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ABSTRACT
              A process of equalization of salaries has taken place
in the State of North Dakota for higher education during the 1977-78
school year. The State of North Dakota supports eight institutions of
higher education: two universities, four state colleges, and two
two-year institutions. The equalization process as it effected the
decision making at the University of North Dakota is documented.
Tables are presented that report the results for the 1977-78
contracted salary and the 1977-78 salary after the equity
adjustments. (SPG)

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EFFECTS OF STATE-WIDE SALARY EQUITY PROVISIONS ON INSTITUTIONAL SALARY POLICIES: A REGRESSION ANALYSIS

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Florida State University   University of North Dakota

A process of equalization of salaries has taken place in the State of North Dakota for higher education during the 1977-78 school year. An objective observer might easily come to a conclusion that politics played a major role in the decision making process. It is the intent of this paper to document the equalization process as it effected the decision making at a single institution in that the equalization initially was implemented on a statewide scale.

BACKGROUND

The State of North Dakota supports eight institutions of higher education: two universities, four state colleges and two two-year institutions. There has been a long history of disagreement over the average faculty salary figure used in the state formula to allocate salary monies to the three kinds of institutions. The State Board of Higher Education has, in the past, supported the philosophy of retaining a differential, e.g., $2000 difference between the two-year institutions and the universities and $1500 difference between the state colleges and the universities. A 6% salary increase plus implementing a differential would give larger percentage faculty salary appropriations to the state colleges and the two-year institutions.

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For the 1977-79 biennium it was the Governor's desire to stop the
controversy of the differential and implement "equal pay for equal work".
The amount for the biennium that would normally establish the differential
was $228,776. An appropriation of $228,776 was made to be used by the
State Board of Higher Education for the purpose of creating more equitable
salary authorizations to the institutions and addressing primarily the
aforementioned objectives.

COMMITTEE PROCEDURE

A statewide faculty equity committee met a total of four times. At
the first meeting the State Budget Director and the State Board Budget
Director were present to clarify the task of allocating "equal pay for equal
work". At this meeting it was decided that the approach of a regression
analysis be explored, and the technical advisor was asked to develop a
model. This model was reviewed at the second meeting of the committee. It
was decided to make a preliminary run with 1976-77 salary data for review
and discussion at the third meeting. Some minor modifications were made
to redefine the sample and the committee agreed to adopt the regression
analysis method for the 1977-78 data at the third meeting. The Committee's
last meeting was to finalize the report for the President's Council and
State Board of Higher Education. While full agreement was reached on the
adoption of the statistical approach, there was dissension on how to distri-
bute the monies as resulted from the regression analysis.

STATEWIDE MODEL

All full time faculty (N=984) at state institutions of higher

education were included. Variables included six categorical variables reflecting years experience at the current institution, four variables reflecting highest degree, four rank variables, highest program level of department (graduate, undergraduate, associate) and 21 Higher Education General Information Survey (HEGIS) Classifications. Note that no traditional outcome variables (research, teaching or service) are included. One might characterize the process as an elaborate salary scale scheme.

RESULTS OF THE COMMITTEE'S ANALYSIS

Initially, inequity was defined to be a negative residual. Thus, if a person's salary exceeded the predicted salary, resulting in a positive residual, no inequity was seen to be present. For each institution the sum of negative-residuals was found (but using an overall statewide equation). The total sum of negative residuals, $670,339, obviously exceeded the allocated amount. Each institution was then accorded its "share" of the total amount in relationship to its proportion of the total sum of negative residuals. Then, 25% of the amount to be allocated to the two universities was reallocated to the remaining six institutions; the reasons for the 25% devaluation of university "inequities" reflect more the compromises of the committee than any statistical consideration. Complete details of the preliminary analysis are given in Williams and Martin (1977).

In the final analysis, the University of North Dakota was to receive $51,624 for the biennium for "equity" pay. State Board guidelines included:

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1. You will commit 48.5% of your allocation the first year of the biennium.

2. Distribution will only be made to those with negative residuals.

3. No individual will receive more than his or her negative residual.

4. Faculty representation is necessary in the distribution process.

Additional provisions that the University of North Dakota attempted to use included the following:

5. First, all equity monies would be distributed to colleges within the university in proportion to their present salary expenditures without regard to the residuals in the statewide equation.

6. Most available monies were to be given to professors and associate professors. Only if insufficient faculty at higher ranks were available with negative residuals would assistant professors be considered for equity adjustments.

7. In any case, only those who are seen as being especially meritorious should be given equity adjustments.

The guidelines contain sufficient incongruities to insure that they were not always applicable. The vagaries of the regression process insured some interesting adjustments: because those at higher ranks will tend to have higher salaries and hence are less probable to have negative residuals, the most likely recipients are those few higher ranked individuals who have a comparatively lower salary. In at least some cases, the lower comparative salary would

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seem to be reflective of lower productivity than their same ranked colleagues. The question then arises; what effect on the overall decision making, particularly as it reflects outcome variables (research, teaching and service) do the equity adjustments cause?

RESEARCH DESIGN

All full-time tenured or tenure-track faculty wholly funded on 1977-78 appropriated monies on whom complete data was available were included in the sample. The independent variables were recorded as follows:

	Variable Number		
Degree Level	2	Doctorate	(1 if, 0 if not)
	3	Bachelor's	(1 if, 0 if not)
	4	Professional	(1 if, 0 if not)
Years Experience at Current Institution	5	3-7 years	(1 if, 0 if not)
	6	8-12 years	(1 if, 0 if not)
	7	13-17 years	(1 if, 0 if not)
	8	18-22 years	(1 if, 0 if not)
	9	Over 22 years	(1 if, 0 if not)
Level of Program and Contingent Research Involvement	10	Graduate Program	(1 if, 0 if not)
	11	Sex	(1 if Male, 0 if Female)
Discipline (Hegis Taxonomy)	13	Biological Sciences	(1 if, 0 if not)
	14	Business and Management	(1 if, 0 if not)
	15	Communications	(1 if, 0 if not)
	16	Computer and Information Sciences	(1 if, 0 if not)
	17	Education	(1 if, 0 if not)
	18	Engineering	(1 if, 0 if not)
	19	Fine and Applied Arts	(1 if, 0 if not)
	20	Foreign Languages	(1 if, 0 if not)
	21	Health Professions	(1 if, 0 if not)
	22	Home Economics	(1 if, 0 if not)
	23	Law	(1 if, 0 if not)
	24	Letters	(1 if, 0 if not)
	25	Mathematics	(1 if, 0 if not)
	26	Physical Sciences	(1 if, 0 if not)
	27	Psychology	(1 if, 0 if not)

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RESULTS

Tables 1 and 2 report the results of using the previously described, independent variables; these tables respectively report the results for the 1977-78 contracted salary and the 1977-78 salary after the equity adjustments.

RESULTS

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Table 1
Multiple Regression for Equity Study
Prior to Adjustments
(N = 312)

VARIABLE NO.	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	CORRELATION X VS Y	REGRESSION COEFFICIENT	COMPUTED t Value	BETA
2	0.657	0.475	0.360	1050.38	4.299	0.145
3	0.012	0.112	-0.147	545.67	0.604	0.017
4	0.006	0.079	0.068	3203.01	2.577	0.074
5	0.240	0.428	-0.028	121.17	0.387	0.015
6	0.275	0.447	0.069	151.87	0.447	0.019
7	0.134	0.341	0.085	359.17	0.891	0.035
8	0.051	0.220	0.127	915.37	1.736	0.058
9	0.080	0.271	0.173	695.57	1.428	0.054
10	0.868	0.338	0.076	-88.02	-0.277	-0.008
11	0.855	0.351	0.267	390.88	1.307	0.039
13	0.044	0.207	-0.116	-154.80	-0.300	-0.009
14	0.105	0.308	0.061	1794.89	4.724	0.160
15	0.009	0.097	-0.047	-1162.32	-1.087	-0.033
16	0.006	0.079	0.003	2438.64	2.108	0.056
17	0.214	0.411	-0.039	746.16	2.159	0.089
18	0.051	0.220	0.153	316.68	0.637	0.020
19	0.089	0.286	-0.272	-973.55	-2.107	-0.080
20	0.044	0.207	-0.097	-1128.19	-2.154	-0.067
21	0.019	0.137	-0.067	-454.83	-0.603	-0.018
22	0.019	0.137	-0.045	620.30	0.809	0.024
23	0.022	0.148	0.175	7271.58	10.831	0.313
24	0.080	0.271	-0.034	-302.03	-0.717	-0.023
25	0.041	0.200	-0.001	-303.86	0.578	-0.017
26	0.089	0.286	0.150	99.00	0.236	0.008
27	0.041	0.200	0.000	718.88	1.350	0.041
28	0.383	0.472	0.720	8993.55	11.466	1.233
29	0.403	0.491	-0.148	5100.53	6.947	0.728
30	0.237	0.426	-0.521	2682.56	3.932	0.331
31	6.323	13.240	0.113	8.98	1.218	0.034
32	3.077	0.533	-0.126	187.99	1.004	0.029
33	0.503	1.054	0.370	24.20	3.260	0.099
34	0.189	0.670	0.241	.82	-0.263	-0.007
35	1.158	1.751	0.216	6.39	0.109	0.003
36	0.637	1.307	0.142	-78.59	-1.037	-0.029
37	0.044	0.346	-0.047	-274.10	0.995	-0.027

DEPENDENT
1   18536.714   3443.010

INTERCEPT   10514.50

MULTIPLE CORRELATION   0.90640

STD. ERROR OF ESTIMATE   1543.841

MULTIPLE CORRELATION SQUARED   0.82157

ONE MINUS MULTIPLE CORRELATION SQD   0.17843   F = 36.308

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2. What--Specifying Conter

The second step in the model refers to the specific content to be taught and is identified in terms of objectives. The type of content to be covered will, of course, be directly related to the needs and characteristics of the clients identified as part of step one. This step in the model puts those needs into a specific format so that the content to be delivered deals with specific units rather than with global topics. The content may be specific skills, such as using a pressure canner or freezing fruits and vegetables, or it may be infor- mation about nutrutional requirements for the elderly. Whether the content is learning and refining skills or acquiring information, it should be broken down into units that are clear and understandable to the trainees with the idea that they will in turn do this for the clients.

Identify the specific content of a given training session is best done by specifying objectives of a given training session and the ratio- nale behind each objective, i.e., why are they important, and if they are arranged sequentially, why this arrangement is necessary.

It is not necessary that the trainees know the fine points about structuring content into objective   They are not designing curriculum-- they are simply delivering instru   n. It is necessary, however, that the trainer know how to write objectives for the level of the trainees and clients to which the objectives pertain.

3. How--Selecting Methods and Materials

The how part of the model deals with selecting instructional methods for attaining the objectives identified in step two. The instructional procedures must be congruent with the objectives and client characteristics and, to some degree, are pre-determined by these two steps. For example, the characteristics and needs determined in step one and the objectives specified in step two will provide the trainer with valuable clues as to how the content may best be delivered.

Typically, trainers find one method that works well for them and/or is easy to arrange and use this method consistently without considering alternatives. However, there are many resources available to the trainer who wishes to expand on his or her options for instructional strategies. These options include seminar and discussion, audio-visual packages, competency based modules, simulations, and observations, to name just a few. In settings involving cognitive type learning, Bergevin, Morris, and Smith (1963) provide an overview of numerous techniques and procedures that have been found to be effective in training adults in large and small group settings.

4. Demonstrate--Demonstration of Skills to be Learning/Taught

The demonstration step in the model is perhaps the most neglected part of most training situations. It is one thing to tell someone how to do something and quite another to show them how it should be done. The demonstration step addresses the issue of "show me how to do it,"

Table 2
Multiple Regression for Equity Study
After Adjustments
(N = 312)

VARIABLE NO.	MEAN	STANDARD DEVIATION	CORRELATION X VS Y	REGRESSION COEFFICIENT	COMPUTED t'Value	BETA
2	0.657	0.475	0.365	1079.99	4.589	0.149
3	0.012	0.112	-0.148	557.57	0.641	0.018
4	0.006	0.079	0.067	3196.81	2.670	0.074
5	0.240	0.428	-0.026	158.40	0.526	0.019
6	0.275	0.447	0.074	221.49	0.676	0.028
7	0.134	0.341	0.090	442.96	1.141	0.044
8	0.051	0.220	0.125	906.15	1.784	0.058
9	0.080	0.271	0.169	668.25	1.424	0.052
10	0.868	0.338	0.078	-91.04	-0.297	-0.008
11	0.855	0.351	0.268	361.03	1.253	0.037
13	0.044	0.207	0.118	-100.49	-0.202	-0.006
14	0.105	0.308	0.061	1808.37	4.941	0.162
15	0.009	0.097	-0.049	-1130.43	-1.106	-0.032
16	0.006	0.079	-0.005	2361.01	2.118	0.054
17	0.214	0.411	-0.042	724.52	2.176	0.086
18	0.051	0.220	0.156	401.19	0.838	0.025
19	0.089	0.286	-0.273	-964.05	-2.165	-0.080
20	0.044	0.207	-0.098	-1162.17	-2.303	-0.070
21	0.019	0.137	-0.063	-337.29	-0.464	-0.013
22	0.019	0.137	-0.048	543.25	0.735	0.021
23	0.022	0.148	0.176	7342.87	11.354	0.317
24	0.080	0.271	-0.036	-317.21	-0.782	-0.025
25	0.041	0.200	0.001	-235.44	-0.465	-0.013
26	0.089	0.286	0.154	141.75	0.351	0.011
27	0.041	0.200	-0.004	691.00	1.347	0.040
28	0.333	0.472	0.723	9050.52	11.979	1.245
29	0.403	0.491	-0.142	5174.23	7.316	0.740
30	0.237	0.426	-0.530	2698.64	4.106	0.335
31	6.323	13.240	0.111	7.89	1.110	0.030
32	3.077	0.533	-0.124	219.33	1.216	0.034
33	0.503	1.054	0.367	298.29	3.114	0.091
34	0.189	0.670	0.240	-41.61	-0.292	-0.008
35	1.198	1.751	0.217	2.12	0.037	0.001
36	0.637	1.307	0.149	-61.61	-0.844	-0.023
37	0.044	0.346	-0.049	-286.46	-1.079	-0.028

DEPENDENT
12   18612.140   3431.767

INTERCEPT   10418.76

MULTIPLE CORRELATION   0.91287

STD. ERROR ESTIMATE   1487.210

MULTIPLE CORRELATION SQUARED   0.83333

ONE MINUS CORRELATION SQD   0.16667   F = 39.427

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Table 1 reports decision making that took place at the University of North Dakota prior to any involvement (or knowledge) or the equity process; Table 1 could be seen as reflecting the priorities (even as they are changing) in the decision making process prior to the intervention. The question that arises regarding Table 1 is, "Has the intervention (equity) process changed to any significant degree the decision making process?"

A direct answer to the quesiton can be made by imposing the regression coefficients established in Table 1, plus the mean increase $75.19 to the data set that formed Table 2, using the following (Bottenberg and Ward, 1963) equation:

$$F = \frac{(q_2 - q_1)/(df_1)}{(q_1)/(df_2)}, \text{ where}$$

q_1 is the sum of squared deviations from the regression line for Table 2, and q_2 is the sum of squared deviations for the imposed equation; the F value is within rounding error of zero, showing a close fit.

While considerable difficulty is encountered in trying to interpret each coefficient in the tables, the following directions of change can be noted from Table 1 to Table 2: the research and teaching variables (Variables 28 and 31) seem to be not being attended to in the decision making process (looking at the correlation coefficient, the regression coefficient and the beta weight). On the other hand, being on the University Senate made a significant contribution. A variable included in the analyses that logically does not belong is the sex variable. It is included as a control variable; because discrimination is being attended to on a national level, the variable may have some predictive value due to efforts to eliminate discrimination. The drop in the size of the coefficient for

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sex from Table 1 to Table 2 seems to be indicative of a slight attempt to address this issue. It appears that most attention is focused upon rank; degree level, and on some of the HEGIS categories, notably law (Variable '13). Using the degree variables, rank variables and six HEGIS categories (14, Management; 16, Computer and Information Sciences; 17, Education; 19, Fine and Applied Arts; 20, Foreign Languages and 23, Law) a total of twelve variables, results in only a minimal drop in the R^2 from .83333 to .81421, using the salary after the equity adjustment as criterion. Using rank and the HEGIS category for Law (a total of four variables), $R^2 = .74206$, amounting to slightly more than a nine per cent drop in accounted variance despite the dropping of 31 variables.

It could be argued that the reason the outcome variables have so little impact in complex equations such as are demonstrated in Tables 1 and 2 is that rank is in fact due to the outcome variables and, therefore, reduces their apparent impact. Accordingly, the outcome variables reported in Tables 1 and 2, and the equity salary variables were analyzed by rank in a one-way analysis of variance (See Table 3).

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TABLE 3

Academic Rank and Outcome Variables and Salary Variables

(N = 312)

VARIABLE	Professor N=104	Associate Professor N=126	Assistant Professor N=74	Instructor N=8	F
Research	8.99	6.44	3.06	.13	3.58
Teaching	2.99	3.09	3.15	3.34	2.01
University Senate	.87	.48		0	9.08
Elected Committees	.48	.06	.01	0	10.88
Senate Committees	1.56	1.43	.42	.13	8.67
Presidential Committees	.82	.77	.22	.13	4.18
Appointed Committees	.04	.05	.03	.25	1.01
1977-78 Contracted Salary	22037	17918	15321	12521	186.43
1977-78 Salary (After Equity Adjustment)	22119	18020	15350	12521	196.
1977-78 Salary Residual (Positive Only)	407	682	708	2465	15.62
Salary Equity Adjustment	82	102	29	.00	4.11

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The professors tend to have spent considerably more time in committee activity than is true of other ranks, but one might rationally question whether service on committees justifies either promotion in rank or considerably higher salaries. While professors have a higher mean research output, this difference is offset by two considerations; publication activity clearly is non-normally distributed (the standard deviation is approximately twice the mean) and the mean output is less than a single article a year. Also, the publication activity of faculty at all ranks tended, for the typical faculty member, to be almost non-existent. Previously, Martin (1977) was unable to discern any plausible explanation for promotion, other than having served in some administrative capacity. Thus, the "policy" regarding salaries is both more complex and simpler than is shown in Tables 1 and 2. It is simpler, in that knowing a person's degree, rank and whether or not they teach in a few selected departments can give almost as good an indication toward salary as is knowing the complete set of information used in Tables 1 and 2. It is more complex in that the variables that determine rank are not sufficiently known to be of much predictive value.

What then could be said about the adjustment process, in an overall sense? Apparently, no major effects on the decision making machinery has taken place. Even when a deliberate attempt is made to implement a policy at the local level, some non-compliance occurs. Note that associate professors received higher equity increases than professors even though the intention was the opposite. Also, implicit in the State Board action was that the negative residuals be closely looked at in the decision

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making process; other than a limiter of the possible adjustment, the residuals were not highly related to actual increases. Using only those who had a negative residual (N=172), r = .06 between negative residuals and equity increase. Interestingly, the correlations between equity increase and the research and teaching variables were respectively -.05 and .06. However, 24 of the 36 professors with negative residuals received equity increases from $52 to $870 with a mean of $355 for those receiving raises; 46 of the 74 eligible associate professors received equity increases from $80 to $572 with a mean of $279; 9 of the 54 eligible associate professors received equity increases from $70 to $443 with a mean of $241. All eight of the instructors had negative residuals; none had an equity increase. Looking at the data yet another way, 21 faculty had 20 or more points on the research scale (two referred articles by a single author per year); 10 of these faculty were eligible for equity increases. Three such faculty actually received equity increases ($80 to $120 with a mean of $100). Clearly, research played no important part in the equity adjustment process. Teaching success, as measured by the rating scales, fared scarcely better.

. Referring back to the original guidelines, the four provisions of the State Board were closely followed (with the possible exception of faculty representation); the first two of the three provisions imposed by the University itself were adhered to. Only the last provision ("... only those who are seen as being especially meritorious should be given equity adjustments.") was seemingly violated; unfortunately, the one provision that was violated might be seen by many to be the most important.

