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"Quick Tips": A Manual for Not-for-Profit Organizations

Mary Brooks

"QUICK TIPS"

A MANUAL FOR NOT-FOR-PROFIT ORGANIZATIONS

Mary Brooks, B.S.

**An Abstract Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate
School of Lindenwood College in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the
Degree of Master of Science in Marketing**

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ABSTRACT

This thesis will focus on the study of volunteerism within a not-for-profit organization. Meeting the growing demand for volunteers and controlling their high turnover could determine how smoothly a nonprofit organization runs.

In the past the need for volunteers and nonprofit organizations was not as great as it is today. There are at least two reasons for this upward trend. The first reason is more women are working outside the home leaving less leisure time for volunteering. The second reason is the government is playing a smaller role thus causing the public to seek help elsewhere.

Research has attributed the lack of training, time, boredom, burnout and shortage of volunteers as the leading causes for the high turnover rate among volunteers in nonprofit organizations. Because of these conditions, it is necessary to focus on management as the source of the problem.

Further research attributed that management within a nonprofit organization often lacks adequate training, educational material or the drive required to work with volunteers.

The purpose of the present study is to get four view points on a manual designed specifically for management within a nonprofit

organization. The evaluators came from various work and educational backgrounds. They were given a cover letter with survey consisting of six questions and a copy of the manual. The survey was sent via first class mail in an uncontrolled setting. They were asked to answer the questions to the best of their ability and to return the survey within a limited time.

Results from the survey concluded that, overall, the manual could be a useful tool in managing volunteers. However, on certain topics, more detailed information was needed.

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COMMITTEE IN CHARGE OF CANDIDACY:

Assistant Professor Daniel W. Kemper,
Chairperson and Advisor

Adjunct Assistant Professor Karen Johnson

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INTRODUCTION

Not-For-Profit Industry

A nonprofit organization is an economic entity that provides a socially desirable service. There are four distinct characterics which separate nonprofit from for-profit firms. The first characteristic is that there is no ownership; that is, shares that can be sold or traded by individuals. It uses any excess revenue over expenses or expenditures to enlarge the service capability of the organization. The second characteristic of a nonprofit organization is that it is financed in part by taxes and/or contributions based on some measure of ability to pay. Some or all of their services are distributed on the basis of need rather than effective demand for them. The third characteristic is that it is exempt from federal income and most state and local property taxes. The fourth and most important characteristic of concern is that nonprofit organizations rely heavily on volunteer work for their survival. Unfortunately, both management of nonprofit agencies, their paid employees who work directly with volunteers, and the volunteers themselves, tend to take performing the work lightly and this attitude is one of many reasons such a high turnover rate exists in the nonprofit sector (Henke 25).

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Table 1

Anatomy Of The Nonprofit Sector

The Nonprofit Sector - (= 1,140,000)

Member-Serving (=400,000)	Public-Serving (=740,000)
Social Clubs	Funding Intermediaries
Business Associations	Churches
Labor Unions	Service Providers
Political Parties	Political Action Agencies
Member Cooperatives	

SOURCE: Salamon, Lester M. America's Nonprofit Sector-A Primer. The Johns Hopkins University, 1992.

Table 1 depicts the organizational design of the nonprofit sector, a group consisting of 1,140,000 members. Of these members, 400,000 belong to the Member Serving group and 740,000 are public-serving. The member serving segments are organizations that, while having some public purpose, primarily exist to provide a benefit to the members of the organization rather than to the public at large. Examples of these types are The American Banker Association or The Lion's Club (Salamon 13-14).

Public serving segments are organizations that exist primarily to serve the public at large rather than the members of the organizations. Some examples of these types are the American Red Cross and the American Cancer Society. Because of their size and popularity, the public

serving groups are what most often come into peoples' minds when they speak of the "nonprofit sector" (14).

The public serving segment can be broken down into two forms: collective and trust. A "collective-type" nonprofit provides services that generate a sizable "external" benefit to persons who do not help to finance the organization's activities. Examples of this type are medical research and art museums (Booth 65).

