. Prior to joining the RGK Center, she most recently served as director of community engagement for the Charles A. Dana Center at the University of Texas at Austin. Early in her career, she established the Institute for Volunteerism at the Community College of Allegheny County and served as president of the International Association for Volunteer Administration.

Meredith DeSpain