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we received this "Call for Papers" for this conference. I assume most people got the same sort of thing (i.e., notice of the conference). My initial reaction was kind of to laugh and kind of to be put off, outraged, maybe internally to "cry" a little bit about it. What is going on? Are they really going to have a conference on the roles of colleges and universities in volunteerism with academic papers presented? I was feeling very strongly this was something I didn't want to be involved with. After talking with my assistant, Bob McDonnell, some other people at Madison House, and especially with my wife, I decided that perhaps my obligation was to come to the conference and challenge the idea of even having a conference like this. So over the past number of months what I have been doing is attempting to think this thing through so that my views can be expressed in an understandable manner. It has been difficult. In some cases, I am sure that what I have to say has been said before in other contexts but I feel strongly that it needs to be said today.

I don't know whether it is just my good fortune, circumstances, coincidences, or what, but just the other day I received an article that brought all my ideas into focus. I have a subscription to the Chronicle of Higher Education and in its issue dated April 25, it has an essay (back page column "Point of View") called "The Professionalization of the Humanities". What I want to do is to quote extensively from this but to modify it as I go along in such a way as to substitute for "humanities" the term "volunteerism". What is being said in this essay April, 1977 I think might eventually be said about volunteerism in April, 1987 if, as I fear, some of the things that are currently taking place in volunteerism do lead us in the direction that is outlined here. So if you will bear with me: This is written by Simone Reagor who was director of the division of research grants at the National Endowment for the Humanities from 1974 to 1976.

Scholars and teachers of volunteerism once believed they played a key role in society as conveyors of an important cultural heritage and as nurturers in the young of a valuable attitude towards life and mankind.

Their focus was unquestionably on their advocacy; they gave relatively little attention to formal rewards. Scholars pursued their interests because they cared greatly about what they were doing.

In recent times the attitude of teachers and scholars in volunteerism has undergone a tragic change. Their sense of civic and social responsibility has disappeared. Moreover, financial and career rewards are now more important for most of them than are the importance and purpose of their roles. Somewhere along the way volunteerism leaders themselves have come to define their responsibility narrowly to their fields. Now the iron curtains of their specialities separate them from each other and from society. The tradition has vanished behind the lines of individual disciplines.....

Separate departments exist in every area of volunteerism--and still newer and more limited ones are being created each year. Learned societies and professional organizations of every variety have been established, ranging from groups with broad academic and scholarly purposes to those with narrower interests.....

Obviously, much good can be said for the professional developments in volunteerism; all have responded to various needs. But it is equally true that the organizational development of volunteerism has contributed to their becoming rigid and political.....

Professionalization has introduced power politics to volunteerism, to the point that politics is now as dominant a force as it is in the sciences or even in the business world. For many teachers the primary goals have become the next promotion, a bigger departmental budget, and attainment of professional office or publication of yet another book or article. The motivating force of life is the desire for the constant accretion of prestige and status. Maneuvering and in-fighting for these career goals have become so common that they create the accepted tone in many departments and professional organizations.....

While the corpus of learning has certainly expanded, the drive to power has contributed to the wild increase in the number of journals, the enormous production of books and articles, and the development of associations and centers. Because of the importance of attaining position and power, there is a tendency whenever differences or disagreements arise in a field for one segment to break away to form a new association or to establish yet another journal. Under the influence of this politicizing force volunteerism scholars have spread out in new directions in order to broaden their power base, thus giving more people opportunities to win position and prestige.....

The current financial crunch in the educational world has certainly intensified the problems of professionalization. Under the stress of economic difficulties and the intense competition for jobs and tenure, academics are impelled to find ways to strengthen their resumes, to show an even higher level of professional accomplishment. Maneuvering for grants and positions in departments and organizations becomes ever more savage. But the process of professionalization and the resulting politicizing of volunteerism was under way well before the economic difficulties began. It would be a serious mistake to place all the blame for these problems on the current crisis. Rather, the responsibility lies with the people who have chosen volunteerism as a life course.....

Obviously it is not possible to return to an earlier level of informality and innocence. Nor is it desirable. The professionalization of volunteerism does have some benefits. But if we are to reap those benefits fully, we must recognize the dangers and the damage already done. The health of volunteerism can be restored only by individuals, by people who care more about what they are doing than about their political position in a department or field. Universities must find ways to encourage this kind of self-direction. ....

That's a very lengthy quote. I wish I had written it. I am glad somebody wrote it about the humanities and I think honestly someday somebody might be writing it about volunteerism.

Now I would like to get into some of my own personal notes that I have tried to put together. My own feeling is that volunteerism might work. In fact there are a lot of people who think it already is working and it is working pretty well. Some even see it as a viable, long run, increasingly dynamic, social force. Others maybe are not quite so sure. From a university's perspective (its so called "mission") on the one hand this situation is a challenge, an opportunity to explore volunteerism, criticize it, dissect it, participate in it. These people who do believe in volunteerism want and need to know how and why it works. Academia may have some answers for that. Those who doubt volunteerism's real value want more information so that can decide whether its worthwhile or not.

The growing interest by the academic world offers benefits to the volunteer movement if it is approached with considerable caution.

Now from volunteerism's perspective the university does offer resources which if recruited and coordinated properly, will enhance and promote the growth of a voluntary society. Volunteerism has enjoyed a period of prosperity-- let's call them golden years. Though, it has not been a period of economic prosperity necessarily. I feel that the growth and development of volunteerism is due in large part to certain inherent qualities that it has relative to other fields. There is a lot of independent initiative in volunteerism, sort of grass roots stuff, lots of creativity, flexibility, spontaniety. A great deal of self renewal is evident. There's a constant turnover of the people who are involved in volunteerism and there's continuing questioning of what they are doing and could they be doing it better. This is good. The challenge that volunteerism faces is to continue to grow and develop and build on those things-- the specific qualities and strengths it already possesses. The danger to volunteerism is that it will fall prey to other forces (not all academic), some of which are mentioned in the article that I quoted. Especially things like the self-preservation, overspecialization, publish or perish mentality. I think that anybody in academia can point to certain things that have gone wrong in the development of that discipline. What I am trying to do is point out what can go wrong with volunteerism based on what we have seen go wrong in these other fields. Since a great deal is unknown about volunteerism, that is one of the things that makes it vulnerable. It has grown very rapidly. Of course there has always been volunteerism (not always called that)--anyone who had done a history of volunteerism goes back and quotes de Tocqueville and on back. But when you look at the statistical reports on volunteerism you see that there has been a tremendous growth in the late 1960's, expecially among university volunteer programs, such as I am involved with, and high school programs. This rapid growth may have been haphazard and this makes volunteerism very vulnerable. It is an attractive thing for academia to come in and inquire about. If you are perseptive, you can already see volunteerism getting hooked. For example, there is a debate going on about the operational language of volunteerism. How do you define volunteer, voluntary, volunteerism? It is a prelude to development of a jargon, I am not sure there is a volunteerism jargon yet, but there is the environment for it. There is a great deal of interest in the motivational aspects of volunteerism. Why do people get involved; how do you keep them going; how do you determine their specific motivation and channel them into proper most efficient use of that sort of motivation? Theres also a great deal of interest in applying business management techniques to volunteerism. I personally think this is a really good idea. Volunteer supervision, training, evaluation, and marketing are all relevant areas of study.

Given this sort of environment you can see how volunteerism can benefit from a relationship with a university. The real question is: Are the best interests of the volunteer movement and the university's mission a) an intersecting set of issues, b) a conflicting set of issues, or c) a null set. I think I personally have ruled out the null set and I would like to see it be an intersecting set of issues, not a conflicting set. And that to me means both parties have got to enter into this relationship with a great deal of respect for each other. They can not abuse each other for their own purposes. For instance I don't think that academia should be using volunteerism as a "guina pig" to test out its new social theories. At the same time volunteerism can not expect academia to contribute its knowledge without some reciprocal benefits.

Volunteerism is at a crossroads; it is under a microscope and more questions are raised than are answered. What I propose is a philosophical approach which is based on what is known in economics as a "Pareto optimal"-- a situation in which everyone is better off and no one is worse off from the interaction of the two parties. I hope I have already begun to warn of some of the impending dangers of an unplanned relationship. I think the role of universities in volunteerism is to raise questions, test viability, encourage, criticize, guide, support and especially to intergrate existing and newly developed knowledge. The danger is that it won't do any of these sort of things or it will start to do some of these other things I have alluded to, especially over-professionalization. Since supporters of volunteerism have always talked of working within the system, avoiding duplication, supplimenting not replacing the services of professionals there is a chance in a relationship with a university to abide by these sort of philosophies. Why can't courses in vol-unteer administration, if we want to call it that, be incorporated in existing curriculum areas. For instance, business and commerce schools can do an awful lot by just modifying their current curriculum to deal with the issues that are especially relevant to volunteerism. The fields of education, sociology, psychology, urban affairs, and many others all have the potential to contribute significantly to volunteerism. I don't think that volunteerism, however, should totally submerse its social identity within these other disciplines. It does need an identity but not necessarily an entire curriculum (or worse a department) based on volunteer administration, certification, etc.

I have got another quote which states in another way the feelings I have about the appropriate relationship between universities and volunteerism. It deals with action learning which is sometimes described as volunteerism for academic credit. Action learning is really a multi-disciplinary approach to education. It is a quote from Alan Toffler who wrote Future Shock:

"The combination of action-learning with academic work, and both of these with a future orientation, creates a powerfully motivating and powerfully personal learning situation. It helps close the gap between change occurring 'out there' and change occurring within the individual, so that learners no longer regard the world as divorced from themselves, and themselves as immune to (and perhaps incapable of) change. In a turbulent, high-change environment, it is only through the development of a 'psychology of the future' that education can come to terms with learning."

There is currently a lot of talk in education about a so called "life centered curriculum." In a sense, since volunteerism reflects life, volunteerism can be thought of as a life centered curriculum. To reiterate, though, I don't think volunteerism has to have its own special department or its own special niche within the university.

Even worse than a lack of interaction between volunteerism and the university would be something called "academic voyeurism." This is the study of other peoples problems for academic self gratification. This goes back to the guinia pig thing. Should academic institutions be trying to identify the body of knowledge which is unique to volunteerism? Should practicioners be certified and recertified to insure competency? Who should do this? How many professional associations are needed? I understand that there are at least 13 or 14 and they have even formed an alliance of the 13 or 14. There are alot of journals and

publications coming out now. There are a lot of conferences taking place
(this is about the sixth I have gone to this year. I am trying desparately
to get unhooked). Therefore it is possible, to overspecialize volunteerism.
Sure, those certain conferences and programs designed to share experiences
and get folks together who have common problems are fine. I think that perhaps
this conference could be a classic example of over specialization. The jury
is still out on the conference. I am here for as long as I can be to see if
volunteerism is going down the wrong road. I don't think volunteerism needs as
much theory as some people seem to think it needs. I think it needs more
interaction, more intergration, it needs people doing things, not watching
other people doing things. I don't think it needs to be cut up into little
specialities. For instance, I don't want to become part of an organization of
student volunteer administrators in the southeast region of the United States
with universities with 20,000 students who have over a 1,000 volunteers. As
absurd as that sounds, I really think there is a danger that it might happen.

People like me I guess cry wolf. I think all these dangers I have tried
to catalogue can be avoided, and I think the time to start avoiding them is
very close at hand. Volunteerism is a very interesting social phenomen. It
is well worth inquiry to ascertain the reasons for its success. But if vol-
unteerism's needs are not served in such an inquiry and the universities'
needs are served, then I think volunteerism has sold itself short and lost an
opportunity. We can look at other developments, other disciplines and learned
from them. We must before it is too late.

A UNIVERSITY - COMMUNITY PARTNERSHIP
FOR VOLUNTEERISM

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Teacher Corps Project
President
Voluntary Action Center '76-77

INTRODUCTION

My interest and involvement in volunteer partnerships has emerged from my
experiences as a Director of a volunteer early childhood program, Program
Specialist for a children's coordinating council, administrator for a
federal inservice project, and President of our local Voluntary Action
Center. Within the scope of this paper, I will be drawing upon these ex-
periences as a foundation for raising some issues concerning volunteerism
and suggesting a framework for meeting these issues and challenges. The
paper will concern itself with the philosophy of a university-community
volunteer partnership, the programmatic action needed to create the partner-
ship, the roles of the university, school, and community in the partnership
system, and finally, the ·implication for such an integrated human care system.

THE SEEDS OF A PHILOSOPHICAL PARTNERSHIP

I am a believer in the gradualist school of change. This means I somewhere
between the status quo and the revolution. Because of this belief, I see
a vast and rich system of resources available for use by schools, neigh-
borhood associations, governmental bodies, community agencies, and citizen
councils which exist within the university resource setting. However, the
wealth of expertise in research, development, and special instructional
programs of the university must be translated into action and community
enrichment. John Friedman (Retracking America, p. 110, 1973) outlined the
heart of this partnership between expert (university) knowledge and client
(community) action. The requirements of this mutual communication are:

- The expert, to work with models abstracted from the real world
  and operating under controlled environmental conditions;
  The actor, to work with models of the real world under the
  variable conditions of a shifting environment;

- The expert, to work without regard to an existing power distri-
  bution and to be unconcerned with outcomes in the real world;
  The actor, to take the distribution of power as the starting
  point of his analysis and to consider, first, the means through
  which a course of action may be carried out;

- - The expert, to search for certainty in results by means of con-
  tinuous exposure to critical views;
  The actor, to take on normal risks of action and keep opponents
  ignorant of his own strategies;

- The expert, to be content with general solutions within the
  assumptions of the model;
  The actor, to seek deterministic answers to the problems of
  a special case;

- The expert, to interpret the past;
  The actor, to make the future;

- The expert, to work without limitations of time;
  The actor, to work under the pressure of time;

- The expert, to specialize in one branch of knowledge at a time;
  The actor, to demand a general expertise, capable of taking
  many branches of knowledge simultaneously into account;

- The expert, to look for success in academic recognition;
  The actor, to look for practical payoffs in terms of profits
  and power.

These requirements of mutual communication will not produce a partnership
between the university and community. There must be something more than
a theoretical description. There must be a commitment to human dialogue
(Friedman, pp. 178-181, 1973). This human centered dialogue...

- presumes a relationship that is grounded in the authenticity of
  the person and accepts his "otherness" as a basis for meaningful
  communication.

- presumes a relation in which thinking, moral judgment, feeling,
  and empathy are fused in authentic acts of being.

- presumes a relation in which conflict is accepted.

- presumes a relationship of total communication in which gestures
  and other modes of expression are as vital to meaning as the sub-
  stance of what is being said.

- presumes a relation of shared interests and commitments.

- presumes a relationship of reciprocity and mutual obligation.

- presumes a relationship that unfolds in real time.

We at the Eugene Teacher Corps Project have written a proposal for 1977-79
which states that mutual technical assistance which will exist between
teachers in the school district and the secondary faculty of the Teacher
Education Division. The proposal is entitled, Inservice Education and
Curriculum Development: A Research Based Strategy, 1976. The university
will assist a high school to implement an interdisciplinary program. The

school staff will assist the secondary faculty to develop a model inservice program. These groups have needs which can be met by the knowledge, expertise, and experience of each other. This commitment is the first stage in such a project partnership.

I realize how easily tne communication between expert and client can breakdown and become a source of conscious or sub-conscious conflict. When I wear my citizen hat, I often find myself saying, "they (meaning the professionals) don't understand, or why won't they listen". If it can be that frustrating for me, how is it for citizens who are suspicious of well intentioned, committed professionals? Frustration and discouragement are not the sole possession of expert or client. In order that any partnership can exist, the commitment to dialogue must become the substance of the relationship. Only in a relationship of I and you becoming we can a moral human care system exist (Jantsch, p. 83, 1976).

THE PRAGMATIC PARTNERSHIP - A HUMAN CARE PERSPECTIVE AND THE CONSIDERATION OF TRAINING

There are some questions I would like to raise which will lead us to a discussion of a functioning university-community partnership. For instance, in the planning, coordination, and delivery of volunteer services should these services be separated into their own unique category? To be a little more explicit, should volunteer services be an incorporated category of long range planning (3-5 years) like educational planning or a unique subset of itself? One can gain a perspective on this question by asking to what extent is mental health separate from health in the planning, coordination, and delivery of services. In Oregon, there are two allied systems, the Department of Education and the Department of Human Resources which are responsible for our children and families (Kutz, 1976). These systems attract the majority of our volunteer resources yet no where are volunteer services a major unit of any Department.

Let's pose another similar question related to the context of training professionals who work in a human care and resource development system (Figures #1 and #2). Who at the university level should be responsible for the preservice training of the volunteer counselor, specialist, coordinator, and administrator? A corollary question is, how can these professionals receive inservice training and what is the role of the university and college regarding this un-captive clientele? Assuming that a human care and resource development system should integrate long range planning, coordination, and the delivery of services with the involvement of the community, what type of professionals are needed to energize it and where ought their training occur? The ecology of this training is an important variable since one must interact with the special conditions of the setting to do and grow. It is equally important to recognize that parents, volunteers, and other community residents are themselves professionals in the context of professing their life in the community, and must continue their life-long learning in the human care setting.

At this point, let us revert back to our first question, should volunteerism be a separate component in a human care and resource development system? Although I could be persuaded to answer yes, I feel that volunteerism should be _integrated_ into such a system. It is difficult for me to conceive of it any other way although the strength of volunteerism is beginning to demonstrate itself as we face the era of finite resources, inflation, and constriction of human service funding. The trained volunteer, in many ways, is becoming more valuable than the paid professional.

If we buy the notion that volunteerism is an integral element of such a human system, then it follows that preservice and inservice education should also be included in this partnership since one's professional development is partly a function of the setting in which s/he operates. Consequently, it is the agenda of the university to assure that it also operates _within_ this integrated context, practices _field research_ and _program development_, and joins with the community to form a partnership where the research, development, planning, programming, and delivery of services occur at the most organizationally integrated, and geographical unit (Edwards, Moorhead, 1973). Only within this context can the knowledge of the university be joined _with_ the action requirements of the community to create a partnership which utilizes the best of both systems. Because there exists the need for clients to receive services at the most organizationally (school) and geographic (community) integrated unit, the focus for the training of volunteer professionals becomes the school-community milieu. One example of this milieu approach is our current Teacher Corps Project.

PARTNERSHIP LESSONS -- THE EUGENE SCHOOL DISTRICT - U OF O TEACHER CORPS PROJECT

The Teacher Corps program began as a national attempt to alleviate the teacher shortage by recruiting liberal arts students to the teaching profession. As the overage shrunk and teachers became in oversupply, the Teacher Corps Project recognized the need to focus its effort on inservice education within the school _and_ community. An implicit value behind this type of partnership is the recognition of changing the priorities of teacher education and colleges of education and enhancing the relationships between schools, universities, and communities (Teacher Corps Brochure, 1977). To this end, it is paramount that the _university_ join with the _school_ _and_ _community_ to create a partnership which will integrate program development structures, policy formation structures, and project review and documentation structures within ecological settings such as federal projects (Kutz, 1977). This overall communication and coordination system allows the partners to collaboratively manage their efforts (Figure #2).

service education as a key element of this partnership comes into being as a _function of the situation_ in which teachers, aides, volunteers, parents, community service agents, and others define their needs. It makes sense that the university professionals would realize the strength of any preservice program is a result of their inservice program. This means that a university coordinated preservice program for volunteer training is a necessity. The U of O has a program called ESCAPE (Every Student Caring About Personalized

Instruction) where students volunteer in the schools and receive course
work in various departments. ESCAPE also allows students to administer
the program themselves, thus assuring experience in administration, super-
vision, and program development.

But there are a number of factors which inhibit the easy development of
school and community inservice programs. One factor is the fragmented
relationship between the school and community itself. Oregon is becoming
nationally infamous for its school closures, but other states are not
far behind. Another factor is the increasing power of teacher associations
and their willingness to become more active in professional development.
And, a third factor is the perception that the university is an alien to the
school and community.

As I mentioned earlier, in the world of inservice education there is no
captive clientele as there is at the preservice level. For the university
to become a major resource, school and community residents must view expert
knowledge as translatable to their environment and finally to their situation
as they experience it. A fourth factor that adds further complexity is
centered around the nature of the geography and residents of the school.
Teachers are natural residents, but volunteers, parents, and community agents
must be also conceived as school residents so that their involvement becomes
a natural part of the ecological setting. This type of partnership must
evolve, if all the school staff are to see themselves and each other as of
one kind and capable of cooperatively affecting the human system in which they
collectively exist.