The "trust-type" are nonprofits that provide trustworthy information to consumers who cannot easily judge the quality of services for themselves. Some example of this type are daycare centers or nursing homes.

Nonprofit organizations can be broken down even further, into voluntary and involuntary supported entities. Examples of these types are hospitals and churches. Governmental entities supported by tax assessments make up the involuntary supported group. Examples of these types are cities, politics, and schools (66).

Nonprofit organizations can also be divided into categories based on the nature of support from their constituencies. For example, some organizations such as hospitals and private colleges are often expected to sustain their own normal operations after receiving only an initial capital contribution. Another group consists of organizations that require full or partial operating support indefinitely. This group includes governmental

units supported by periodic tax assessments. Examples of these types are health and welfare agencies (67).

Depending on the size of the organization, the structure of a typical nonprofit may consist of a president, vice-president, executive director, secretary, treasurer, several committees such as finance, fund raising, planning, nominating, volunteers, board of directors, and an advisory board. Listed below are a few of the job descriptions and responsibilities (Fine 58).

The Board of Directors may consist of unpaid volunteers who shoulder the organization's legal, fiscal, and ethical responsibilities. Their responsibilities include acting as the organization's legal guardian. They construct the bylaws and ensure that they are periodically updated. They are also responsible for filing the required forms with the state and federal government. The Board of Directors meets annually to insure that the organization is still focused on reaching its avowed purpose. The Board also oversees the financial means of its organization. Almost all Boards raise funds to support financial operations. Every board member, in accordance with his or her own means, should contribute annually to the organization. The size of the Board of Directors varies, depending on how large the organization is. A recent survey taken by the United Way of New York found that the majority of the city's nonprofit boards had somewhere between twenty and forty members. Organizations with an annual budget of a quarter-million dollars or less have no more than twenty-four board members (Setterberg, Schulman 254).

The Executive Director is hired by the Board to manage the day to day business of an organization. In turn work as a liaison between the Board of Directors and the staff. The Executive Director is responsible for hiring and training staff and volunteer personnel. This director should attend every board and committee meeting (254).

A nonprofit organization may have an advisory board to work alongside an organization's Board of Directors. An ad hoc group of individuals assembled for a particular reason, it meets infrequently or is called together in a crisis. It has no real authority. An advisory board may make recommendations upon the request of the executive director regarding new or special programs, or it may be called on for advice in problem solving or planning. Organizations may use these advisors to assist in opening doors and identifying prospects for solicitation purposes (255).

Personal Characterics

Nonprofit executives' personalities, language, and professional motivation are different from those of a business executive. A nonprofit executive is stereotyped as being evenly paced. Their body language is generally slow or studied and their decision making is timid and thought out. They try not to take risks. Their time is not computed in terms of total cost. A business executive supposedly moves at a more rapid pace. Their body language is staccato. Decisions are made more quickly. They are more

willing to take risks. Their time is computed in terms of total cost (McKinney 76).

Two separate case studies using graduate students in management who entered the for-profit and nonprofit sectors showed marked differences in personality, values, and behavior. Other findings disclosed no significant differences in their problem-solving ability, intelligence, or creativity. Those choosing the nonprofits scored significantly higher in the California Psychological Inventory tests of personal relations, dominance, capacity for status, social presence, and flexibility. On a test of values (Rokeach Value Survey), persons preferring to work in the nonprofit sector gave higher rankings to being cheerful, forgiving and helpful. By contrast, those preferring the proprietary sector attached more importance to financial prosperity, ambition, neatness, obedience, and dependability. They also displayed a greater need for power and less need for security (measured by Ghiselli Self-Description Inventory) (Drucker 90).

Historical Perspective

Nonprofit organizations have existed for a long time, starting with the defense militias, church, and institutions caring for the poor and the sick.

Initially, individuals volunteered to serve others and the community. DeTocqueville commented on the tendency of Americans to participate in civic clubs and organizations during his 1831-32 visit to

America. The volunteer fire department is a good example of such organizations. It functioned with a minimum paid staff and cash flow, except for the occasional purchase of capital equipment such as fire engines (McLaughlin 6).