At this point I'd like to share with you some of the lessons we have derived
from the 1976-77 Teacher Corps experience. Teacher Corps requires that in-
service be available to all school staff including aides, volunteers, and
parents. For parents, classes in parent education were conducted. Training
sessions for volunteers and aides were presented on communication skills
and understanding children, assertiveness training, and problem solving,
and tutoring in reading and math. Approximately 100 volunteers were trained
in three months. In order for us to come this far, a volunteer management
system was implemented to encourage a positive relationship for volunteers
within the school organization.

In delivering inservice for teachers, we have experimented with the idea of
request/response inservice (Turner, 1976). The basis of this idea is more
closely allied with the agricultural extension agent model, a model which
most of you are familiar with, whereby the agent links the need to the re-
source. In other words, we are using a model which is derived from the
fields of community development and continuing education. A major conceptual
breakthrough became established since finally an inservice model, not a
preservice model, was used in an inservice setting (Turner, Hersh, Arends,
1977).

Some interesting patterns and events are emerging from the application of this
concept. First, teacher associations have become very interested in the po-
tential of the model because it begins with the teacher. Second, a trusted

inservice educator must operate in the school milieu   We have averaged
one request per day where our inservice specialist operates and none where
he does not; even when those schools are in our target service area.
Third, when the diagnosis of need is done by a third party (not the original
client), the resource consultation has proved to be unsatisfactory. Fourth,
approximately 90% of the consultations are done by district personnel and
10% by university consultants. We originally believed the percentages would
be reversed. Fifth, seldom does the need become met in one consultation.
And, sixth, about 1/3 of the requests are programmatic, that is, centered
outside of an individual classroom situation. The concepts and emergent
patterns are becoming significant indications of the future role of train-
ing, not only of teachers mut also those in the service of school and
community. A serious question arises: how can the university and the
community together influence quality training for volunteers and profes-
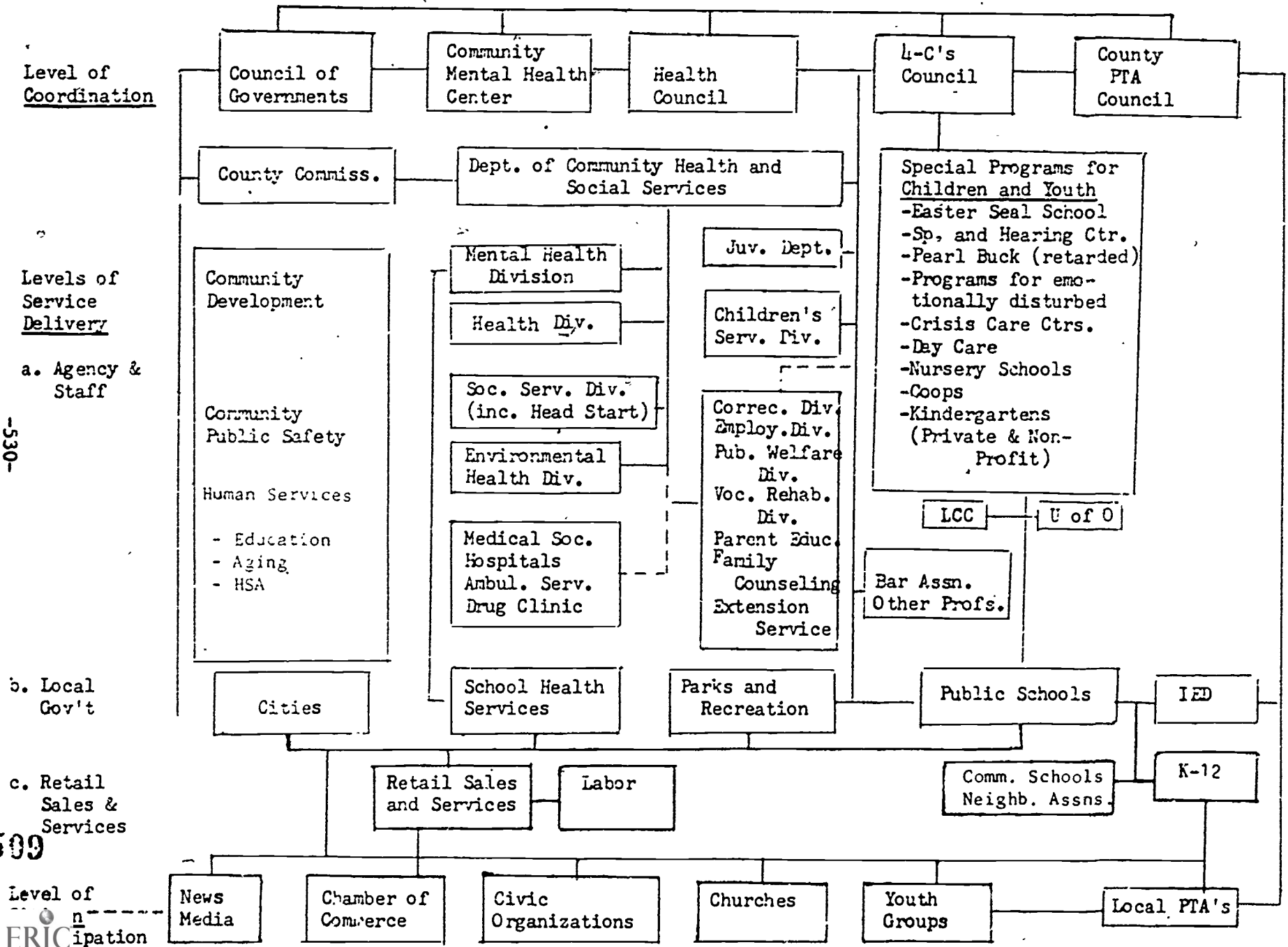sionals in the school-community setting?

SUGGESTIONS AND SUMMARY

In order that a human care partnership exists between the university and
community (See Figure #3), planning, coordination and service delivery
must be integrated. The isolation of citizens from this structure and the
fragmentation of effort is no longer justifiable. We have the conceptual
models and mechanisms to assure an integrated effort (Kutz, 1976, 1977).
The training of volunteers and professionals must emerge out of this
ecological system. The results and experiences of this in-the-service-of-
effort must be fed into the university training program in order that pre-
service training be guided by the nature of inservice training. Because
professionals and volunteers work in school and community settings, the
university experts must be involved in this setting in order that they can
learn what is working and why. This will require the university itself to
internally integrate their own human resources. Only if they can accomplish
this task will human resource students leave with a vision of the whole
and how it may operate. If university and community do not accept this
role, by default volunteers, professionals, and other professionals will look
to community colleges, agencies, and each other for continued education.
Some universities and colleges are already moving toward Colleges of Human
Services in the attempt to capture what is already transpiring in the
client world. Perhaps the most influential role colleges and universities
could take would be to research and develop programs and deliver the programs
which would assist schools and communities wanting to create their own
partnership at what ever level they identified and in doing so would be
capable of creating such a partnership within their own setting.

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L A N E   C O U N T Y   C H I L D   A N D   F A M I L Y   S E R V I C E S
(A Community Communication System)

Level of Coordination

| Council of Governments | Community Mental Health Center | Health Council | 4-C's Council | County PTA Council |

Levels of Service Delivery

a. Agency & Staff

County Commiss.

Dept. of Community Health and Social Services

Community Development

Community Public Safety

Human Services
- Education
- Aging
- HSA

Mental Health Division

Health Div.

Soc. Serv. Div. (inc. Head Start)

Environmental Health Div.

Medical Soc. Hospitals Ambul. Serv. Drug Clinic

Juv. Dept.

Children's Serv. Div.

Correc. Div.
Employ. Div.
Pub. Welfare Div.
Voc. Rehab. Div.
Parent Educ.
Family Counseling
Extension Service

Special Programs for Children and Youth
-Easter Seal School
-Sp, and Hearing Ctr.
-Pearl Buck (retarded)
-Programs for emotionally disturbed
-Crisis Care Ctrs.
-Day Care
-Nursery Schools
-Coops
-Kindergartens (Private & Non-Profit)

LCC   U of O

Bar Assn. Other Profs.

b. Local Gov't

| Cities | School Health Services | Parks and Recreation | Public Schools | IED |

c. Retail Sales & Services

| Retail Sales and Services | Labor | | Comm. Schools Neighb. Assns. | K-12 |

-530-

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Level of Participation

| News Media | Chamber of Commerce | Civic Organizations | Churches | Youth Groups | Local PTA's |

FIGURE #1

PARADIGM OF COMMUNITY RELATIONS PROCESSES AND COMPONENTS

COMMUNITY RELATIONS	COMMUNITY RELATIONS COORDINATION	PROCESSES INTEGRATION	PRESENT EXAMPLES
A. Service Delivery	Developing Services with the Community	Developing Services into the Community	Human Resource Centers, Community Schools
B. Program Development	Facilitating Programs with the Community	Facilitating Programs into the Community	Primary Prevention
C. Citizen Involvement and Communication	Mutual Decision Making with the Community	Collaborative Decision Making into the Community	Neighborhood Assn., Community Schools
D. Planning	Creating with the Community	Creating into the Community	COG'S
E. Consultation and Technical Assistance	Facilitating Program Processes with the Community	Facilitating Program Processes into the Community	Community Service Teams
F. Advocacy	Educating with the Community	Educating into the Community	Broadly Based Commissions, Boards of Directors, or Counci.

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FIGURE #2

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UNIVERSITY OF OREGON/EUGENE SCHOOL DISTRICT
TEACHER CORPS PROJECT 1975-77

Communication and Coordination System

Program Development
and Management
(Project Staff)

Policy Development
(Steering Committee)
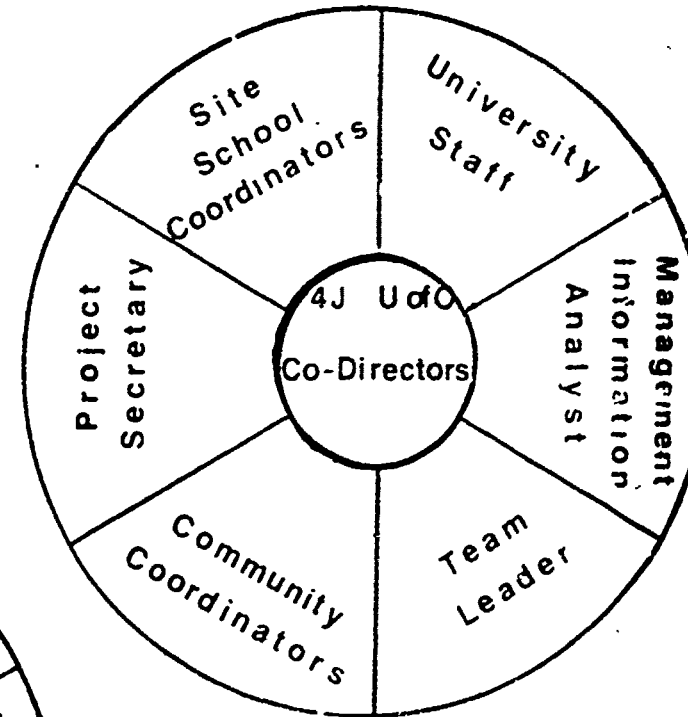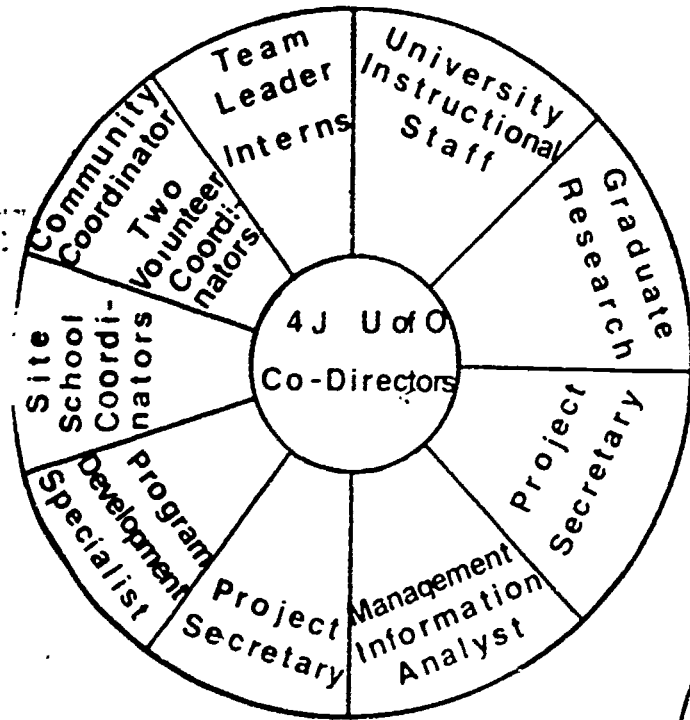
Review and Comment
(Coordinating Council)
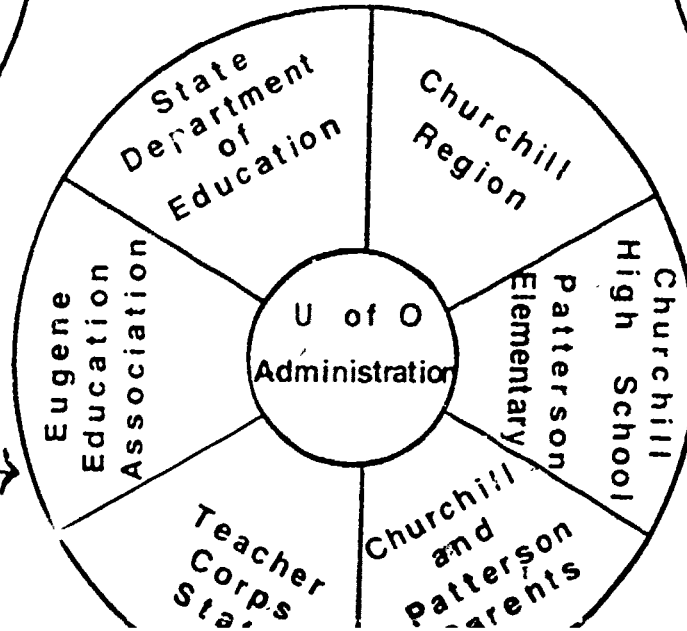
NOTE

(1) ↙ ↘ = Communication/
Coordination

4J Co-Director serves as
Program Development Specialist

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RESPONSIVE INSERVICE - A PRIMER

(The purpose of this primer is to introduce an inservice model which
is very different from the conventional one. If the reader needs more
information call the Teacher Corps Project (687-3522) for copies of
the three papers noted at the end of the paper.)

WHAT IS IT?

The new model inservice proposes to make help available to teachers
in much the same manner that agricultural extension agents consult with
farmers who have a problem. The essential attributes of the new model
are that demand-response time is short, consultation is done on an in-
formal and individual basis, and the life span for each consultation
is negotiable by both the "agent" and the person asking for help.

The mechanism will operate briefly as follows: (1) a staff member
in the Churchill area identifies a problem related to teaching; (2) the
problem is relayed to the Teacher Corps Project whose personnel will
immediately begin searching for an appropriate College of Education
staff member to link up with the District person having the problem;
(3) at the earliest mutually convenient time the two individuals would
meet at the school site. This initial consultation would have one of
several possible outcomes:

(a) The initial meeting produces relief and the consultation termi-
nates.

(b) The initial meeting leads to subsequent meetings, observations,
etc. which other staff members may join.

(c) The initial meeting may balloon into a conventional DCE type
inservice class if both participants concur that the need can
be best met that way.

(d) The entire transaction may be terminated after any meeting if
either party concludes that further consultations would probably
be fruitless. In this event the mechanism could be recycled to
call in a different consultant.

WHO IS DOING IT?

The inservice model is an experiment being funded and conducted by
the University of Oregon - School District 4J Teacher Corps Project.
A coordination committee, composed of Keith Acheson (Project Co-Director),
Martha Harris (Churchill Region Curriculum Specialist), Dick Hersh
(Associate Dean for Teacher Education, University of Oregon), and Jack
Turner (Project Intern Team Leader) will oversee the linkage and coor-
dination. Jack Turner will serve as the primary conduit, clarifying
and linking requests with campus resources. Jim Bavry, a Project mem-
ber located on the campus will handle coordination on the University
side.

The Eugene Teacher Corps Project has as its main focus assisting
school staffs in implementing the Oregon Minimum Standards. Project
members are particularly interested in providing training in the areas
of diagnostic/prescriptive teaching, goal and competency development,
program assessment and community involvement. The new inservice model
would not, however, be limited to inservice in those particular areas.

APPENDIX #1

WHEN WILL IT HAPPEN?

We intend to be in business by the first of February. The experiment will continue functioning until the end of the current school year when an evaluation of its usefulness will take place.

WHERE WILL IT HAPPEN?

Because the Teacher Corps Project is a federal project focusing specifically on Patterson and Churchill High School, our first priority. must be to serve those two schools. As resources allow we will make the service available to all schools in the Churchill attendance area, then perhaps to all schools in the district.

The inservice consultations themselves will be presumed to occur at the school site except where it is apparent that the consultation would be more useful if held elsewhere.

WHAT ARE THE MODEL'S LIMITS?

As indicated above the service will be limited somewhat in its availability to teachers district-wide due to our project focus in the Churchill area. Another limitation implied by our model is that it provides for individually perceived needs only (as opposed to system needs). It does not provide for flying in "name" consultants from distant places, nor is it intended to pay for new programs sought by school staffs. Finally the model is not intended to duplicate or infringe on the inservice efforts currently operating in the district. We recognize the fact that there are many inservice needs being adequately met by the present system. We will communicate with other district inservice agencies and refer needs to them which are not suited to this model.

WHAT ARE THE MODEL'S POTENTIALS?

(1) One-to-one professional consultation on a specific problem which should generate an individualized and specific response.

(2) Rapid response to expressed needs of teachers.

(3) Increased relations between U of O staff and 4J staff.

(4) Increased awareness of each other's settings by both University and District staffs.

(5) Possibility of reciprocal inservicing between the University and District.

Responsive Inservice - A Primer

EXPLANATORY PAPERS

(1) "Open Letter to the Dean on Inservice Education" by Bill
Drummond, University of Florida, March 3, 1976. (Drummond
is the source of the extension agent model in this twenty-
two page letter which does an excellent job of identifying
the problems arising from the inservice mechanism as pre-
sently conceptualized.)

(2) "Inservice: Needs Assessments, Academic Freedom and the
Six O'Clock News" by Jack Turner, Eugene Teacher Corps Pro-
ject, November, 1976. (This short paper attacks the value
of needs assessments, the cumbersome nature of conventional
inservice, and advocates for their replacement by the exten-
sion agent model.)

(3) "Charter of Churchill Area Teacher Corps Inservice Coordina-
tion Committee", January, 1977. (This charter details such
things as who is eligible for consultation, acceptable
sources of consultants, the mechanism and how it will oper-
ate, and limitations on the experiment.)

VOLUNTEERING AS A TEAM
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Champlain College Burlington, Vermont

Two programs within the Community Services Division at Champlain College in Burlington, Vermont, are based on the philosophy that combining academic work with on-the-job experience enhances the student-learning process. Students in both the early childhood and social services programs spend time each semester volunteering in schools and agencies to further their own knowledge and further the efforts of teachers, counselors, and social workers.

This is not unique. Most education and social work programs involve both academic work and field experience. What is somewhat unique is ~ur method of combining theory and practice for our early childhood students. I would like to describe that method and also to suggest its application to other fields of education and training.

The initial course in early childhood education, Observing and Recording Behavior, finds all twenty-five freshmen working in our campus child care center. Students work in groups of four or five spending one-half day per week interacting with these three, four and five year olds. As a team they may be assigned specific tasks such as recording the number of times children use the block area or the amount of running between interest areas, planning mid-morning snack, organizing a walk around the neighborhood, or designing a new toy or game and evaluating its use with children. This initial experience is organized with guidelines and specific goals. Students are not left totally to their own devices to meet the needs of the young children. However, it is each student's unique experience that provides the framework for child development theory.

The inductive approach is emphasized. Rather than starting with general principles of child development and applying these principles to actual situations, we start with real "hands-on" experiences and their involvement with children. Hypotheses regarding the causes of behavior are generated through active involvement with children and their parents. Gathering data and evaluating its implications on the original hypothesis makes child development theorists out of each freshman student. "Learning by doing" is emphasized throughout the experience.

As the college supervisor of the child development team, I can discuss individual children's behavior knowing all students have a common frame of reference. A variety of approaches to understanding and evaluating behavior is encouraged. Once the behavior is observed, recorded and discussed we can proceed to the ideas of some of the "experts" in the field. Piaget, Erikson and Montessori seem much more relevant when their approaches can be compared with the students' own. It is exciting for me to observe students questioning these authorities in light of their own observations.

Members of this child development team grow both individually and collectively. Self-confidence is built up in the small team approach. Such confidence can later be applied in the weekly total-group seminar. The reticent freshman may have valid and relevant ideas but hesitate to share them with a large group. The cohesiveness and support of five or six encourages each to share and express opinions.

Strengths are supported and weaknesses are often overcome with team members' help. The sharing of a morning's observations certainly furthers communication skills--both verbal and written. When a student's written records are not clear or objectively stated, a fellow student's constructive criticism brings greater results than my red pen. Providing verbal arguments for one's position develops both self-confidence and self-esteem.

The logistics of this approach are quite simple. Twenty-five students are divided into five or six groups which plan and work together one-half day per week in the child development center. A team conference is held with the college supervisor every other week and individual conferences are held every three weeks. Conferences are used for evaluating each day's activities, discussion of children's behavior, and planning future activities in relation to the behavior observed. Total class seminars are held once a week for a three-hour period. Close student-supervisor contact is maintained throughout the semester. Textbook theory is presented during the seminars as specific aspects of child development are observed and discussed. Responsibility for basic child development theory is not left to the student. The supervisor must generate discussion in areas that may not be evident to students.

Along with teaching the weekly seminar and leading team and individual conferences, I also plan some model micro-teaching units with the young children. Video-taping my own activities with the young children provides much of the support for my suggested methods of dealing with behavior. Such tapes can also be used in discussing individual children's behavior. My approach often does not bring the best results. Student suggestions and comments on their college instructor's behavior may be novel. College freshmen are not often given this opportunity or this responsibility--for with criticism must come some positive suggestions for change.

This initial semester is followed by three more which may or may not include teams of students working together. Some students are now capable and anxious to work on their own. Others may need or simply prefer the team approach. However, the foundation has been set. Students have begun in a safe, comfortable environment which builds self-confidence and responsibility to others.

The team approach is beneficial to the student, the college supervisor and to the client being served. I believe this approach is applicable to situations beyond the early childhood setting.

Twenty students studying the aging process in a Psychology or Human Development course could immediately apply information gained from textbooks and lectures to volunteer work in a nursing home or home for the aged. The college instructor would provide the framework within which students could learn about the needs, concerns and problems of the aged directly from the aged themselves.

One of the most misunderstood life stages could be experienced first-hand. The reluctance of some to directly work with "old, senile people" might be lessened somewhat by the team's support.

Last semester one of our most vocal, outspoken seniors at Champlain
had accepted a volunteer assignment at a private nursing home in Burlington.
Her goals included visiting two elderly residents on a regular basis.
Initial reaction was quite negative and was openly expressed in the team
conference and the weekly seminar. Her strong negative feeling toward close
contact with the aged raised many questions for the supervisor. On her first
visit to the patients' room she broke into tears recognizing her own grand-
mother in one of the ladies. After some time it was learned that her
grandmother had died in a home similar to this one. She wanted to overcome
her strong feelings but needed support. The supervisor and her classmates
provided that support. On her weekly visit she left notes to the resident
supervisor ranging from, "I could only take it for ten minutes today" to
"I was here for two hours; I deserve a gold star!" The semester is now over
and the girl continues to visit her friends in this nursing home. Responsi-
bility was developed through the student's own action. She has gained greater
understanding of the aging process, institutional care; and perhaps most
important of all, a greater understanding of herself. This might not have
been achieved without the support of the supervisor and her classmates.

Other types of institutions could certainly benefit from team efforts.
Elementary and secondary schools continue to need extra help in classrooms.
Often, however, student volunteers become confused and frustrated due to
a lack of organization in their efforts. A college supervisor acting as
on-site coordinator could alleviate many of the school's problems and further
the efforts of the student volunteers. Communication among the college,
the student and the participating institution is direct and open. Daily
and weekly review sessions enable the student to evaluate his performance
and set realistic goals.

Medical hospitals, institutions for the mentally ill, retarded and
emotionally disturbed, as well as housing developments and recreational
programs also seek the assistance of concerned volunteers. Such field
locations are not only within the bounds of social work or education pro-
grams however.

A team field experience in such places for students in sociology,
psychology, political science or economics courses would certainly add a
great deal to the usual lecture and textbook. Knowledge in these areas
is applied on a first-hand basis. Students learn as they build communi-
cation skills. Students increase their own self-confidence and sense of
responsibility as they become better community citizens. The college
supervisor becomes involved in an area where he or she is also challenged
and required to try new approaches to teaching. The trite statement that
one should "practice what one preaches" is realized fully when college
instructors get out of the classroom and into community service work.

It may seem that this team approach is limited to colleges located
in large urban areas. This is not true. I would like to conclude my
remarks by suggesting two ways colleges can utilize this approach without
necessarily needing large cooperating institutions.

First, students could meet the needs of people in individual settings
and then bring their observations and records back to a team conference
for discussion and evaluation. A couple of examples--accounting students
could organize a free income tax service to citizens in their community.
Classroom learning would be applied directly as students gain self-confidence,
and learn how to deal with people effectively. Nursing or home economic
students could provide nutritional information to expectant parents
and/or families. Home visits in student teams would provide support and
valuable information could be gained first hand on family relationships
and food buying habits. These are just two examples. I am sure you can
think of others. Citizens in our communities have unmet need. Perhaps
the college community can help satisfy some of these needs by designing
their own volunteer programs on an individual basis.

Secondly, I would suggest that colleges establish their own facility,
institution or program to meet an unmet community need.

Two years ago, Champlain College established a Community Education
ACCESS Center to provide counseling and career information to adults in
Burlington. Staff for this center came from the secretarial, social work
and early childhood programs. Team effort was most important. Caring
for an infant while a mother took an interest inventory, helping a high
school dropout type his resume, and building group communication skills
were just some of the tasks organized by students with the aid of the
Center's director. The Center continues to grow in its service to adults
in Burlington. The students continue to grow in their first-hand experi-
ences with people in need. Learning does not benefit the learner only.
It is a reciprocal relationship when the student, the instructor and the
client all grow from the field experience.

Other programs could be developed--youth programs, summer recreational
programs, family counseling centers, after school activity centers,
informational and counseling centers, and educational resource centers.
The possibilities are limited only by the imagination, creativity and
flexibility of students, instructors and clients in need of service.

These are two ideas that could be tried in areas that do not contain
large cooperating institutions.

Volunteering as a team is one approach to enriching student and
faculty growth and development. It has worked at Champlain College and
continues to add strength to our programs there. It may be an approach
some of you might wish to develop.

FORMS AND FORMALIZATION OF VOLUNTEERISM: AN HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE

Charles G. Tildon, Jr. and James C. Thomson, Jr.
Maryland Service Corps

As practitioners in the field of volunteerism, rather than academicians, our interests are somewhat different, and our perceptions can be assumed to be more subjective and visceral, than those of a social scientist·or an historian.

With these constraints in mind, therefore, we hope to illuminate the present and future of volunteerism, and some roles of the university within it. From our vantage point in this final quarter of the 20th Century — and the first quarter of the nation's third century, we propose to review the forms of volunteerism which were normative in each of the three major socio-economic eras of our nation's history; the Agrarian Age — which preceded the substantive and ubiquitous impact of the Industrial Revolution; the Industrial Age — which was the fulfillm. of that Revolution; and the Technological Age — which is the infant cι. d of the Post World Ward II Technological Revolution. Our purpose is to seek to identify at least some of the primary sources of the ferment and conflicting viewpoints which are characteristic of volunteerism today.

Our primary interest, and the focus of this paper, is volunteers; defined as individuals who of their own free will provide personal service to other identifiable individuals and communities. This is a much narrower focus than that of others whose interest includes the origins, nature, and functioning of voluntary associations — like churches and veterans organizations, as well as voluntary political, environmental, and consumer action movements and groups. For the purpose of this paper, we·are also excluding voluntary service on boards and committees.

Nevertheless, our narrower focus is quite broad, encompassing three types of volunteer service which we define as follows:

1. The first we call "Neighborly Helping". These acts of service are typified by those numerous instances of direct helpfulness among kinsmen, neighbors, and strangers. Generally, these acts are unrecorded and frequently anonymous; ranging from the simple response to a stranger's request for the time of day, to preparing food for a neighbor on the occasion of death in the family, to helping a friend pack and move to a new home. This type of volunteering is rooted in the Agrarian Age.

2. For a second type of volunteer service we use the more technical label, Mediated-Restricted: "mediated" to indicate that volunteer service is rendered through an agency or organization, and "restricted" to denote that the volunteer, the agency, and the recipients of the service belong

to the same population group. In this category
are numerous mutual aid associations established
at various times during the Industrial Age by
ethnic, racial, economic, religious, social, and
other sub-populations to care for their own. The
early days of the Hibernian Society and the NAACP
are examples of organizations covered by this type
of volunteerism. The Girl Scouts, however, which
serve a population group defined by age and sex,
come under our third type.

3. This we call, Mediated-Universal, and is the type
we believe most frequently comes to mind when the
term "Volunteerism" is used today. The Universal
type covers the more or less organized programs
operated by or for a host of public and private
agencies and institutions. This is the primary
arena of professional volunteer coordinators and
administrators, Volunteer Bureaus, and Voluntary
Action Centers, who recruit volunteers from the
public-at-large to serve in hospitals, schools,
libraries, and multitudes of other human service
agencies. It may be argued that there are two
types of Mediated-Universal volunteerism; one
which had its origins as a private movement in
the Industrial Age, and a newer public form which
was born in the Technological Age. We choose
to link them as a single type, however, because
though their distinctinve origins are a major
.ource of current tension, they are also moving
toward greater coherence and cohesion.

During the more than 300 years between the settlement of the early
Colonies and the beginning of the Nation's third century in 1976, Ameri-
can society has undergone phenomenal changes. Until recent times, the
single most influential engine of social and cultural change was the de-
velopment and diversification of the machine; an essentially reliable
substitute for human and animal muscle power.

The Industrial Revolution significantly impacted on virtually every
social institution, past and present. It gave birth to some — such as
labor unions; brought extinction or near extinction to others — such as
the family farm; and changed the appearance, if not the essence, of scores
of others. Of particular interest to us here is its impact on three in-
stitutions which have survived; volunteerism, the family, and the univer-
sity. Each of these institutions was affected in different ways and to
different degrees by industrialization.

In the 18th Century and earlier, the typical American volunteer was
not known as a "volunteer", and by today's standards, did not act like a
volunteer. He or she — and frequently he and she together — were sim-

ply helpful neighbors. The typical American family were farmers; members
of a close-knit face-to-face community centered around a small village
or town.

Except for the occasional physician and teacher and circuit-riding Prea-
cher there was nothing analogous to what we now call "service delivery sys-
tems". The vast majority of human needs were met within the family — which
frequently encompassed several households. Catastrophies like fires, floods,
epidemics and other major needs were met by the whole community, as typi-
fied, for example, by "barn raisings" among the Amish and other Pennsyl-
vania German religious sects.

The farm was a basic economic unit for both the family and society as
a whole. It was operated and maintained by the manual labor of all able-
bodied members of the family. The basic rhythm of life and ordering of
activities was governed by the Sun and the Seasons; a system of governance
which provided families and communities with a great deal of flexibility
for meeting the needs of family members, neighbors, and strangers.

These early rural communities were generally homogeneous because they
tended to be settlements of people from a common homeland, of a common
language and faith, — and in most places, without significant distinctions
of caste or class. Birth, death, sickness, baptism, and marriage were com-
munity events; with almost everyone performing some kind of supportive role.

For the very reason that "neighborly helping" was a totally integrated
element in the fabric of the Agrarian Age, and not conceptually distinct,
we cannot really speak of an interfacing between the University and Volun-
teerism at that point in our history. In addition to the fact that this
kind of neighborliness went on among students and faculty in the small,
private, and often church-related colleges, the curriculum generally was
oriented toward the "helping" professions; preparing students for subse-
quent apprenticeship for the Ministry, Medicine, Law, and Education.
Therefore, whether in the village or the campus, life was personal, essen-
tially stable, and place-oriented.

In the 19th Century, and progressively expanding through the mid-20th,
all this underwent change, at first subtle, and then substantial. With the
development of mining, which stoked the fires of the Industrial Revolution,
work became less and less a family affair, and a family's livelihood was
increasingly based upon productive activity separated from the home. Even-
tually the hub of American society moved from the farm to the factory. The
close-knit and seamless fabric of rural life became tattered. Gaps developed
between human needs and the abilities of family and community to meet those
needs under the old forms of neighborliness.

Understandably, we believe, the early non-relationship between cloistered
higher education and the rest of society continued for a time after the In-
dustrial Revolution began to impact on agrarian America. As colleges were
communities of though rather than labor, they were affected indirectly rather
than directly by the labor-saving machine. But clearly, these indirect effects
were substantial; most notably in a dramatically expanded view of the occu-

pational ends of education and a corresponding growth of <u>public</u> higher edu-
cation. Through the Morrill Act (Land Grant) of 1862, it became national
policy to encourage State governments to focus on higher education, so as to
stimulate the development of the "agricultural and mechanical arts".

As industrialization gained momentum, the earlier homogeneity of place
was gradually superceded by the heterogeneity of urbanization — an end
product of industrial growth, immigration from Europe and the Orient, and
transmigration within America.

In the midst of this social and cultural turbulence, <u>organized volun-
teerism was born.</u> Because we are neither professional historians nor social
scientists, it is not clear to us whether the Restricted and Universal types
developed concurrently, or whether one preceded the other. We tend to be-
lieve they developed at more or less the same time because they were re-
sponses to different but coexisting conditions.

As ports and other cities of commerce became centers of industry, immi-
grants from Europe and the Orient, and migrants from rural areas expanded
the urban population. Language, religion, and color were three primary
factors which determined where people lived and the kind of work they could
get. The greatest options were available to the white English-speaking
newcomers who were already integrated in the established culture. By choice
born of necessity, however, East Europeans, Scandinavians, English-speaking
Catholics, and others settled in ethnic enclaves where they organized a
variety of mutual aid associations, such as the Hibernian Society which was
founded in 1853. A somewhat similar pattern developed among blacks; a grow-
ing number of whom migrated from the rural South. But there was a difference.
In many instances black urban settlements were established, not by choice
born of necessity, but by necessity born of law. Several cities established
black territories by local ordinance.[1]

At the same time, however, in addition to the problems and solutions
which were internal to these population groups, urban society-at-large was
developing educational, recreational, and welfare needs which could no longer
be met in the home or neighborhood. The latter half of the 19th and early
20th Centuries was the period when well-known contemporary national volunteer
organizations were formed; such as the Red Cross, the YM and YWCA, and the
Girl Scouts and Boy Scouts. And while the Hibernian Society and the NAACP
were established to serve the needs of their own brethren, the universal
type of volunteerism was organized to serve strangers; people whose eligi-
bility for receiving services was based simply on need.

Like industrial society itself, volunteerism became a creature of the
time machine, the clock. In the mine and factory temporal flexibility was

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[1]John Hope Franklin, <u>From Slavery to Freedom,</u> (New York, Alfred A.
Knopf, 1967), p. 436

radically dimished. From a nation of self-employed farmers and small entre-
preneurs, whose day began with the Sun and the Cock's crow, we became a na-
tion of employers and employees, regulated by the clock and the factory
whistle.

Our concern here is not to list the organized progeny of volunteerism,
nor to elaborate on the wide range of services they were established to per-
form. Rather, we wish to emphasize that these responses to human need were
organized to tap the neighborly attitudes and helping instincts of people
during non-working hours.

The modern concept of volunteerism developed as a corollary of the con-
cepts of "spare time" and "leisure time" (Parenthetically, it may also be
said that volunteer service was seen as "non-work"). And because the Indus-
trial Revolution produced a more clearly identifiable class system based on
income, and a new societal group — the Middle-Class, the typical American
Volunteer of the Industrial Age continues to be the non-employed Middle-
Class homemaker.[2] She represented the primary social group for whom the
use of time remained most flexible. To be sure, though she had more "feee
time" than many others, she, too, could be flexible only within the time
constraints of a society in which the education of her children was a matter
of law, and mealtime was determined — however indirectly, by company po-
licy. In other words, there were times when she had to be at home. There
were legions of others, of course — men, women, youth —who performed
voluntary service after work or after school; but the Middle-Class homemaker
was most typical.

One partial exception to this was to be found on the American college
campus. During the Industrial Age a more overt relationship began to emerge
between higher education and organized volunteerism. With perhaps the single
exception of the Cooperative Extension Service, however, the relationship
was essentially informal and extra-curricular.

For many generations college and university students, with the support
of individual faculty and other members of the campus community — such as
YM and YW Secretaries and College Chaplains, have been extensively involved
in providing volunteer service to many populations in need beyond the campus.
Because learning was seen to be the primary work of students, however, most
student volunteer service was performed on weekends. And though they were
not homemakers, as higher education was predominantly private, and enrollment
was small by current standards, even on the campus organized universal volun-
teerism was a Middle-Class phenomenon. It was performed by those who could
afford it.

During the Industrial Age, this was the normative pattern of the link
between Volunteerism and the University until as recently as the 1950's.

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[2]U.S., ACTION, Americans Volunteer - 1974, a Statistical Study of Volun-
teers in the United States, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office,
1975), p.3

As an institution, the University did little to accommodate student interest in volunteer service beyond a general accommodation to a varied range of extra-curricular clubs, programs, and Greek letter societies.

The decade of the Fifties was the beginning of the twilight period of transition from the Industrial to the Technological Age. The foundations of the Industrial Revolution had been laid over the centuries in the academic centers of Europe. Therefore, while American higher education contributed to its growth, it had nothing to do with the birth of industry. In the case of the Technological Revolution, however, American higher education had a great deal to do with its birth.

Historians tend to agree that the beginnings of the Age of Technology are tied to the development of Radar and the Atomic Bomb in the mid-Forties. To use an image of Marshall McLuhan,3 as the machine was an "extension" of man's arm, the electron and atomic particle were "extensions" of his mind; and this is the work of the university.

Before the end of this century's sixth decade, history's most nearly global war had ended, the United Nations Organization was founded, a new generation of servicemen died in Korea, the Supreme Court ruled that segregated education was unequal, the jet aircraft engine was in commercial use, the U.S.S.R. launched Sputnik, college enrollment began to climb, and American college students were labled "Silent".

Then, in 1960, some of you may remember that dramatic change in behavior when the "Silent Generation" literally changed their appearance overnight from campus to campus across the land. They were responding to what then was no more than an idea presented to a Michigan college audience by Presidential Candidate John F. Kennedy — the idea of a Corps for Peace.

This was a time when many traditional barriers — which represented both bondage and security — were falling; barriers of time and space and custom and law. As the world grew smaller, there was a growing sense of greater responsibility and interdependence in what came to be seen as a global village.

Having been silent, perhaps, out of a sense of helplessness and ineptitutde in the face of such foundation shaking, the notion of a Peace Corps, and then the development of the program, gave students and others a handle for action. But the Peace Corps could not contain the scope of the enthusiasm for change-oriented voluntary action and volunteerism; it flooded out to help carry the Civil Rights movement and related movements of the Sixties.

3Marshall McLuhan, Understanding Media, (New York, McGraw-Hill, 1964).

Like our society itself, volunteerism is still in this period of transition, of ferment, and conflicting viewpoints. There are some, for example, who identify the origin of organized volunteerism with the founding of the Peace Corps.[4] As we have tried to show, organized volunteerism was born a century earlier. What happended in the early Sixties was that the organized universal type of volunteerism went public. And in less than two decades, Government-sponsored or supported volunteerism has been replicated in many nations, as well as in many states and municipalities in America. In addition to this record of growth, however, we believe there are other significant factors which deserve more attention than they have received.

As practitioners, one of the things we hear is that certain of today's minorities — especially blacks — do not participate extensively in volunteerism. There is ample historical and contemporary evidence that Neighborly Helping is at least as endemic among blacks, Chicanos, and American Indians as among any other minority or majority. There is also extensive evidence that these minorities have learned survival skills at least as well as others, and over the years have operated their own intra-group volunteer programs. What is true is that until government stepped into the field of volunteerism, the organized universal type was essentially closed to these minorities.