With the coming of the Industrial Revolution came greater wealth, greater urbanization, and greater need. Individuals and organizations began to donate to charitable organizations that could take care of the less fortunate using paid staff and managers as well as volunteers. Services to clients were heavily subsidized with the coming of the income tax in 1917. The government began to provide some incentive to give and began to pay a share of the cost subsidy indirectly. This tradition continues today with foundations, United Fund drives, and national endowments for the arts and humanities. In such organizations donor interests play a large role in determining what services are to be provided and how (7).

From the 1950's through the 1980's, the federal government increasingly entered the picture, identifying services and levels of service to which all members of certain targeted groups were entitled. No attempt was made to limit the delivery of such services to the public sector and both the private for-profit and nonprofit sectors chose to become providers. The volunteer fire departments that once existed on volunteer labor and donations to purchase fire engines now added rescue squads with federally trained EMS technicians and charged fees to Medicare and Medicaid where

applicable. The local government collected a district fire tax to subsidize the rescue squad to levels prescribed by federal and state programs. There were fewer volunteers and more paid professionals (8).

In the 1990's, the public is seeing less governmental funding and more nonprofits. More competition for limited dollars will cause nonprofits to seek funding from other sources, including local government, foundations, and traditional private sources.

There are several reasons why the nonprofit sector came into existence. The first was because society predated the state. In other words, communities formed before governmental institutions were in place to help deal with their common concerns such as schools, police, and fire departments (Lohman 214).

The second reason was because nonprofits were motivated by certain inherent limitations of the market system or market failure, which dominated the American economy, goods that can only be consumed collectively such as clean air or national defense, etc. These so-called public goods involve a serious "Free-Rider" problem; once they are produced, everyone can benefit from them, even if they have not shared in the cost (214).

The third reason nonprofits came into existence was contract failure. This is a different kind of a market failure. It occurs when the purchase of a service is not the same as what the consumer receives.

An example of this type is nursing homes, where the elderly have limited consumer choices (215).

The fourth reason for the existence of nonprofit organizations is the inherent limitations of the government as a provider, or government failure of collective goods. For government to take action requires a majority support. By forming nonprofit organizations, smaller groups of people can address needs and create awareness (215).

The nonprofit sector has shared in the high growth rate of the service sector for a number of years. Services now make up over half of the United States' economy and have provided most of the increase in employment for the last thirty years (Unterman, Davis 25).

In 1973, volunteers gave nearly six billion hours in free time to charitable and religious organizations. This is the equivalent of three million full-time, permanent workers. The value of services performed in 1973 was at $19 billion. The value of services of volunteers in 1959 was $6.2 billion and in 1969 was $11.5 billion (Peterson, White 29).

In 1980, the nonprofit sector comprised twenty percent of the United States' economy and twenty-eight percent of its employment. Eighty million Americans volunteered time to organizations. This is equivalent to almost five million full-time employees. The tax records of the IRS reported 841,000 nonprofit organizations, excluding churches (McLaughlin 256).

More people are volunteering in the 1990's. Every second American adult now serves as a volunteer in the nonprofit sector and spends at least three hours a week in a nonprofit work (Reiss 55). The nonprofit organization is America's largest employer. The meaning of volunteering has changed. It is central to the quality of life in America, central to citizenship, and indeed carries the values of American society and of the American tradition.

Volunteers come from professional and nonprofessional backgrounds and from all age and ethnic groups. Traits common to these diversified people are that they are conscientious of their rights and demand to know how organizations will use their talents. Today, people are volunteering for various reasons: people have more discretionary time available; employers are encouraging their employees to donate volunteer services; people are retiring earlier and living longer; young people see volunteer work as career exploration. An example of this type is volunteering in a hospital. They can find out if they like the hospital environment before investing any time or money. Volunteering can be an outlet for creative people such as clowning, artists and actors. People who do not have the opportunity to demonstrate their leadership ability in the work place can do so when volunteering. People volunteer for other reasons such as recognition, socialization, and personal growth.

A 1991 Gallop study commissioned by the "Independent Sector," a national coalition of over 350 voluntary organizations, private

foundations, and corporations, states that fifty-two percent of American adults and fifty-three percent of teenagers volunteered between March 1990 and March 1991 (Maurer 24).

Statistical Data

The financial totals listed below are for years 1982 through 1987, no later data was available. These totals consist of all public nonprofit organizations throughout the United States: health services, education/research, religious, social/legal services, civic, social, arts and culture, and foundations. Nonprofit organizations have seen a steady growth in revenues. In 1982, their total revenue went from $196.3 billion to almost doubling in 1987 to $310.8 billion (Hodgkinson, Weitzman, Toppe, and Noga 153). However, expenses also rose steadily, almost matching revenues from $181.3 billion in 1982 to $288.7 in 1987 (153). If revenue continues to grow as it has for the previous five years, 1992's total revenue should be approximately $425.3 billion, with expenses at $396.1 billion (153).

Health service, the largest sector, has also seen the biggest increase in revenue within the nonprofit group. In 1977, this sector received $51.30 billion dollars (forty-four percent) and has increased to $191.40 billion dollars (forty-six percent) in 1989 (153). The 1990's should be interesting for this sector. The so-called health care reform, hospitals merging, and insurance companies taking on more of an influential role, may cause a need

for more nonprofits than ever before. The government has always had in the past and will continue to do so much control in revenues for health care. However, their best action would be not to dictate how health care should be but to merely take on a watch-dog approach for everyone's benefit.

Since the nonprofit industry is so complex, exact numbers on the average cost of setting-up a nonprofit business was not available (Table 2). However, since nonprofits rely on donations for their source of income, it would be fair to assume that a business can be started with very little cash flow. The St. Louis chapter of the "Make-A-Wish" Foundation was started with two hundred dollars in the bank. Their office is rent-free, donated by a local insurance company. General expenses such as telephone and payroll are paid from funds collected through donations.

Solid data on the scope of the nonprofit sector or of its constituent parts are difficult to piece together and sensitive to differences in record-keeping. (Some organizations treat their branches as separate organizations and others as integral parts of a single parent organizations; many organizations carry out a multitude of activities and cannot easily be classified in one category). Based on the available data, however, it appears that approximately 360,000 active nonprofit, public-benefit service organizations existed as of 1987 (Wolf 175). Of these, more detailed information was available on those with at least one paid employee. As of 1987, there were 164,360 such organizations (176). As shown in the graph

below, these organizations are not distributed evenly among the various

service fields.

Table 2

Scope of U.S. Nonprofit Public-Benefit Service Sector

# of Organizations (thousands)	Expenditures (billions)
Arts 2%	$280-$295
Health 11%	$120-$280
Education 22%	$40-$120
Civic Social 25%	$20-$40
Social Services 39%	$0-20

Source: M. Booth and Associates. Promoting Issues & Ideas - A Guide To Public Relations For Nonprofit. Jossey-Bass Inc. Publishers, (1992) 426-474.

Solid data on just how many nonprofits discontinued operations

are difficult to retrieve because the totals are broken down into categories.

For example, between the years of 1987-1989, 2,212 organizations

throughout the United States within the "Human Service" area closed their

doors (Hodgkinson, Weitsman, Toppe and Noga 474). However, the total

number of closings between 1987-1989 is also broken down by states. For

example, there were 1,779 closings in Illinois (426). There were 968 closings

in Missouri during the same time period (474). These amounts include all

categories.

There are four major challenges that nonprofit organizations

must face to survive. The first major challenge is to define a clear public

service mission. The ultimate mission of the profit-making entity is to earn money for its owners. The concept of ownership is completely absent from nonprofit organizations such an entity exists to serve a broad public purpose. Money is directed toward the public purpose for which the organization was set up (Wolf 12).