With the advent of a sense of identity and kinship based on wealth during the Industrial Age, there developed also a sense of difference between the providers of service — the volunteers, and the recipients of service. Much current volunteer literature still speaks of the "haves" and the "have nots". But this is a distinction which is not operative in Neighborly Helping, nor was it operative within the Mediated-Restricted form. It appears that these were labels coined by the dominant, essentially Middle-Class, society. The Universal form of volunteerism was for those who could afford it. And in spite of its altruistic intentions, it shared in the colonialist attitude and paternalistic values of that period of American and Western Civilization.

Whereas blacks were among the earliest and continuous migrants to the cities of the North and West — a migration closely associated with industrialization, their extended geographic and social isolation was not analogous to the socio-economic circumstances of a group of alien settlers in a strange environment. It was the result of cultural and legal sanctions of American society.

Over the years U.S. Census data have indicated that as blacks became urbanized, levels of education and family income increased. What the data does not show is that frequently, as in the Agrarian Age, it took all able-bodied members of the family to produce the income which on a statistical basis, may compare favorably with non-black families whose income is pro-

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[4]U.S., ACTION, Report of the International Conference on Volunteer Service, Vienna, Austria, June 27 - July 2, 1976, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1976, Introduction)

duced by one employed member. And aside from the fact that black Middle-Class income has always been lower than that of the white Middle-Class, even having equivalent income did not mean they had the same equality of opportunity to choose to become fully integrated into the Industrial Age society and culture. In certain respects, therefore, while learning to survive as residents of northern industrial centers, even to the extent that some of them prospered, the values and style of the black family continued to be rooted in the Agrarian Age.

In a sense, we believe, because American society in the Industrial Age passed blacks by, in terms of their relationship to the universal type of volunteerism, American blacks have skipped an entire era. Organized universal type volunteerism did not become a genuine option for blacks and other minorities until volunteerism went _public_ after the Technological Age had already begun.

In the Agrarian Age, identity and kinship were rooted in geography. With industrialization, who you were became a matter of wealth or the lack of it. And in the Age which was introduced by the Atomic Bomb, the identity of persons, communities and nations — as well as the relationships of each, is a matter of power. In the 1960's life became more broadly politicized. Many persons, groups, and nations who still tend to be viewed as "have nots" demonstrated an unprecedented ability to control their own destinies and to impact on the formerly secure realms of the "haves".

You may view the creation of the Peace Corps as altruistic, self-serving, or somewhere in between. But political interpretations not-withstanding, with the creation of the Peace Corps a national government was responding to the notion that despite the differences and conflicts which divide the world, we are all residents of a global village in which the uncontrolled or irresponsible release or exercise of power could spell disaster.

In conclusion, then let us briefly cite some of the features and effects of this new form of volunteerism as it coexists with the continuing earlier forms.

Overall, governmental action changed the composition and broadened the purpose of universal volunteerism. These changes, in turn, have transformed volunteerism's style, expanded its objectives, and have eroded its "leisure time" definition.

1. As already noted, these new public programs opened the door of universal volunteerism to those who had been excluded. They made it affordable to segments of society who, during the Industrial Age, did not have access to the subsidy of private wealth; the poor, the young, the elderly, minorities, and others.

2. Secondly, as a reflection of technology, which is the art of _how_ we do things, volunteers were enlisted to

solve problems rather than to simply meet needs. The primary purpose shifted from caretaking to develop- ment, and much recruitment and placement focused on specialist rather than generalist skills.

3. Thirdly, though volunteers had special talents and skills, there was a deliverate effort to avoid earlier paternalis- tic styles by training volunteers to serve as equals, if not subordinates, to the recipients of their service.

4. Fourth, as a result of this egalit--ian style, it was discovered that volunteers gained while they gave. In addition to making it possible for us now to recognize that volunteers have always had a self-interest, volun- teerism now openly includes among its objectives a variety of values for the volunteer.

5. And finally, because the government-sponsored programs were for full-time limited term service, it has begun to emerge as an alternative to employment and schooling, rather than as a leisure-time, after-work, or after- school option. Private industry itself has begun to provide "sabbatical" time for employees who wish to per- form volunteer service.

Given this picture, then, what of the roles of the university?

What had been an essentially informal and extra-curricular relationship between the University and Volunteerism in the Industrial Age, has now become formal and curricular — as evidenced by this conference.

This change, like public volunteerism itself, has been facilitated by the infusion of public money in both public and private higher education for such purposes as social scientific research, Continuing Education and Alternative Education.

It is all to the good that the intellectual resources of our society, which are concentrated in our colleges and universities, have the opportu- nity to add to our knowledge of volunteerism. From our perspective as practitioners, however, we see three weaknesses in the way higher educa- tion impacts on the current state of the art.

1. First, we do not perceive a system of research priorities related to volunteerism as a body of knowledge. We do not know, but we suspect, that much social scientific research related to volunteerism is a part of a different frame of reference. For example, Aging, or Unemployment, or the Nature of Organization. In other words, a research project on elderly volunteers, for example, may be one study among many others which include the health

of the elderly, income of the elderly, remarriage among the elderly, and other factors which have nothing to do with volunteerism.

2. Secondly, for a number of reasons which need not be gone into here, one impact of the Technological Revolution has been to lower the priority of one of the traditional roles of the University : namely, to be the critic of the contemporary age. Therefore, we believe what we have attempted to do in this paper is what the university should be doing. There is a need for Historians of volunteerism who could help to identify issues for research which could have early utility for practitioners.

3. Finally, then, it seems to us that while Departments and Institutes of Continuing Education have been increasingly providing educational opportunities for practitioners like us, we believe there is a glut of training in administration. Here, too, we believe, is another example of technological fall-out. Because Technology introduced the concepts of systems analysis and management, a body of knowledge and techniques were developed which are now being applied to any number of institutional and organizational fields. We believe we practitioners could benefit from additional subjects in a continuing education format; such as Changing Roles of Volunteers, and presentations of the results of various research projects and comparative analysis. In other words, we believe there is an overemphasis on questions of "How to", and an underemphasis on "What", "Why", and "Who".

We find volunteerism to be a significant, valuable, and exciting field. Like other institutions, change in the past came slowly. In a time of rapid change, however, we believe a long view can provide a perspective and a sense of direction which will help us keep our feet, as well as our heads.

The Professional Preparation of Practicing Voluntary Action Leaders:

A Role for the University

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Introduction

Whenever any service performed repeatedly in society gains formal recognition as a specific and specialized occupation, practitioners of the occupation and persons who benefit from its practice become concerned with the educational preparation and competencies which practitioners require to fulfill their professional obligations. Volunteer administration is now emerging as an occupation with its own distinctive professional status. As Harriet Naylor (1975, p. 2) described the situation: "A special function, volunteer administration, is a new career option attracting altruistic, able people who need professional level education to perfect a philosophy, a body of knowledge and discipline to apply skills effectively and ethically."

Universities have a potentially important role in the professional preparation of practicing volunteer administrators, though the exact nature of that role has yet to be clearly defined. Some needs, possibilities, and potential problems pertaining to the professional education and development of volunteer administrators through university graduate programs are discussed in this paper.

Perspectives on the Professional Education of Volunteer Administrators

That volunteer administrators need educational preparation--both for career entry and continuing education--is not generally questioned, but the kind of education and development they need and the appropriate delivery systems and professional certification they require are open issues. Many persons in the field of volunteerism advise against creating a specialized degree program in volunteer administration, either because they feel that too little information is available about volunteer administration as an occupational practice to warrant such a far-reaching step or because they believe that programs for volunteer administrators should be interdisciplinary in nature. What seems to be clear is that volunteer administrators are not attracted to traditional college curricula which they believe are inappropriate to their learning needs.

In the past few years, several studies and conferences have been focused on the educational needs of volunteer administrators. In 1976, the National Learning Resources Center conducted the most recent and comprehensive study, the findings of which need to be reviewed seriously by universities as they consider developing curriculum offerings in volunteer administration. The study offered these insights:

1. Volunteer administrator, perceived their most important learning needs to be (1) training volunteers, (2) management, administration, and supervision of volunteers and volunteer programs, and (3) recruitment of volunteers.

2. The volunteer administrators surveyed identified their major learning objective as the acquisition of knowledge itself; they were interested in preparing themselves to do a better job, Forty-five per cent of the respondents stated this as their learning goal. Only 20 per cent expected to get a more challenging and better paying job as a result of their learning; 18 per cent wanted an academic degree or certification.

3. Of those who were interested in earning a degree, 41 per cent of the administrators surveyed preferred a generic degree in administration, and 32 per cent wanted a specialized degree in volunteer administration.

4. The preferred learning modalities were, first, one-day workshops within driving distance of home and, second, accessible, inexpensive or free information services on demand.

College and university efforts to meet the educational needs of volunteer administrators are usually of four types: (1) associate of arts degree programs, (2) certificate programs, (3) non-credit workshops, and (4) credit courses in voluntary leadership. Graduate programs in volunteer administration are presently beginning to be developed.

The growing recognition of the professional nature of volunteer administration is reflected in the career ladder for volunteer administrators in the Department of Labor's Directory of Occupational Titles. The highest step in the ladder is the Director of Volunteer Services; the qualifications for this position call for experience equivalent to a masters degree plus administrative or supervisory experience.

If the status of volunteer administration as an occupationl practice is to be advanced, considerably more attention should be directed to graduate levels of educational development, i.e., to professional education. Professional education for practicing volunteer administrators goes beyond the "how-to-do" level of training given to assist persons to perform specific functions within specific agencies. Persons trained at this level contribute services but are seldom able to advance an occupational practice toward professional recognition.

Professional education for practicing volunteer administrators involves systematic study and skill development in three major areas. First, the volunteer administrator acquires familiarity with the knowledge base of volunteer administration, competency in the application of knowledge to specific problems and in the synthesis and production of knowledge. Second, volunteer administrators study the normative aspects of volunteer administration, the rationale for and the social

significance of the service provided, the value system which supports
volunteerism, and the ethics of professional practice. The normative
dimension of professional practice is derived from a study of the
historical, philosophical, social, economic, and political facets of
volunteerism. Third, volunteer administrators study systematically the
art of practice and enhance competencies through examination of
problems of practice, through simulations and through various forms
of action learning on the job.

Universities which respond to the need for professional education
should approach this task with caution; additional research and
synthesis of present research is needed. A fuller picture of volunteer
administration as an occupational practice needs to be developed,
including analyses of the specific tasks which volunteer administrators
perform and the competencies which these tasks require.

Some competencies can be acquired through courses offered by academic
departments such as business administration, educational administration,
adult/continuing education, sociology, urban planning, among others.
As yet unresolved is the question of which university academic unit
should assume responsibility for the development and management of
programs in volunteer administration. Programs could, with justification,
be located in business administration, urban planning, adult/continuing
education, and other academic units. Applications of the knowledge
base of these disciplines may need to be made specific to volunteer
administration; new courses or learning experiences pertaining to
the theory and practice of volunteer administration may need to be
developed.

A Case Study: The Virginia Tech Experience

In response to requests from volunteer administrators in the greater
Roanoke, Virginia area for responsible professional training and
development within an academic context, the Adult/Continuing Education
Program Area of the College of Education at Virginia Tech developed
and delivered three graduate courses in Volunteer Management and
Training, one course in each of three quarters of the 1976-77 academic
year. Several planning meetings were held in advance of the first
course to identify specific needs and preferences of potential students.
Informal assessments were made of the degree of interest that such a
volunteer curriculum would elicit. From these planning sessions a
series of tentative course topics were developed and later revised.

Students were recruited by a simple, inexpensive course announcement
which was sent to a mailing list of a thousand persons associated with
public or private voluntary agencies who were identified by the
Coordinator of the Roanoke Voluntary Action Center. The Coordinator
had a strong personal and professional commitment to seeing a graduate
level seminar offered, and she invested considerable personal energy
in planning the program and promoting it once it was scheduled.

To be eligible for enrollment, students were required to be admitted
to the VPI & SU Graduate School. About twenty persons were ultimately
involved in this training program. A stable core of about 11 students
was enrolled in the curriuclum for all three academic quarters.
Students were permitted to enroll for only one course, if they desired;
they were not asked to commit themselves for all three courses.
For this three course sequence, topics were organized into nine
modules, and three modules were taught during each course. The
modules contained these topics: (1) the management process, (2) styles
of leadership, decision making. and problem solving, (3) organizational
structure and climate, (4) the volunteer movement: historical and
sociological perspectives, (5) public relations, image building, and
marketing the concept of volunteerism, (6) recruitment, job design,
and orien'...i procedures, (7) motivating volunteers and sustaining
commitment,   training volunteers and professionals who use volunteers,
and (9) funding: sources of support; budgeting; and costs of using
volunteers.

The bjectives of this series of training events were to assist
participants * . in knowledge, understanding, attitudes, and skills
pertaining   ral aspects of volunteer management and training.
Specifically, participants were assisted to achieve several major
objectives: (1) skills in managing volunteer systems, (2) skills in
designing and conducting volunteer programs, (3) skills in marketing
volunteerism, and (4) understanding the volunteer movement in the
United States.

Of the students who participated in this new curriculum, sixty four
per cent had never been enrolled in a graduate level course before
their involvement with this program. Four students enrolled in the
program had previously done graduate work; one had completed a masters
degree. Having these courses focused directly on volunteer management
and training and within short driving distance of home and work apparently
served as the stimulus for the majority of these students to enroll in
graduate courses at this time. However, as the experimental program
ends, 58% plan to work towards a masters degree, either in Adult/Continuing
E .cation or Business Administration.

Near the beginning of the third quarter, students were asked to evaluate
their experience in the program. Students rated the courses excellent.
They responded most favorably to the informal, flexible seminar format,
the variety of te^ching/learning activities, the relevance of course
content to their professional interests, and the classroom atmosphere
which they felt was conducive to challenging intellectual stimulation
and warm classroom interactions. Students valued their own active
involvement in the class and the responsibility and opportunity they
had to integrate theoretical material into their practical experience.
They also spoke with satisfaction of the benefits of discussion with
professional colleagues whose experience and insights were stimulating
and helpful to them.

Although there was little disappointment reflected in their evaluatory
statements, some class participants stated that they liked least

those aspects of the course which required reading reviews of research in the academic literature, writing project papers, and preparing for or listening to student presentations. Other aspects of the volunteer course experience which students liked least were associated with travel time and distance, registration formalities, and presentations by outside speakers which on occasion seemed somewhat redundant or overlapping. Although most students enjoyed the flexibility and informality of the course work and the learning atmosphere, a few questioned whether this same informality meant too little structure in the class.

When asked to name five general topics most crucial to a university course in volunteer management and training, most students named motivation and retention of volunteers, recruitment, assessing the needs of volunteers and making appropriate placements, and evaluation and recognition of volunteers. Many students were aware of their need to become more sophisticated in the technology of management but were not sure what the particular components of such training would be.

Problems and Issues in University Delivery Systems

The Roanoke program can best be viewed as a one-time project which came to be because of the propitious timing of coincidences: a recognized need for graduate level training by some volunteer administrators, one of whom gave leadership to the program; the growing interest and involvement in volunteerism by faculty at Virginia Tech; and Dr. Shaw's availability to develop and teach the courses. Delivering off-campus programs for part-time students is not a new experience at Virginia Tech; the Adult/Continuing Education Program Area presently offers the masters degree in three off-campus locations and the post-masters degree in another.

In some ways, however, the Roanoke venture did entail a new delivery system model. Specifically, the courses were offered as discrete courses for a specific target audience and not as part of an intact degree program. Participants could elect to take the courses for credit or non-credit, although most students elected the credit option. In short, the program attempted to meet the inservice training needs of practicing volunteer administrators through a series of courses specifically designed to accommodate their job requirements. The intention was to provide graduate level education geared toward the immediate concerns of practitioners who wanted to enhance their job performances but who were not for the most part interested in committing themselves to the long-term requirements of graduate professional education.

Students who entered this program had received their previous training in volunteer management and training through a non-credit short-term workshop model. Such a training model is characterized by conceptual presentations of a highly condensed nature and participative activities in which students share ideas and apply new knowledge and skills.

The emphasis is on the "how" and not on the "why." One problem
which surfaced rapidly in the Ro mone program was how to reconcile the
workshop model with the professional education model. The professional
education model stresses the theoretical and philosophical base of
practice. It entails reading, interpreting, and applying research and
conceptual materials which may have little apparent relevance to a
specific problem of practice. It also entails opportunities to enhance
competencies of practice through real life or simulated demonstrations
of ability, subjected to review and evaluation by a qualified professional.

As is almost always the case in any group of students, a wide range of
backgrounds, professional experience, and academic skills were
represented in this seminar group. As professionals functioning
full-time in demanding job contexts, they believed that they had
limited time to do outside academic assignments. Even though the
students realized upon assum   the obligation of a graduate credit
course that there would be :   ;tantial responsibility connected with
that endeavor, their responsibilities as students were peripheral to
their work and family lives. Students found that a graduate credit
course forced a certain discipline on the teaching/learning situation
which would not have been the case in a typical in-service training
workshop experience. To some, the course requirements tended to be
more arbitrary as well as more stringent than they had ex. cted or desired.

The challenge in this experimental course was to provide a quality
educational product in the tradition of graduate professional education
standards to students whose orientations and expectations were more
inclined in the direction of the pragmatic, existential problem-solving
and how-to-do characteristics of the workshop model.

In this kind of situation, effective teaching with professional volunteer
managers requires that the instructor mediate content, monitor the
experience, but primarily function as consultant, facilitator, and
resource guide.

The expectations of the students, their sponsoring agency, and the
university were sometimes in conflict. The dilemma of the teacher was
how to reconcile the interests, needs, and limitations of students with
the academic standards of the sponsoring university. One of the basic
tenets of adult education is that no learning experience can be
effective unless the needs of the adults to be served, their backgrounds,
limitations and special concerns are considered in the preparation of
learning objectives. In this series of courses, the teacher performed
a bridging function between the students' desire for immediate application
and the more academic approach inherent in the university course
structure. In courses of an in-service type, students are motivated to
learn to improve their competencies as practitioners; the teacher has
standards to uphold which are derived from a graduate professional
education model.

One recurrent challenge in this course sequence was how to connect the
problems which students described from their working situations with

explanations or rationalizations in terms of theory or experience bases. In this group of working professionals, there was a tendency to depend perhaps too much on the sharing of anecdotal experience. While this practice was generally pleasurable and had its value, the teacher had to relate these informal inputs to a knowledge and theory base. The instructor had the challenge of expanding and enriching commonplace experience and placing it in the larger perspective in which analyses and generalizations can be made and behavior predicted.

That the university has a responsibility and some potent resources for providing educational opportunities for the professional development of practicing volunteer administrators seems beyond question, but exactly how the university should or might best respond to this need is not certain. Clearly several delivery systems models are required. These include non-credit, short-term workshops; credit courses treating various aspects of volunteerism; and degree programs ranging from associates of arts, bachelors, masters, and doctoral. The model used in Roanoke has substantial promise. It provides graduate level courses geared toward the work problems of practicing volunteer administrators which can be applied toward a masters degree in adult and continuing education or used as part of the continuing education experience of the administrator.

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WEST GEORGIA COLLEGE'S ROLE
IN PREPARING VOLUNTEERS IN
NORTH CENTRAL GEORGIA

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INTRODUCTION

In recent months, a growing number of human services agencies are requesting the assistance of volunteers to help alleviate staffing shortages. The Department of Human Resources (DHR) in the State of Georgia is one such agency. Because of past training provided by the Department of Continuing Education at West Georgia College, early in 1975 District IV of DHR requested assistance in providing training for new agency volunteers. Funds for this program were obtained through a grant funded by Title I (HEA, 1965). "Training for Volunteers in Human Services" began in April, 1976, and terminated in March, 1977.

A series of workshops were conducted in each of four multi-county areas in the thirteen counties of the DHR district. Volunteers who were working, or wanted to work with any human service agency, public or private, were eligible to participate. Also, volunteer coordinators for each county were encouraged to attend.

The purpose of the project was to provide training for 300 volunteers and staff persons, which would enable them to become more effective as non-professional, short-term helping persons. Instruction was provided by West Georgia College faculty in the areas of:
1. basic helping skills
2. assessment of needs for the client population
3. defining human services provided by other agencies
4. using and compiling a human services directory for each of the thirteen counties
5. training of future trainers of volunteers

Coordination was administered by the Department of Continuing Education.

During the planning of the proposal, the question was raised: "Is the college or university equipped to provide this training, or are they merely interested in jumping on the volunteerism bandwagon?" The question was raised over and over during the following year by both service agency personnel and college staff.

It is hoped that the experience at West Georgia College with the training of volunteers in human services will provide some insight into this question. Because of a number of factors beyond the college's realm of control, there have probably been more questions raised than have been answered.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the results of an evaluation of a one-year training project conducted by the Department of Continuing Education at West Georgia College. This evaluation will focus on; (1) the appropriateness of the training for volunteers, (2) the effectiveness of the training in improved delivery of services, and (3) the appropriateness of West Georgia College as the vehicle for such training. Some specific conclusions have been drawn from the evaluation results. Also, some generalized conclusions, which may be of particular interest to conference participants, have been drawn from the experience of the authors in planning, developing, conducting, and evaluating this project.

TRAINING DESIGN

The target group for the project consists of volunteers from age 18 to 80 plus, both male and female, from the illiterate to graduate degreed. Because of the diversity of backgrounds anticipated to participate, program design was based on the concept that persons who take initiative in planning their own learning activities learn more and learn better than those who sit at the feet of teachers passively waiting to be taught. [Knowles, 1976]

Therefore, the learning activities were planned to be proactive. Participants were encouraged to verbalize questions and many small group activities were planned to encourage rapport among learners.

Training was provided in four phases:

Phase I, which was conducted for all volunteers, included an introduction to volunteerism, an overview of the human services network, and a general orientation to helping theory.

Phase II, also for all volunteers, consisted of an introduction to basic helping skills.

Phase III, for 2 persons from each county, one DHR staff person and one volunteer, consisted of an intensive 2-day workshop on training of volunteer trainers.

Phase IV, for selected volunteers from each of the 13 counties, included identification of local resources and developing a local human services directory.

In addition, the project provided certain printed materials such as: the volunteer handbook, a sample service directory, and various exercises and background information.

EVALUATION

Participants were requested to complete a questionnaire during the last training session and volunteer coordinators and college administrators were mailed questionnaires. Two-hundred and sixteen (216) were distributed and sixty-one (61) returned.

The results of the evaluation were so limited that no specific conclusions were drawn, although the general tone of the responses was

positive. There was agreement among volunteers, volunteer coordinators, and administrators that the training provided was appropriate, and that it resulted in improved volunteer performance. This improvement was seen in the areas of listening and responding to clients', improved understanding of human services network, and improved morale.

There was not, however, agreement among community leaders as to the value of training or the appropriateness of West Georgia College as the training provider. While some responses were overwhelmingly positive, others were almost as overwhelmingly negative. They essentially cancelled each other.

Since the survey responses did not provide enough data from which to formulate definite conclusions, the authors reviewed past experiences with the training project and drew some general conclusions:

1. Based on demographic data available through registration forms, the typical volunteer involved in the training was: female, aged 36-55, with a high school education, engaged in a semi-professional occupation. The training was felt to be appropriately designed and conducted for this group.

2. There seems to be no real way to judge the effectiveness of the training based on survey responses. However, volunteer effectiveness depends on a number of other factors, as well as training, including assignment, follow-up, support services, and supervision. Therefore, the authors could make no firm conclusions regarding the effectiveness of training, in terms of improved performance

3. The authors concluded that West Georgia College is an appropriate provider of training for several reasons:
   —the college has the resources to plan, develop, and conduct training for volunteers;
   —as part of the state university system, supported by public funds, West Georgia College has a commitment to Continuing Education at all levels;
   —the college has the facilities for training various numbers of people, from small groups to large bodies;
   —the college has a public relations staff which can provide comprehensive publicity. The Department of Human Resources does not have district or county staff with public relations as the primary assignment;
   —the college has facilities for the printing of training materials. The faculty also serves as a resource for the development of printed materials;
   —college sponsorship has positive influence on the community which is enhanced by the awarding of continuing education units.

Faculty members should be aware of the levels of education and the sophistication of the volunteers, and be able to adapt teaching styles to these levels. The authors screened faculty members to find those who could adapt their teaching methods to meet the needs and abilities of the participants. [Action, 1972]

CONCLUSIONS

The two major problems that arose during the project were inadequate recruitment, and lack of follow-through by Department of Human Resources staff. Both these problems were related, and may explain the few responses to the questionnaire.

Before the training program was developed, the authors initiated a meeting with the District Coordinator of the Department of Human Resources and his top staff. The program developed was in response to their assessment of training needs for volunteers. In additon, they pledged their support and agreed to secure staff involvement in the project.

Prior to the approval of funding for this project, one of the authors met with the district-wide Volunteer Coordinators Council, composed of county-level Department of Human Resources staff members who had responsibility for recruiting, assigning and evaluating volunteers. At that time, input and support were requested from the organization and individuals. The volunteer coordinators agreed orally to recruit volunteers for the training and to secure training sites for those sessions to be conducted off campus.

After funding was approved, but before the project actually began, the project director again met with the Volunteer Coordinators Council. Again, their support was solicited, and again they expressed such support. They did express some reservations about the number of expected participants, feeling that not that many could be recruited.

The number of participants was estimated to be three hundred (300) persons. The actual number of participants was one hundred and seventy-six (176) persons, of which forty-nine (49) were Department of Human Resources staff. Not even half of the projected number of volunteers were recruited, and most of these were persons doing volunteer work primarily for the Department of Human Resources. Very few volunteers from other agencies were recruited, although this had been expressly requested prior to funding.

Two factors probably influenced the level of participation. Most of the volunteer coordinators (11 out of 13) are employed part-time, carrying a reduced caseload in addition to their duties as volunteer coordinators. Many have had little or no training in recruiting, assigning, and evaluating volunteers.

Although certain volunteer coordinators were most helpful, the lack of commitment to volunteerism by the Department of Human Resources as an organization greatly detracted from the potential indicated during the early planning of the program.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Future training programs for volunteers will exist only if they are designed to meet the needs and interests of the participants as they see them. Thus, it is strongly recommended that the potential learners (and not their supervisors) be involved in making decisions about the

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program's objectives.   [Benter, McCormick, Woodin, Cunningham, Wolf, 1972]

Because the target group was not strongly involved in the planning
of the program, a "need gap" developed. The authors designed a program
based on the vocalizaiton of "what ought to be." Those describing the
"what oughts" failed to support their demands by either attending the
sessions themselves, or by encouraging their staff to participate. It
is crucial that the prospective learner be included in the planning of
the learning situation. [Knowles, 1972]

Once the target group has demonstrated support of the program, it
is necessary to obtain the commitment of the agencies involved. Without
this commitment, success is doomed. The poor level of DHR commitment
made implementation a difficult chore.

In additon to DHR failure to support the program, it was observed
that seven out cf twenty college administrators were either neutral,
ambivalent, or negative concerning the college's role in training.

It is therefore recommended that before a college considers
involvement in the training of volunteers, the following steps be taken:

1. survey of needs of target training group and the community
    to be served;

2. clear definition of purpose and objectives to be presented
    to community at large;

3. college administrators be informed prior to the project
    of the scope of the program;

4. agencies to be involved in the direct training be firmly
    committed, in writing, to the program;

In essence, a pre-training training program is necessary to obtain
the support of the persons indirectly involved in the program. College
administrators, volunteer supervisors, and the community to be served
should be educated about the purpose, goals, and benefits of the
training of volunteers in human services.

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In order to evaluate the program "Training for Volunteers in Human Services" it would be extremely helpful if you would fill out the following questionnaire on the effect of the training. Please indicate to the right of each question your opinion by placing the number of the question in the proper column.

Example: 8. Pick Conner does not know beans about volunteer training.   SA A NN D SD

                                                          8

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, NN = Neither Agree nor Disagree, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	NN	D	SD
1. The training was just what I needed.	2	1			
2. The trainers talked over my head.		1		7	
3. The training helped me to understand the importance of my work as a volunteer.	2	5	1		
4. I did not learn anything from the training.		1		3	4
5. I feel that now I do a better job as a volunteer.	2	4	2		
6. The people I work with seem to appreciate my work more now.		3	5		
7. Clients talk more openly to me about problems.		5	3		
8. I am able to listen to clients' better than I did before.	2	5	1		
9. My understanding of clients' needs and problems is greater now.	1	7			
10. I have not changed the way I do volunteer work.		4	1	3	
11. I learned a lot about the various roles volunteers are expected to perform.	1	4	2	1	
12. I am more involved with volunteer work now than I was before the training.	1	4	2		
13. I feel more confident about my work as a volunteer.	1	7			
14. My relationship with clients has improved since the training.	2	6			
15. I found the training interesting, informative and generally helpful.	3	5			

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Coordinators & Administrators

In order to evaluate the program Training for Volunteers in Human Services" it would be extremely helpful if you would fill out the following questionnaire on the effect of the training. Please indicate to the right of each question your opinion by placing the number of the question in the proper column.

Example: C. Pick Conner does not know beans about volunteer
training.

	SA	A	NN	D	SD
Example C.					8

SA = Strongly Agree, A = Agree, NN = Neither Agree nor Disagree, D = Disagree, SD = Strongly Disagree.

	SA	A	NN	D	SD
1. The volunteers who participated in the training have a better understanding of their relationship to clients and to the agency.		2	1		
2. The volunteers vocalized a positive response to the training.		3			
3. The volunteers said they did not learn anything from the training.					3
4. Volunteers now have a better understanding of human service agencies.	1	2			
5. There has been a definite improvement in the work of our volunteers.		1	2		
6. The training content was just what our volunteers needed.		3			
7. Our volunteers show a better understanding of client's needs and problems.	1	2			
8. Our volunteers do not show any improvement since the training.			1	2	
9. Our volunteers have improved their relationships with clients.		3			
10. Most of our volunteer work could be done by people without training.				1	2
11. Overall, our volunteer performance has improved.		2	1		
12. West Georgia College should offer more training for volunteers like this.	1	2			
13. Additional training is needed for volunteer coordinators.	1	1	1		
14. Administrators have a clear understanding of the role of volunteers in human service agencies.		2		1	

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Please indicate your response to the statements listed below relating to the College's role in training and administering of volunteers in North Central Georgia. A wide range of response is offered: SA, strongly agree; A, agree; NN, neither agree nor disagree; D, disagree; SD, strongly disagree.

	SA	A	NN	D	SD
1. The State should finance and supervise the training of volunteers in human services.	4	5	5	6	
2. Training of volunteers should be the responsibility of the agency utilizing his/her services.	9	9	1		1
3. Volunteers should seek their own sources of training.		4	3	5	8
4. Colleges and universities should provide the opportunity for training of volunteers.	4	10	4	2	
5. Public schools should be responsible for providing training of volunteers in human services.	1	5	4	7	2
6. Religious and civic organizations should provide training to area volunteers.	1	10	2	4	3
7. The college should offer training for volunteers as part of the community services program and no fees should be charged.	4	9	4	2	1
8. Training should be a required pre-requisite to volunteerism.	7	7	1	4	1
9. The college has no responsibility in preparing volunteers.		2	4	4	10
10. Volunteers are useless, and training will accomplish nothing.	2			1	3	14

Please indicate your response to the statements listed below by marking one of the following: SA, strongly agree: A, agree; NN, neither agree nor disagree; D, disagree; SD, strongly disagree.

	SA	A	NN	D	SD
1.	19	12	2		
2.	1	5	7	13	7
3.	2	5	11	12	3
4.			1	28	13
5.	6	18	6	1	2
6.	12	13	4	3	1
7.	6	23	2	2	
8.	10	19	2	2	
9.	2	1	3	15	12
10.	4		4	13	12

1. Services in our community could have been expanded by greater use of volunteers.

2. Volunteers are not dependable.

3. DHR expansion in the use of volunteers should be totally funded by the State.

4. Volunteers should not have to participate in training programs because they receive no salaries.

5. DHR expansion should utilize volunteers to save funds.

6. Volunteers must participate in training programs to insure quality of performance.

7. Training of volunteers should be provided within the agencies utilizing thier services.

8. Volunteer time should be counted and certified as work experience for future employment purposes.

9. Volunteers should be willing to pay for their own training.

10. No evidence has been demonstrated in our community that volunteers are beneficial in the delivery of human services.

ESTABLISHING A LINK BETWEEN THE
COLLEGE AND THE COMMUNITY: AN APPROACH

Carolyn L. Harris
Cal State Dominguez Hills

A viable link between the college and the community agencies where
volunteers will be placed must be in existence before the impact of the
volunteer program can be adequately assessed either on the campus or
within the agencies. This paper will focus on key steps to consider in
establishing such a link. The approaches are those that have been used
by the Educational Participation in Communities Program (EPIC) at Cal
State Dominguez Hills for the past two years. They will serve as a guide
for those institutions that are just beginning or are in the planning
stages of establishing a volunteer program on their campus. The infor-
mation is based on the techniques that have served to make the EPIC Pro-
gram effective.

Cal State Dominguez Hills is located in an urban area that serves a
diverse population in terms of ethnicity, economic and social status.
The EPIC Program is a volunteer service-learning program that recruits
staudents that are enrolled at the college and place them in community
agencies. The students serve as counselors, bilingual tutors, casework
aides, intake workers and in a wide variety of other positions. The Pro-
gram averages approximately 110 students over a three quarter period.
The number of agencies that have requested the service of the Program is
150. The number of agencies that the Program is able to serve in a given
quarter range from 30 to 50. This is due to the fact that, students have
the opportunity to choose where they would like to volunteer. Given the
number of students and agencies that are associated with the Program in
a particular quarter, it is necessary to have an effective system in op-
eration in order to minimize problems that are associated with placements.

The first step in building a viable link between the college and the
community is to conduct a needs assessment. The needs assessment should
be conducted within the framework of the institutions commitment to meet-
ing the needs of the surrounding community. The methods for carrying out
the needs assessment can be conducted by using interview guidelines, sur-
veys, questionnaires or through purposeful conversations. Key persons in
the administrative area as well as faculty and students must be included
in the sample for a broad view of the needs. Questions that focus on the
thrust of the college in terms of community involvement, faculty members
areas of interest, feasibility, cost and benefits should be a part of
the data gathering instrument.

In terms of the needs assessment as it relates to the community
agencies, the goals and objectives of the agencies must be explored. The
history, funding source and the target population(s) are all areas that
must be spelled out in order to define the needs adequately.

The second step in building a viable link between the college and

the community consist of blending the needs of the institutions and that
of the community agencies that you wish to become involved. This can be
done through brainstorming meetings between key people on the college
campus and agency representatives or by a committee that includes re-
presentatives from both groups as well as student participation and/or input.

Thirdly, establishing cooperative objectives that are of a general
nature should be done by the college and community representatives. More
definitive objectives should be spelled out by the individual agencies.
The definitive objectives should include the expectations, the role of
the faculty and the students as well as the agency personnel. Another
step includes a provision for training of college and agency personnel
and the students.

The fifth step involves establishing and maintaining a system of com-
munication between the college and the agency personnel and the students.
The system must include the college community which can be kept abreast
through the campus newspaper, the faculty newsletter, division meetings,
committee meetings and personal contacts. As for the community agencies,
attendance at staff meetings frequent agency visits, regularyly scheduled
training programs and seminars are all elements that can be included in
the communication system. In terms of the students, telephoning, letters,
the campus newspaper and regularly scheduled office hours are important
elements to condider.

Evaluation of the link is the sixth step. It should be on-going and
consistent to determine if the needs are being met or if they have been
define adequately. Elements of the evaluation tool should include a pro-
vision for unaticipated occurences and a measurement for determining if
the linkage is successful.

SUMMARY

This paper was not intended to give an in-depth approach of establish-
ing a link between a college and the community it serves, rather it was
submitted within the framework of voluntarism. That is, it is a system
that can be adapted on any campus taking into full consideration of that
particular campus.

HIGHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS FOR THE VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATOR
J. Malcolm Walker, San Jose State University
David Horton Smith, Boston College

INTRODU TION

Since 1971 a number of groups have made recommendations as to
the appropriate content of educational programs for voluntary
action leaders, particularly volunteer program administrators.
A few surveys have been conducted to identify the educational
needs as perceived by such leaders (cf., Smith,1976). How-
ever, we have had little systematic information about actual
higher education programs themselves in this area, and too
little sharing of such information. A sufficient number of
colleges and universities now offer educational courses, work-
shops, or even programs (two or more different courses) in
volunteer administration to provide at least some empirical
basis for educational program recommendations in regard to
existing programs or the implementation of new ones.

We report here the results of a very modest, unfunded pilot
research project designed to assess recent experiences with
programs (not single courses) in volunteer administration in
American institutions of higher education. More specifically,
our study is designed to assess: (1) progress in the develop-
ment of such programs, (2) strategies and processes of pro-
gram initiation and implementation, (3) the content of such
programs, and (4) factors that influence the success or fail-
ure of these programs.

METHODOLOGY

The institutions surveyed constitute a very special kind of
purposive sample, divided into two parts. In essence, we
studied what might be termed a "reputational sample" of insti-
tutions, in the sense that we chose each institution for our
study on the basis of recommendations by a panel of knowled-
geable experts in the field. One part of the sample consists
(for practical reasons as well as historical ones) of 10 in-
stitutions in California drawn in this manner, while the other
part of the sample was drawn from the rest of the nation. In
consulting with our panel of experts, we drew also on three
national surveys of higher education opportunities for volun-
teer administrators: (1) a 1974 survey by the National Infor-
mation Center on Volunteerism (NICOV, 1976), (2) a 1976 foll-
ow up to the NICOV survey by S. Jane Rehnborg (unpublished),
and (3) a 1976 survey of about 300 faculty members and volun-
tary action leaders conducted by the Research Task Force of
the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars (which included
information on course offering in the field of voluntary
action). The Rehnborg survey data were particularly important
in our selection of the non-California portion of the sample.

The unpublished survey by Rehnborg deserves special comment here because it sheds some interesting light on the degree of turnover of higher education _courses_ for volunteer administrators. Based on the list of institutions offering some kind of course (possibly only a workshop or institute) in the field, as indicated by the NICOV national survey in 1974, Rehnborg sent out 95 letters in August-September 1976 to the places listed asking about certification programs, if any, and seeking information on courses, workshops, etc. Replies were received eventually from about 60% of the institutions. Of these responding institutions, many had no courses or programs. It was clear that a large proportion of the institutions that had offered courses in 1974 were no longer doing so in 1976. However, some institutions still had their original courses or even additional ones, and new institutions had begun to offer such courses in the interim. The appropriate conclusion from the Rehnborg study is that _turnover is very high in higher education courses for volunteer administrators_. They are frequently present one year and gone the next. This is the background in terms of which the present study of programs (defined as two or more higher education courses) of higher education for volunteer administrators must be understood. It also explains why we used the particular sampling method we did. We wanted to be sure that we were able to get information on at least 20 programs so that modest generalization might be attempted. So far as we can tell, we have studied a substantial portion of all _programs_ existing in the United States or that have existed though only a much smaller fraction of all _courses_.

Data was gathered for our study, then, in April and May of 1977 with one or more respondents at each of 20 institutions of higher education, 10 from California and another 10 from eight other states around the country (Washington, New York, Massachusetts, Colorado, Maryland, Illinois, Delaware, & Ohio). For the full sample, there were as many community(two-year) colleges as there were four year colleges and universities. However, the California sample had 8 community colleges out of 10 institutions, while the national sample had just the reverse proportion. This probably reflects the "historical" factor alluded to earlier: The Chancellor's Office of the California Community Colege system helped support and sponsor a study group that designed a community college curriculum in volunteer administration a few years ago. That curriculum (cf., California Community Colleges, 1974) and its design process has served as a major stimulus to the formation of programs in California institutions at the level studied.

The interviews conducted were with only a couple of exceptions made by telephone, using a semi-structured (focused) interview schedule created by the authors (mainly the first author). Some screening had to be done with potential respondent institutions, in order to verify the existence, prior existence, or proposed existence of two or more different college level

courses in volunteer administration. At some institutions,
there were, are, or will be programs in related areas (e.g.,
in non-profit organization management, in voluntary assoc-
iation administration, in fund-raising management, in com-
munity services technology, etc.), but these were screened
out of our sample. Also, at many institutions there are
various courses offering college credit for off-campus in-
ternships or volunteer work in community organizations,
usually in conjunction with a periodic discussion of the
off-campus experience at a seminar on-campus, and often
with the requirement of a term paper or report on the off-
campus experience. These programs were also screened out
of our sample. Finally, there were educational activities
called or thought to be programs by our panel of experts
but which turned out to be single courses, occasional usages
of independent study programs for volunteer administration
degrees, or brief workshops. These too were generally left
out of our sample (with the exception of two systematic
workshop series that led to Certificates, with each brief
one-day workshop called a "course").[1]

As a result of our survey, our final sample of 20 institutions
was divided into four categories:
I. Institutions which are conducting an on-going program in
volunteer administration, with program being defined as a set
of two or more different courses, completion of which results
in a degree or in a certificate of completion or proficiency
(which may itself partially satisfy requirements for a degree).
II. Institutions which offer at least one course in volunteer
administration and either (a) are in the process of developing
or of implementing (but not yet offering) a program; or (b)
will definitely be offering at least two courses in the imme-
diate future.
III. Institutions which have considered implementing a pro-
gram, but have decided not to do so.
IV. Institutions which have offered a program but no longer
do so.