The second major challenge for a nonprofit organization is that of testing for organized abandonment. For nonprofits, it is not nearly as obvious when things should change because there is not a single objective criterion by which to measure success or failure. There is also no predictable outside pressure to reorganize or disband. Because there is no voting group moving quickly to protect its investments, the governing group and staff can continue operating for years without a real sense of purpose (12).

The third major challenge for a nonprofit organization is the risk/survival analysis, or the search for the proper balance between organizational exterior and risk taking and organizational security. Nonprofits do not have a bottom-line. They see themselves as being righteous and moral and serving a cause. They are not as willing to say, if it does not produce results, then maybe it should direct its resources elsewhere (Wolf 13).

The fourth major challenge for a nonprofit organization is the challenge of constituency identification and involvement. A nonprofit organization must clearly identify those it intends to serve. Once this is established, then it must work toward an organizational structure

through the board, staff, and activities which reinforces its commitment to that group (Wolf 14).

There are procedures a nonprofit organization should use in order to properly disband. However, some small nonprofits may simply disband by stopping their operations and selling off all assets or appointing of a receiver. This in itself is not considered a legal dissolution. Typically, voluntary dissolution is initiated by the required vote of an organization's membership and/or board of directors. A certificate of dissolution is filed with the secretary of state, and approval of the dissolution from the State Supreme Court (or other appropriate administrative body) should be attached to the certificate. Nonprofit organizations can be dissolved by the following: repeal of the enabling stature under which they were incorporated; death or withdrawal of substantially all the members; surrender of the charter by voted action of the members in accordance with statutory procedures; expiration of the stated period of duration of the corporation annexation of the charter by State authorities for improper corporate conduct court order; on the application of creditors or members in accordance with statutory procedures (Duca 12).

Formally declaring (voluntary or involuntary) dissolution is not the end of the process. The organization's assets must be liquidated and distributed. During this winding down period, which according to some state statutes cannot exceed three years, the board of directors meets and votes on matters related to the organizational liquidation proceedings.

The assets of a dissolving charitable organization must go toward charitable purposes (12).

Nonprofit organizations receive their funding or support from three different sources. The first and major source of support is the fees, service charges, and other commercial income which makes up fifty-one percent of the income. Included are college tuition payments, charges for hospital care not covered by government health insurance, other direct payments for services, and income from investments and sales of products. This source alone accounts for over half of all nonprofit service-organization revenues (Salamon 15).

The second most important source of income of America's nonprofit, public-benefit, service organization is government. Government grants, contracts, and reimbursements account for thirty-one percent of nonprofit service-organization income. This reflects a widespread pattern of partnership between government and the nonprofit sector in carrying out public purposes, from the delivery of health care to the provision of education (16).

The third source of income is received through private giving. The eighteen percent of total income that nonprofits receive from private giving makes this only the third largest source of nonprofit service-organization income. Private donations are received through three funding intermediaries. The first and most important is the independent grant making foundations. These are nonprofit organizations set up to administer

an endowment typically left for charitable purposes by a single individual and to distribute all or some of the earnings from that endowment to nonprofit organizations pursuing public purposes. Of the nearly 32,000 foundations in existence as of 1989, almost 29,000 or ninety percent were independent foundations. These independent foundations control eighty-six percent of all foundations assets and accounted for seventy-five percent of all foundation grants (17).

Corporate foundations receive their funds from business corporations that want to award the fluctuations that come from financing corporate charitable activities from current income alone. There were nearly 1,600 corporate foundations in 1989. They controlled four percent of all foundation assets and accounted for eighteen percent of all foundations grants. This excludes of course, the amounts that corporations give to charitable purposes directly (17-18).

Community foundations exist when both independent and corporate foundations receive their funds from a single source. Community foundations receive them from a number of sources in a given community. The basic concept of a community foundation is that wealthy individuals in a community, rather than tying their bequests to a particular organization that may go out of business or become less relevant over time, can pool them though a community foundation. A board of local citizens is put in charge of deciding what the best use of the resources might be at a given point in time. Altogether 282 community

foundations were in existence in 1989, they accounted for four percent of all foundation assets and five percent of all foundation grants (Weisbrod 25).