We define as successful for present purposes institutions in
Category I (providing the programs are not about to be phased
out) and in Category II. There are 13 institutions of this
sort in our sample. The remaining 7 are unsuccessful by the
above definition, about evenly divided between Categories III
and IV. The 13 successful institutions are also about evenly
divided between the two Categories involved (7 in I; 6 in II).

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1 This study does not cover, either, those institutions which
   offer various courses in one or more departments or profes-
   sional schools that include material on some aspects of vol-
   untary action. Such courses in community organization,
   voluntary associations, interest groups, etc. are quite
   numerous but do not constitute volunteer administration pro-
   grams in the sense we have defined them.

OVERALL PROGRESS

Our data point up a number of aspects of the general progress
made to date in higher education for volunteer administrators.
To begin with, the field is obviously quite new in higher edu-
cation. Most programs have been implemented or initiated
(and sometimes rejected) in the past three years. Only 3 of
the 20 programs were begun before 1970, all in the late 1960s.
We are in a period of considerable activity both in terms of
new programs and expansion (in content and number of students)
of existing programs.

But progress seems to be very uneven. Programs in some insti-
tutions are in a no-growth state or have been (or are about
to be) withdrawn. Some other institutions have decided not to
implement programs after quite intensive investigation invol-
ving interaction with the volunteer community and needs iden-
tification surveys, with careful consideration by the institu-
tion's administration. However, most respondents at such in-
stitutions indicate that the decision not to go ahead is not
a permanent one, but is subject to future review. Institutions
are reluctant to take any risks on new programs in these times
of general retrenchment in higher education, and programs for
volunteer administrator education are often met with a hard-
nosed fiscal scrutiny by higher education administrators.
There is general reluctance by higher educational institutions
to go ahead with such programs unless (a) a very substantial
need can be demonstrated locally, thus guaranteeing the fiscal
solvency of the new endeavor, or (b) the program can be begun
at virtually no financial risk to the institution (or with
that appearance, at least).

As suggested earlier, there is considerable variation with
respect to the type of institution offering programs, inclu-
ding two-year community colleges, four year colleges with a
few Masters Degree programs, and full universities offering
Doctoral Degrees in various departments and professional schools.
In California, perhaps for the special historical reasons des-
cribed earlier, most programs and especially the successful
ones are in community colleges. Elsewhere in the nation, this
pattern does not hold,with successful programs being found as
frequently in four-year colleges or universities as in two-
year colleges. Not surprisingly, volunteer administration
programs tend to be concentrated in higher education insti-
tutions in or near major population centers (metropolitan
areas), where concentrations of volunteer programs and vol-
unteer administrators can likewise be found.

Programs vary moderately in their breadth of content, though
there is some core of common skills and knowledge found in
most. There is considerably more variation in how the pro-
grams are organized and structured (hours of attendance re-
quired, pattern of course sessions, etc.). Outcomes also dif-
fer substantially among the programs studied. Some programs

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offer a Certificate for attendance at six one-day workshops
(called "courses"), and one offered a Certificate for atten-
dance at 12 two-hour workshops (it is now defunct). Other pro-
grams give their Certificate for satisfactory completion of
one or two regular college level courses, while some require
satisfactory completion of many more courses. One community
college requires 50 quarter hours of credit in courses related
to volunteer administration before awarding the Certificate.
And a few institutions have volunteer administration as a
specialization or major as part of a Masters Degree program
in an allied field (e.g., Rehabilitation Administration;
Planning and Administration).

Yet when one considers both the current state of existing
programs and trends in the development of these programs, the
norm in the short run at least appears to be granting a Cer-
tificate for a rather modest amount of college work. And Mas-
ters degree programs that have any specialization in volun-
teer administration are quite rare (only two in our sample).

Perhaps the most appropriate perspective from which to view
the field of higher education in volunteer administration is
as a field in process. On the basis of earlier analyses of
developments in the field (Smith,1976) and our present findings,
we would predict a general though probably gradual expansion
of the field in the next five years or so. After that, the
pace may quicken. A surprisingly significant number of insti-
tutions seem to have implemented or at least have considered
implementing programs. And the awareness of volunteerism,
voluntarism, and the voluntary sector even among the latter
institutions has grown markedly in the past five years. We
can expect these trends to be reinforced by the growing soc-
ietal significance of voluntarism, combined with the increas-
ing pressure from certain voluntary organizations for more
and better education for volunteer administrators (e.g., from
the Association for the Administration of Volunteer Services,
and from the Alliance for Volunteerism).

It would be an error, then, to assess the state of the field
simply by examining educational programs as they currently
exist. Rather, one must assess as well what is being devel-
oped in the field, seek to learn what works and what does not,
and try to understand why. Such an approach can be expec-
ted to provide some guidelines for the development of speci-
fic programs and for the general development of the field as
well. Our findings throw some light on these issues.

PROGRAM INITIATION, DEVELOPMENT, AND IMPLEMENTATION

Our findings indicate rather clearly that program success, as
defined earlier, requires generally that the initiation, devel-
opment, and implementation stages of a program be integrated.
The most significant factor in program success seems to be the
active, persistent, and continuing committed involvement of
one individual or a small group of individuals, involved them-

selves in or deeply concerned with the practice of volunteer administration. Most of the successful programs have been initiated, developed, and implemented by such persons. In some cases, such persons have only been active in the initiation and development phases, with implementation begun and then subsequently carried out by someone else, but this is not common among successful programs. Most decisions not to implement programs after serious consideration have been made in institutions where such persons have not been involved. Our interviews indicate that the number of such persons is increasing, which augurs well for the future of the type of educational programs we are studying.

Several additional factors in turn explain the critical importance of active, committed, persistent practitioner involvement. First, from the perspective of the volunteerism field, there must be linkages from educational ideas and proposals developed by national organizations or national leaders to implementation at the local level. Programs at specific institutions are often legitimated by local practitioner-activists by referring to national developments---plans, books, articles, curricula, conferences, etc. This suggests the importance of the role of such national organizations and leaders in the continuing growth of voluntarism, and particularly in the growth of higher education programs in the field.

At the local level, volunteer administrator professional groups (formal or informal) may often fail to act for a variety of reasons even having discussed their needs for higher educational programs in volunteer administration: lack of time, uncertainty as to how to act, insecurity in the face of "the higher education establishment," discouragement at the failure of initial contacts, doubts as to the viability of such a program at a local college or university, inability to find someone on the "inside" of a local institution who really seems to care, etc. For a practitioner to teach in a program himself or herself, an advanced degree or teaching credential may be required.

Considerable persistence and no little sophistication is needed in dealing with the bureaucratic procedures and internal politics in most colleges and universities. As most of our respondents stress, the many complexities of program development and implementation in higher education institutions are not readily apparent to "outsiders"(or even to many insiders), and are difficult to deal with. Much trial and error learning is usually required, and this takes the persistence we referred to earlier. Most college administrators and faculty members have only a rudimentary understanding of the field of volunteerism, if any, and lack an awareness of its general role in our society.

Higher education in volunteer administration has no immediately obvious, "natural home" or power base in the institu-

tional structure (one of our respondents commented that it took her six months "to figure out who to deal with"). Few institutions, indeed virtually none, provide much in the way of "start up" or program development expenses beyond in-kind contributions of administrator or faculty time and available space, classrooms or other facilities. In those rare instances where there have been development funds, they have come from outside grants, usually from a private foundation.

Beyond the crucial role of the key, persistent, practitioner-activist in bringing about most successful programs, our findings also suggest that successful programs are characterized by careful attention to the following factors:

(1) Become involved with an institution that is innovative, flexible (at least in some of its internal divisions), and willing to take some modest risks if they seem likely to have positive results in new and needed higher education programs.

(2) Develop very early an understanding of the institution's financial system, especially budgetary implications and accountability requirements that affect educational requirements. Virtually without exception, new programs are required to "pay for themselves" from tuition and fees from the very beginning (except when outside grant funds are available, and then the exception is only temporary---as long as the grant).

(3) Develop very early an understanding of the institution's policies and procedures governing program implementation and development. Learn the internal "ropes" and barriers, and how things have to be done if they are to be ultimately approved.

(4) Identify and work directly and continuously with whoever has the authority to approve programs of the sort you want, or, more usually, with someone in the institution who has the authority and personal interest to move them through the often complex internal approval structure. This is sometimes an administrator, sometimes a faculty member, sometimes someone who is both. Approval is facilitated if one works with an administrator who has the existing authority, given his/her particular role and the nature of his/her unit in the larger institution, to approve and set up the program in the given unit with little or no clearance from other members of the administration. This situation is, however, rather rare. The best examples are perhaps Divisions of Continuing Education or the equivalent, which have a very broad existing mandate.

(5) Pay careful attention to the appropriate structural location of the program within the institution. There are variations among successful programs in this respect, though most tend to locate in the most innovative unit they can find on a particular campus. The most frequent locations of successful programs are in Continuing Education, Human/Public/Social/Community Services, or in Business/Management Schools or Divisions of the institution. However successful programs are found occasionally in other units (e.g., Rehabilitation, etc.).

(6) Deal with the program's implications for related departments, schools and divisions of the institution, especially trying to counteract fears as to possible resource reallocation away from those bases/units to the new program, and corresponding fears of intrusion on their curriculum "domain." Timing is also important in this area. A volunteer administration program is more likely to be rejected when it is initiated at a time when related programs are being phased out (as happened in one of our unsuccessful cases). It may be prudent to wait a year or two at such times in order to achieve ultimate success. Informal relations in maintaining continual interest and pressure are especially important here, as are efforts to integrate curricula and to include other units or faculty in the program where they push for it.

(7) Share experiences on a statewide or regional basis with others seeking to initiate, develop, or maintain higher education programs for volunteer administrators. The California Community Colleges example mentioned earlier indicates that some substantial leverage can be obtained through statewide higher education coordinating units, especially when they contain representatives of institutions as well as practitioners. Given the nationwide trend toward developing statewide and regional coordinating boards or agencies, this source of leverage should become increasingly significant in the future. These entities help to build a power base for volunteerism in their areas, and can develop coordinated action plans to deal with educational bureaucracies that are more effective than plans coming from a single source to a single institution.

(8) It is advantageous if the key practitioner-activist has his/her principal employment in the college or university, or can at least obtain "Adjunct" or similar faculty status (which usually is dependent on the academic degrees held by such a person, a Masters Degree in something being almost mandatory). Such a person can, through long and intensive involvement within the institution, more effectively understand internal processes (formal and informal, unwritten ones) and learn how to deal with them. Otherwise, the key person must be able to develop, or have already, a close relationship to a willing faculty member or administrator currently on the staff of the institution. One cannot change or fight the system regarding a new program without   effective internal leverage.

(9) However, if the faculty member or administrator in the institution is not active and experienced in voluntary action leadership himself/herself, the chances of success are diminished when such persons are the initiators or internal collaborators. They are much less likely to have the emotional commitments and cognitive insights of voluntary sector activists, and much more likely to be conscious of more immediate priorities associated with clearer and faster payoffs (e.g., pay increments, tenure, promotion). We have a few cases in our sample where programs have been implemented by such "internal" people in response to outside requests from volunteer agency leaders. But more often than not, this approach leads to a

rejection decision, to lack of persistent development follow-
through in the first place, or to a program that, once started,
fails for lack of sufficient relevance to practitioner needs.

(10) If a college is responding to outside requests and pressure
mainly, then such pressure is likely to be most successful
when backed by a powerful and prominent local voluntary action
coordinating group (e.g., a local Voluntary Action Center, or
a local council of leaders of volunteer programs or human ser-
vice agencies). The availablity of a convincing "market survey"
or "needs identification survey" can help, as we shall note
in a moment, but the key is the degree to which the institution
can be convinced that there are a sufficient number of people
who will definitely take the program if offered. The latter
point was effectively dealt with by one group of practitioner-
initiators by collecting firm commitments to pre-register
in the program and then approaching the target institution
for help in setting up the program they had in mind. In any case,
where the real "market" or "need" for the program is misjudged
seriously by the practitioners, the program is likely to fail
fairly quickly for lack of sufficient enrollment. Real and
continuing demand for the program is absolutely necessary in
the catchment area (territory served) by the program over time
if the program is to be successful and endure.

(11) Do not assume that a needs identification survey or market
survey will speak for itself to institution administrators.
Such surveys, whether informal or formal (and our study showed
both kinds were frequent), are typically made using mailing
lists provided by local Voluntary Action Centers or other co-
ordinating bodies for local volunteer program and agencies.
They usually attempt to assess the content and skills needed
by potential program participants, the degree of student dem-
and, relations to career opportunities, desirable program for-
mat, and appropriate timing, location, fees and outcomes. But
the key factor appears to be not the findings themselves,
rather it is how these findings are interpreted and by whom.
College and university administrators not involved in volun-
tary action leadership tend to interpret findings in terms of
what they show about full-time, paid career opportunities for
volunteer administrators. Needless to say, findings interpre-
ted in such terms do not provide much of a basis for enthusi-
astic support of college credit programs for volunteer adminis-
trators. This leads us directly to our next point.

(12) Base your program, and interpret your "market survey", on
a very broad definition of potential student clientele which
includes not only paid staff, career-oriented coordinators or
directors of volunteers, but also volunteer staff in similar
roles, students wishing to enter the field as a career or as
volunteers, current volunteers who would like to become leaders
(coordinators,directors,etc.), human service professionals who
work in agencies with volunteer programs, human service pro-
fessionals who work with volunteers in community contexts, stu-

dents in professional schools or divisions, grassroots acti-
vists, voluntary association leaders, and citizens interested
in voluntarism generally. Few programs can be developed and
sustained in the long run with a clientele defined solely as
paid, career volunteer administrators. Other narrow definitions
also lead to failure (e.g., members of boards of trustees or
directors of voluntary organizations).

(13) The formation and use of an Advisory Board is not crucial
to success, although a continuing involvement on some level
with the local volunteer leadership community does seem to be
quite important. Such Advisory Boards are used about half the
time, but sometimes the Education/Training Committee of the
local Voluntary Action Center or some other existing body is
used by the program as its Advisory Board informally. These
Advisory Boards, of whatever kind, tend to be effective when:
(a) the key educational program person(s) is (are) heavily
involved in the local volunteer community and active on and
with the Board, and (b) when the Board is a genuine working
board involved meaningfully in program development, publi-
cizing the program to bring in participants, and working with
the college personnel in an on-going manner to evaluate and
reshape the program from year to year in the light of feedback.

(14) Finally, our data indicate that one should get something
small going well, if possible, and then expand that course or
set of workshops into a full-fledged program. The "foot in the
door" technique works as well in academia as anywhere else.
Our survey show that successful programs have developed from
such varied bases as convention "institutes," workshops,
student internship (off-campus service) programs, single course
offerings, and courses with volunteer administration compon-
ents in various related departments. Such initial efforts
have provided both curriculum foundations, interested faculty,
and concrete evidence of the existence of a varied student
clientele for expanded programs in volunteer administration.
It is rare for whole programs to begin, starting from "scratch,"
so to speak, without some such prior base.

PROGRAM CONTENT AND EVALUATION

Programs vary considerably in terms of the number of credit
hours required, as mentioned earlier. They also vary modera-
tly in the breadth of the subject matter content involved.
The objectives of all programs center around improving the
practical effectiveness of volunteerism broadly defined. Most
emphasize both effective management of volunteer programs and
either social services administration or social change through
volunteerism, although programs differ with respect to the mix
of these two thrusts. The critical determinant seems to be
the personal philosophies of the individuals running the pro-
grams.

Most programs are grounded in the notion that knowledge and skills are transferable among the various program areas of volunteer administration. Most respondents view management and human services as the core disciplines in their body of knowledge and skills. Most programs aim to raise students' awareness of the importance of volunteerism, and the self-images of volunteers and of volunteer administrators. The development of specific practical skills is viewed as fundamental in all programs. Our respondents report that experienced volunteer administrators show a consistently strong preference for skills-oriented content, especially when management-oriented (budgeting, use of time, fund-raising, mobilizing boards, recruiting volunteers, etc.). They wish to get "tools" with which to solve their day-to-day problems.

Several of our respondents insist, despite resistance from experienced students, that participants be exposed to conceptual material (e.g., management models and styles, community organization theory, group dynamics theory, political organization theory). Such respondents view the broadening of students' basic knowledge and understanding as a distinctive component of higher education programs. In programs with a broad student clientele, more emphasis is placed on the nature of volunteerism, its societal significance, and the nature of one's community. Respondents emphasize that, for all students, the subject matter content must be grounded in the realities of the particular local community.

With respect to learning methods, credit for work experience or for independent study is rare, except where the latter is the central learning mode of the program in a few instances. Some programs included a practicum, in most cases through a student volunteer program or internship placement. However, in almost all programs the emphasis is placed primarily on in-class work and learning. There, cognitive-rational content and its associated lecture approach is used in conjunction with experiential-skill practice content and its student participation approach. Most of our respondents indicate that they use, and that the students favor, such activities as problem solving, developing check-lists and manuals of practice, sharing practical problems and experiences, outside projects, agency visits, and other forms of skill-practice or experiential learning. The lecture approach seems to be used more with students new to volunteerism and who are in the early stages of their program.

Teaching is done almost entirely by full-time voluntary action practitioners or by college personnel who are very active in the volunteer community, except in the two rare instances of Master's Degree programs. In all the successful programs these teachers have a high degree of control over program content and learning methods. Most of the successful programs use a modular approach, with the larger programs containing

modules covering a wide variety of topics. Many of our respondents indicate that participants tend to resist weekly two-three hour courses. We have some evidence that suggests such a format inhibits program growth. Almost all of our respondents indicate that subject matter content and learning methods must be geared to the types of students who enroll.

Most of our respondents feel that the material generally available in the volunteerism field is not adequate for course content development and for use in teaching their programs. The most widely used of existing source materials seem to be those developed by the University of Colorado at Boulder program, by NCVA, and by NICOV, along with books by Naylor (1973), Schindler-Rainman and Lippitt (1971), and Wilson (1976). Our teacher respondents rely quite heavily on material that they have developed in their own volunteer administration work and educational experience. There is a need for short, basic texts related to skill-practice for most of the content areas of teaching in this field.

Perhaps because most programs are quite new, rigorous and long-term program evaluation is very rare. Most programs are evaluated only crudely in the light of drop-out rates, enrollment trends, student evaluation feedback immediately after course completion, and general feedback from the local volunteer leadership community. Several programs have been substantially revised in the light of such information, especially more successful ones, but other programs change little as a result of such evaluation. Little data has been accumulated with respect to impact on subsequent job performance and employment opportunities. Only impressions and anecdotes are offered as evidence here. Drop-out rates are low in successful programs, but often hard to determine where the program is new and uses a modular approach not requiring completion of the program within any fixed time-period. Respondents indicate that teacher performance is the most critical factor in explaining student satisfaction or drop-outs. Other important factors include failure of participants to be offered the specific skills they want, moving from the locality, leaving the volunteerism field, inability to adjust to a higher education learning context many years after leaving it, or personal tensions that develop in social change components of some programs.

SOME FURTHER IMPLICATIONS

While education in volunteer administration at the college level is quite new, much is happening. The field is expanding and is characterized by much change. It has not yet had a major impact in higher education, but the foundations are being laid. Much can be learned from this on-going series of developments, as we have tried to show in this paper. No one approach can be characterized as optimal, and the diversity within the voluntary sector is reflected in program diversity within higher education institutions. Individual program success depends upon a careful meshing of clientele, program content, instructors, program administration, approaches to learning, and the presence

of one or more key practitioner-activists able to integrate this package with the mission of a specific institution of higher education.