There are facts to remember when assessing the role of foundations in the nonprofit sector. The first fact is that most foundations are quite small. The top one percent of all foundations—362 institutions in all—controlled sixty-six percent of all foundation assets as of 1989 (25). By contrast, those with less than $10 million in assets represented ninety-five percent of all foundations but accounted for only seventeen percent of all the assets (26).

The second fact to remember is that while private foundations control significant assets, they hardly represent a major force in America's economy, $137.50 billion in foundation assets (27). The third fact to remember is that $7.9 billion in foundation grants represented only about seven percent of all private charitable contributions and only fourteen percent of all nonreligious charitable donations (28).

The second funding intermediary is the federated funders, organizations which collect private donations on behalf of a number of service organizations. Examples of these types of funders are the United Jewish Appeal and The United Way (28).

The third funding intermediaries are the professional fund-raisers, individuals and firms that are professionally involved in raising private contributions on behalf of private nonprofit organizations. Larger

nonprofit organizations typically employ one or more professional fund-
raisers on their regular staff. A typical large university or cultural
institution may have a development office that employs twenty or twenty-
five fund raisers (28) .

Nonprofit organizations do not pay for their public relations or
media coverage. There are basically two successful tools nonprofits use to
promote their causes. The first is the "In-Kind" philanthropy, otherwise
known as the bordering system, in which businesses donate goods and
services in exchange for free advertising for their company. The second
tool is the "Cause-Related Marketing." This type of marketing refers to
programs that are mutually beneficial to a private firm and a selected
social or charitable cause (O'Neill 51).

Other techniques nonprofit organizations uses to gain publicity is
a "feel good" news story, columns about their organization in the national
or local newspapers, magazines, or trade journals. Members of the
organizations may make public appearances or be interviewed on
television or radio about a coming event such as a fund raiser (51).

Nonprofit organizations use several public relations tools to
motivate the sympathetic and to convince the less sympathetic to fund or
support their cause. Examples of these tools are speeches, round tables,
panel discussions, briefings, lectures, public speaking, luncheon meetings,
association gatherings, and annual meetings (52).

Special events are also an effective public relations tool. Although most special events sponsored by nonprofit organizations are primarily for fundraising purposes, they can work hand in hand. Examples of these types are theater benefits and premieres, raffles, blacktie dinners, and receptions. They provide the potential opportunity for publicity and media coverage, especially if public relations opportunities are built into the planning and then exploited during the events (53).

Other special events such as building dedications and ribbon-cutting ceremonies, exhibitions, awards ceremonies, and parades are organized specifically around public relations goals. These events present a unique chance to publicize special aspects of an organization's work or participation in the community it serves (53).

Statement Of Purpose

The purpose of this paper is not to merely take a closer look at the not-for-profit industry as a whole, but at the volunteer work force behind their success. The need for volunteer help is stronger today than ever before. Meeting the growing demand for volunteers and controlling their high turnover could determine how smoothly a nonprofit organization runs.

Chapter II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The general area of investigation is the volunteer behind the nonprofit organization. How management recruits new volunteers, trains, communicates and motivates could reduce the high turnover rate many nonprofit organizations face.

Development and History

Once volunteers were friends, neighbors and relatives who helped each other in times of need. The shortage of volunteers began when society decided that it needed a more structured way of helping those less fortunate.

This approach credited several successful organizations such as the American Red Cross and The United Way. Along with keeping ample blood supply, the American Red Cross assists in emergencies such as flooding and earthquakes. The United Way operates differently. They provide funds to organizations that supply medical assistance, education, food to people in distress. The structured approach to volunteerism also illustrates that the more responsibility individuals take, the less influential the role government plays.

But this approach also made society lazy. People tend not to want to help each other or themselves when a hand out is only a telephone call away.

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Another draw back is that even though the organizations were created to satisfy a need, they were established to either run strictly by volunteers or with very few paid personnel, thus relying on the goodness of people for existence.

The Shortage of Volunteers

Staff members at almost any nonprofit organization will assert that good volunteer help is getting harder to find. In 1991, the number of U.S. volunteers declined 4.3%, to 94.2 million, from two years before, according to Independent Sector, a coalition of philanthropic organizations (Hammonds 100). The competition for unpaid workers has intensified. What is emerging is a new sort of volunteer: eager to help but also career and project-oriented. To attract and keep people, nonprofit agencies have had to rethink the way they operate, designing programs around the schedules of overbooked, two-job families and rely more on the resources of Corporate America. The result is a patchwork of on-off services that may better match the needs of the agencies' volunteers than those of its clients (100).

Nonprofit Organizations - Time For A Change

Volunteerism used to be a lot simpler. When Mom did not work, she had a few hours each week for Meals on Wheels or Girl Scouts. Dad came home at 6 p.m. and dinner was on the table, leaving plenty of time for the United Way board meeting. But the movement of women to full-time paid

work has removed a dependable source of free daytime labor. That and increasing on-the-job demands have cut into the spare time Americans once dedicated to charities (101).

It has taken not-for-profit organizations years to acknowledge the demise of the old model. Now, many are broadening recruitment efforts to attract minorities, retirees, and teens. In the past five years, the Young Men's Christian Association of Nashville has quadrupled the number of volunteer-based services it offers, in part by wooing 500 students from nearby Vanderbilt University. Nationwide, according to Independent Sector, participation among African Americans and Hispanics has grown dramatically (101).

More striking, though, are the operational shifts that demographic changes have forced. Everywhere, agencies are extending hours to nights and weekends. Big Brothers/Big Sisters of America is testing mentoring arrangements that require just an hour a week of service, diversifying from a program that had demanded at least three hours a week for a year. The Easter Seal Society of North Carolina runs board meetings by fax and teleconference so members do not have to travel.

The demand for low commitment, flexible service opportunities has spawned a host of groups such as City Cares of America, a network of seventeen urban organizations that link not-for-profits with teams of mostly young professionals (Flanagan 312). Workers attend a single afterwork orientation, then select projects from a monthly listing of soup

kitchens, tutoring, and the like. The only commitment required of volunteers is that they show up if they say they will. These same forces are driving new ties between nonprofit agencies and the corporate volunteer pool. A few companies, among them Levi Strauss & Company and General Motors Corporation Electronic Data Systems Division, pay employees to volunteer during work hours, through so-called work-release programs, or reward service with vacation (Reiss 55). Many others promote and organize teams for after-hours projects, sometimes backing employees with uniforms and equipment.

Government Supports Volunteerism

Government considers volunteerism essential. The Senate's Labor and Human Resources Committee approved a bill to establish a volunteer national-service program. President Clinton, speaking before 1,000 business and community leaders in New York City, proposed a new national volunteer program to help the homeless and other needy Americans. At the core of his proposal was the establishment of the Points of Light Initiative, which would be funded with $25 million he hoped to win from Congress. He focused particularly on the business community, calling on corporations to encourage employee volunteer service, to accompany customers' bills with information on how they can serve the needy, and to consider the volunteer activities of potential employees when making hiring decisions (Fine 72).

Corporations Taking On A Cause

Non-for-profit groups have latched on to the growing corporate
supply. Companies are urging their employees to get involved. The San
Francisco Food Bank, which receives and distributes packaged food
to other agencies, started recruiting volunteers through area employers in
1991; this year, those sources will account for half the agency's 36,000 old
volunteer hours (73).

The problem with most corporate programs, however well-
intentioned, is that they are equipped to take on only short-term projects.
The amount of time required to organize and manage volunteers is usually
underestimated and eventually the program looses its momentum. Volunteer
jobs that depend on consistent, long-term commitments such as
scoutmasters or accountants remain hard to fill. Because of the severe
shortage of leadership, non-for-profit groups have had to limit the kinds of
work they undertake.