As a field in process, we expect great diversity to characterize higher education for volunteer administrators for a considerable time into the future. Overall development of the field needs to be monitored, and information shared, at the national level. There is a need for more leadership (based on objective study and analysis of on-going experience) at the national level in generating guidelines and encouraging action at the community level. Ideas and activity need to be coordinated at state and regional levels as well, especially in helping to get programs developed and implemented, to facilitate collaboration among institutions (we have found examples of destructive competition among institutions in a locality), and to encourage movement of programs into some universities once a solid base has been established in community or four-year colleges.

The higher education experience has general implications for the professionalization of the field of volunteer administration. It is clear from the history of professionalization in other fields that this process is ultimately grounded in advances in higher education. Hence, the expansion of higher education programs for volunteer administrators augurs well for professionalization (in the sense of high competence and specialized knowledge and skills) in this field. Practitioners and activists have substantial control over setting up programs and teaching in them.

Yet there are some important complications. We are unable to identify a knowledge base currently adequate for a relatively independent profession. Many educational programs are not oriented exclusively or even primarily to career-oriented volunteer administrators. To be successful, most programs must cater to a much broader clientele. However, this implies that such programs will be unable to satisfy the perceived needs of professionally oriented career volunteer administrators.

The experience of other occupational groups indicates that professionalization is facilitated by locating educational programs in universities rather than in two-year institutions, and that the outcome should be a degree, preferably a higher degree. Our data indicate that such programs are unlikely to be widespread in the foreseeable future. Therefore, the best strategy for groups committed to professionalization of volunteer administration as a career would appear to be to (a) encourage regional institutions offering degrees through innovative delivery systems, including external degree programs, for experienced persons; and (b) encourage universities in or near very large population centers to offer degree programs, especially at the Master's Degree level.

We are troubled by the weakness of the knowledge base underlying educational programs in volunteer administration.

In particular, while management and human services administration are widely viewed as the core disciplines involved in program content, there exists very little scientific knowledge about volunteer program management either in terms of theory or empirical research. The great bulk of what is taught in the programs we have considered is either based on accumulated practical experience whose transferability to other contexts by other persons is untested, or else on the adaptation of accumulated knowledge and principles from other areas of management and administration without validation in the volunteer administration context. Universities with advanced educational and research programs should assume a much greater role in conducting and stimulating research into volunteer administration. At present, this is a sadly missing component in the total American educational enterprise. Thirty years ago, in the face of the inadequacy of the knowledge base underlying university education in business administration and management, two national studies were conducted. These led to the transformation of that knowledge base and of higher education in business management itself. It may well be time for a similar move to advance higher education for volunteer administration.

Finally, we need substantial research into the nature of training and education for volunteer administration itself. There is too little systematic sharing of on-going experience, and a dearth of careful empirical and comparative studies. Also, recommendations and proposals for educational programs in this field are generated usually without adequate understanding of actual program experience elsewhere. It would be useful to have carefully developed, widely disseminated case studies of present and past higher-educational programs in volunteer administration. Our own pilot study is no substitute for the latter. And given that the higher education situation is changing in America so rapidly, an extensive, well-funded, comparative research study of higher education for volunteer administration would be very valuable if conducted over a several year period beginning in a year or two.

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RECOMMENDATIONS FROM

CURRICULA INTEREST AREAS

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RECOMMENDATIONS FROM CURRICULA INTEREST AREAS

Conference participants met together in curricula interest areas to explore the implications of the papers for their specific university responsibility of teaching, research, or extension. The three curricula interest areas were: (1) social services, (2) 4-H and youth development, and (3) education. At the plenary session on Thursday afternoon, a representative from each area presented a summary of the group's discussion and recommendations. Dr. Courtney Schwertz chaired the session. The reports, with minor editing, are reproduced below as presented in the plenary session.

Education: Presented by Kathryn Treat

Basically, our group represented people in adult education and cooperative extension representing a number of fields, we had community college people, and so on. And as you can expect, there was considerable diversity within the group - we had some very stimulating discussions throughout the week. We really spoke our mind as we tried to categorize and pull our ideas together. We felt that they basically dealt with the three major functions that we see of a land grant university and I think that this is true of many other private groups and universities too. Most of our ideas fell under the areas of research, teaching, and service. I will give you a few of those that we discussed under these areas and some we did take the time to go into more depth about.

In relation to research, we were concerned about research areas such as motivation of volunteers and seeking the need for more information and research in this area. We were concerned about the role of the university - whether it is a land grant or other and how universities view volunteerism. We were concerned about evaluation of volunteer programs, a reflection of hearing a variety of research designs. We felt that there could be more support in relation to designing research programs. We also talked about defining concepts and terms. We felt that there was a need for more information in the area of conceptualization. Those were just some of the things in research. We did agree on a number of areas of needed research and .en we got off on talking about how do we promote research, because we felt that was a major concern as we went back to our own universities and colleges.

Under the teaching area, we discussed items such as how does the university prepare students to be volunteer managers, and particularly we got into what was some of the differences about volunteer managers, what are some of the possible curriculum areas - do we really have a curriculum for volunteer managers?

We talked about implications for the job market in relation to teaching - do college faculty use volunteer experience in relation to helping young people prepare for jobs? We also talked about training models considerably, and how do we help people who will be volunteer managers implement training models for volunteers?

Under the area of service, we primarily talked about again some implications for the job market. What is the universities role in relation to the community in promoting volunteerism. We discussed at considerable length the concept of status quo versus change. How does the university promote volunteerism and what

kind of volunteer activities do they sanction? That got us into a great deal of discussion and contro ersy in those areas. We did come up with some recommendations as we looked at the ideas that we have talked about in the last few days from areas that we felt could be recommendations. The first one was in terms of developing university task forces within university systems, and a way to resolve or look at problems in relation to volunteerism, i.e., to make the university community m re aware of the interdisciplinary nature of volunteerism, to draw upon many university faculty together as a task force to focus ideas, and to look at volunteerism and to bring together theory and practice from many fields.

I think basically we saw each of us representing different kinds of university systems and felt that it was a need to go back to our own universities and plant the seeds for this particular idea. We also felt a need and recommendation in terms of delineation of the university's responsibility for trainees. Just what is the responsibility of the university for training professionals for volunteerism, both in the graduate and undergraduate level. In relation to this we had some community college representatives talking about the role of the community college and how do we provide a linkage system from the university level where there is a state or land grant university down to the community college level and what are the responsibilities of these areas? We also discussed and talked about the recommendations as seeing the major role of the university as a facilitator to provide the linkages between teaching and research for theoretical levels to the practical levels and seeing extension, continuing education, and community colleges as an intermediate link and then getting down to the field level. We saw this as a real need to have some way of facilitating, to bring together theory orientation and the practitioner, and the need for some systems in order to implement that. And we finally discussed this morning the challenge in terms of the ideas that have come together here this week in bringing together theory and practice and the ideas of translating knowledge, making it acceptable to field workers, and we saw a real challenge in this particular area.

4-H and Youth Development: Presented by Phylis Stout

We came to this conference with a variety of backgrounds and work situations even though all of us were in cooperative extension and concerned with youth programs, but certainly there was a diversity of backgrounds in the group.

We had our agreements and we had our disagreements as you can expect. All I am really going to report to you on are the areas in which we ha e agreement. I suspect we each are going home with a set of notes and if ו o compare the notes they probably would not agree. So this is the thin, we basically reached agreement on. One was the interaction with people f other situations and other agencies (the opportunities we have had in 's conference) have been stimulating and I think that we each have felt that we have gotten some new ideas from the presentations. We did agree that the land grant university does have a role in providing curricula for volunteers and people who work with volunteers, but this would vary from state to state and each institution would have to set up its own priorities if it has not already done so. We do think that we do need to develop curriculums for the various audiences that are involved such as the administrator, the manager, or agents, if you want to use the extension terminology, and volunteer. The content will vary but there will b some general areas applicable to all. However, these will need to be

tailored to specific audiences. There will be overlapping but we will have to
tailor to the particular audience. We feel the content can be delivered either
in formal or informal situations and for credit or without credit. I think we
have reaffirmed that volunteers are very important and essential in the carrying-
out of a program. We did look at several models and had a large amount of
discussion on them - I am not sure we came to any agreement except that we should
look at various kinds of models and I think we kind of ended up on the note that
we have just made a beginning and that this has been a positive experience. A
great deal more of work needs to be done.

Social Services: Presented by Donna Lavins

There seems to be a continuum here from agreement from in-between to extreme
disagreement and that's what our group was. We are all of the social sciences,
we were of a hodgepodge of the left-overs from all of the other groups. We had
sociologists, anthropologists, psychologists, educational administrators; we
had volunteers and we tried to find an essential area - a focus. What we ended
up talking about was philosophy. Hence, this is going to raise some questions
for all of us.

We started out with Jon Van Til talking about volunteerism as being a social
movement and the fact that the social movement is now identifying a series of
curriculums, a series of professional certificates, a series of associations, a
series of affiliations, a series of philosophies to support its existence. Not
only is it a social movement, but it is an increasingly large interest within
the United States and has a very large population affiliated with it and there
is potential that the volunteer movement is growing. The question that we as
volunteer administrators, or people working in the volunteer movement, have to
deal with is: Are we in fact having any effect on the economy? Is that a good
effect? Is that a negative effect? Are we in fact preparing volunteers to
fill positions that should be filled by paid personnel? I think it is something
that we have to be cognizant of and conscious of in developing our own programs.
That is how we started our discussion.

We tried to reach agreement in terms of the long-range aspects of volunteerism
and what we would have to look for. What does it mean to the volunteer and what
are the values that we can define as being necessary in volunteerism and the
concepts of a student? For example, personal development, job preparation is
important and the effect on the community is important. We also talked about the
reciprocality between the deliverer of the services (the volunteer) and the
recipient of the services, each fulfilling certainly a very important part of
the relation between those two actors This is going to be a little bit difficult
to summarize, but basically the volunteer benefits are: There is direct and
indirect personal contact with people, a person gains experience, there is a way
of self-expression, a person gains skills, self-esteem, recreation and a number
of other basic human needs. For the recipient of services (and this is very
limited, obviously) the client receives services, indirect or direct services,
support, attention, learns and often teaches the volunteer. I think that we
have to remember that in every volunteer position there are two actors and that
we really have to realize that when you are doing something good, you are doing
something good for yourself as well as for the person that is receiving the services.
We decided that we need more study in terms of the effect on the economy. We need

more study in terms of whether it is appropriate to have a professional institution of volunteers. Is it appropriate to have graduate studies for volunteer administrators? That was a question that was raised and we certainly did not resolve it at all. There are pros and cons to both issues. A large percentage of the group, I think, believed that it was more appropriate to work with existing graduate programs and supplement that with more volunteer kinds of philosophies, research, administrative management kinds of courses so that there would be (maybe in public administration or community services) a focus of volunteerism.

We talked about clearing houses within the university. There was some dissention as to whether it was appropriate for one central body within the university to maintain a clearing house function throughout the university or whether it's better to be sort of decentralized and controlled by various groups, perhaps academic groups and dean of students and administrative offices. There are pro and cons to that issue as well. The clearing house is seen as a way to avoid duplication and repetition in developing volunteer positions in certain evaluation techniques, and in contact with community groups. The question of control of each of those sections has to be dealt with at the university level. For example, political scientists would probably not encourage the students to earn credit through anthropology if the internship program, or volunteer program, was very relevant to political science. So, obviously, there are certain areas of expertise in the university and you have to relate those areas of expertise to the programs that you are working on in the clearing house. The decentralized model was discussed as being appropriate for specializations. Psychology should certainly have a lot of control over students who are working in clinical programs. (Additional comments by Margie follow.)

A couple of ideas that stuck in my mind were Mr. Van Til's statements that a concern of institutionalizing or over institutionalizing might destroy the spontaneity of volunteerism could perhaps change the motivation, the internal reward structure that has been the basis of our volunteer experience. We too discussed the differences between experiential learning and what we have called voluntary action. We talked about it as a volunteer experience incorporated into the classroom and giving credit is the same thing as voluntary action. We thought that working for credit turns it into a different entity, although very valuable, but it is not the same thing at this point. We are working for a different motivation and a different reward. I guess those are two ideas that stuck in my mind.

One other concept we talked about in relation to the clearing house function and this is, "Is there actually a commitment of the university to the community?" It is a good question because what you find is that the students themselves are usually the ones who are really relating to the volunteer agencies and the volunteer work. Often the university, the faculty, and the physical resources of the university are not being utilized by the volunteer sector, by the clients and if, in fact, our volunteer services and our internship programs are to promote better communication between the community and university, then there would be a deeper commitment between the university and the community in terms of getting the faculty out into the community, in terms of having the faculty look and see what the students are doing within the community, or bringing in some of the teenage groups or senior citizens to utilize some of the resources in the university.

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CLOSING COMMENTS

FUTURE FOR COLLEGES
AND UNIVERSITIES IN VOLUNTEERISM

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Future Ho

Attempting to divine the future of the Volunteer movement in the
United States is as difficult and complex as trying to predict the status
of economic and social   ...itions in the United States. A prerequisite
to the question of where one might go is, of course, to know where one is.
Not to engage in such a status assessment is to be put in the position of
a pilot whose navigational equipment has failed and reports to the pas-
sengers, "We're not sure where we are or where we're going, but I can
report that we're making good time."

This conference and others like it represent an attempt to look at
"what is"—the state of the art from which we might extrapolate "what
might be."

My personal, non-data based, "gut reaction" is that we've only seen
the "tip of the iceberg" regarding the future of volunteer participation
in our society. For that matter, we may only be able to see the tip of that
same iceberg in assessing volunteer contributions today. Given the assump-
tion that people-power constitutes a nation's most valuable national re-
source, it is not only popular but incumbent on all of us to utilize that
resource to its fullest potential.

If I have concerns about the value of such a conference as this,
they are:

(1) While appropriate for colleges and universities to discuss the
past, present and future of volunteerism and the colleges'/universities'
role in that movement; too often I am impressed that we are engaged in
one-way and therefore meaningless "communication."

At the outset of this particular conference, over 80% of the
conferees pre-registered were college and university personnel. With
fewer than one in five of the participants representing the agencies which
utilize volunteer services, I am concerned that we talk only among our-
selves about how the "world ought to be" and don't receive sufficient in-
put about "how the world really is."

(2) I a concerned too, that we have, through our higher education
preoccupation on publish, present and perform, developed an environment
where we have too many talkers and not enough listeners. There wer listed
more authors and co-authors of papers at the beginning of this conference
than there were participants. When we find ourselves with 3-4 papers to
be read to an audience smaller than the presenters, I'm dubious about
whether we accomplish much dissemination of ideas.

(3) Lastly, I am concerned about the potential har . of over-organizing, institutionalizing and quantifying an idea which is based upon the very uniqueness of the individual, the organization and the peculiar individual motivation which creates something called "volunteering."

In attempting to anticipate the future of volunteer activity in our society, I have consciously attempted not to become expert or well-read in the field, believing that most futures are not planned and that large numbers of good ideas have been generated spontaneously and quite often as a result of some unplanned (should I say, unpredictable) occurrence.

What data I have confirms that our human resource base, when measured by people-time available, will increase dramatically in the future--exponentially not arithmetically, given (1) fewer children whom we keep occupied by "cold storage function" of schools and other time-consuming activities, (2) more people, (3) longer life span, and (4) fewer hours devoted to income-producing activities.

I would submit to you also that the larger percentage of volunteer workers will not be engaged in major community or institutionally coordinated activities. The clergyman, scout leader, school principal and civic organizations will continue to be responsible for attracting the largest numbers and percentages of volunteers.

When I reviewed my own experience as a volunteer over the past year, I came up with the following:

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100 hours - chairman of sub-committee to determine the feasibility
            of Blacksburg's becoming a city;
 50 hours - high school track team--driving, timing;
 20 hours - Radford track meet;
 10 hours - merit badge counselor - Boy Scouts
  5 hours - selling Christmas trees - Boosters Club
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These experiences provided me with some interesting insights about the volunteer and his/her attitudes which don't necessarily fit the assumptions or models developed and presented in the Rainman and Lippitt book. My motivation varied across the entire spectrum, ranging from:

INTEREST - desire to make a contribution,
WILLINGNESS - I was going to be around anyway,
PIT" - They need someone to help,
RESENTMENT - (a) Previous commitment made on quid pro quo basis
                 but something I hadn't unhooked from,
             (b) You owe us because . . .

None of these involvements came about because of a formal structure, and to be quite honest, those formal units which solicit, recruit, train and coordinate volunteers don't turn me on.

The diverse problems facing unclassified "recruiters" are of the type I think we need to address in our next round of considerations. The process

is not nearly so neat and clean as we might make it in our institutionalized, flow-charted and planned models.

The Priest of St. Mary's Church, for example, depends on 200+ hours of volunteer work weekly. Although that work, in part, may depend upon all of those ingredients outlined in good theory, e.g. planned recruitment, training, feedback, feeling of contribution, etc., in large measure the continuation of the volunteer's service may well depend more on the individual's personal notion of or perception of his/her contribution as a Christian charity or, unfortunately perhaps, the length and content of the weekly sermon.

Such relationships are drawn simply to indicate that there are likely too few truths which may be generalized to the volunteer process. To look for them may be an interesting academic exercise; to presume that we have found them may be foolhardy.

What I am trying to say quite simply is that VISTA and other programs of national scope may lend themselves to modeling; local institutions (especially single purpose) may be able to utilize effective practices which can be implemented over time in a systematic fashion, but the large consumer-- the small, one-person operation, which constantly changes its needs and client groups, will likely find that only a few of the principles of "big business" apply.

I could go on to tell you numerous success stories about effective use of volunteers in public school programs, (I was disappointed that there were no papers presented on that topic since there are 50,000 school facilities enrolling 40 million + children touching entire communities) but will not bore you. I have left copies of the Newsletter to Volunteers produced this week by the principal at Harding Avenue School, who is responsible for recruiting over 100 adults contributing nearly 1000 hours of volunteer time to that 500-student school each month. For those of you who might be interested in the specifics of volunteer programs/opportunities in the schools, I would refer you to Jerry Abbott's book, The Teacher and His Staff, published by Prentice-Hall.

Well, for what it's worth, that's how one man sees the volunteer movement, with a little past, present and future all mixed up. In spite of the concerns expressed about the possibility of colleges and universities fouling up a good idea (we've done that before), I am convinced that there are meaningful contributions we might make:

(1) We need to talk more with consumers--especially the small units who will continue to use the greatest percent of all volunteers.

(2) We need to find out what, if anything, we can do to help them run and manage effective volunteer programs.

(3) We need to develop short, simple, easily accessible, self-paced learning modules designed around specific tasks faced by the volunteer manager.

(4) We need to consider the development of training programs to prepare trainers of trainees. In education, for example, we have found that

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some senior students find out too late that they simply don't like kids.
Having invested three + years, they don't always drop out--since another
degree requires additional courses, and besides, the experience may have
been atypical. At present it is impossible for a student to graduate
in education without certification. Having other social service options
available would be extremely desirable both for the college student and
the public school students.

Ample opportunities are available for preparing such a person to serve
as a coordinator of volunteer services. From a cost-benefit viewpoint, most
school boards would welcome the opportunity to recruit such an individual;
especially when the expenditure of funds at a rate comparable to one teacher
may have the effect of increasing the staffing equivalency available to a
school by 30% or more. Evidence does exist which shows the improvement in
attitude, performance and attendance in schools when the adult/student
ratio is improved.

Certainly, there are other opportunities to contribute to the volunteer
movement. Consultant, service, training programs, and research are all
required, but certainly with some attention to the limitations and real-
world conditions in which the volunteer functions. We will see more writing
and more conferences, more modeling and more evaluating. I would submit
that the most important research to be accomplished is the development of
adequate and accurate base-line data, descriptions of programs and the
unique condition surrounding those programs which have made them work or
made them fail.

There is need to improve horizontal communication, such that ideas
flow from university to another, in order that research findings and
promising practices are communicated. There is greater need, in my judge-
ment, to attend to vertical communication--bridging the gap between theory
and practice--communicating effectively with the large group of users in
order that their techniques may be improved and that we may know about
what works and what doesn't.

We must be careful not to expend all of our energy in the former
activity--building, designing, operating and maintaining the research and
publications network, leaving insufficient time to develop the effective
dissemination network.

All of these opportunities and challenges face us now and in the
future. Future ho, indeed! The future is now, and it is us.