However, the drive among Americans to serve their communities
remains strong, and nonprofit executives say their recruiting has attracted
younger, more energetic volunteers. The price, though, may be the loss of
the expertise and personal relationships that historically have sustained
those agencies' most meaningful services (102).

Selecting Board Members

Board members should be recruited with care. It is as important to
have experts on a board who complement an organization's needs as it is to
avoid the problem of professional members who are reluctant to share their
skills. As the needs of an organization change, so do its requirements for
board membership. It is not easy to balance a board with diverse and
representative members. There are many traits of a good board member,
but the best members are those who are interested in the organization field,
are willing to share their expertise and experience, and have the time to
do so (Duca 74).

A systematic recruiting process helps to produce the kind of board
members a successful organization needs. In recruiting new members,
not-for-profits should look for those people who have a track record of
accomplishments, those beginning to move up into positions of power. The
cultivation of prospective board members and the process of turning a
prospect into a member requires an understanding of why people say yes to
volunteering: reasons of altruism, enlightened self-interest, personal
involvement, and ego satisfaction. Why an individual joins a board is the
key to motivating him or her to take an active role in the organization and
helps to deepen his or her commitment (75).

Carefully selecting the right people to work on a board is not enough.
Members must be motivated to contribute. The principle of personal

consistency, the pleasure principle, and the achievement principle should be recognized as significant factors in motivating people. If these principles are applied along with various incentives and expressions of appreciation, boards of directors can avoid the problems of an inactive membership or frequent turnover of its members (75).

When board members are first introduced to their responsibilities, board development and training must be included. Thus, the common excuse boards use to avoid training—that its members are unwilling or unable to give the extra time required—cannot be valid. Directors will respond to a request for their time if they not only believe their time will be put to good use but also have experienced that the time they do give to an organization is beneficial and appreciated.

It is up to the board president to include boardsmanship education when planning the board's annual activities. It is up to the board vice-president to plan specific educational opportunities for the board if he or she is charged with this responsibility. The basis for all board educational programs should be the members' desire to improve themselves, individually and as a group. It is the responsibility of the board president to help instill and motivate members to this self-improvement mode, and the planned outcome of any board education program should be to improve the board's performance (84).

Hints On Training Volunteers

There are at least nine assumptions about volunteers that can significantly influence their training:

Volunteers bring with them a wide variation of experiences, knowledge, and skills. Implication: Training methods that build on and use the volunteer's experience, knowledge, and skills will produce the best and most relevant kind of learning.

Volunteers, by and large, will come as self-directed, motivated, interested learners. Implication: Volunteers should help plan and conduct their own learning experiences as active participants rather than passive recipients.

Volunteers participate in training events because they want to learn to do their volunteer jobs. Implication: The training must be practical and relevant to the learner and must be related to life as they know it.

Many volunteers have been exposed to classroom-like learning situations that were not helpful, relevant, or exciting. Implication: The learning activities must take place in an informal, experiential atmosphere.

Volunteers have a number of important roles (as parents, workers, students, citizens) that compete for their time. Implication: Training should be planned to take into consideration the limited time available to most volunteers and to accept the legitimacy of their loyalties.

The world of volunteerism has not developed norms or procedures to support and reward participation in ongoing training programs. Implication: Training opportunities and activities must be a rewarding and recognized aspect of organizational functioning.

Often the training format and content have been developed over the years and have not been revised or retailored for the particular participants at a particular time. Implication: Each training event, if possible, should be planned by trainers and some of the potential participants to meet the current needs of a particular group.

Training is often a one-time thing instead of an ongoing support opportunity for volunteers. Implication: Ongoing in-service training is necessary for volunteers, and the importance of follow-up should be communicated at the beginning of the learning experience.

Volunteer training is usually seen as an event sponsored by one organization, or for volunteers in one category, such as new, experienced, board, office workers, service personnel, etc. Implication: Training should be planned interorganizationally to use all the possible resources (Hardy 166).

Basic Research Patterns and Conclusions

To collect the information, several libraries were used. There were many books available on how to start-up a nonprofit business, what accounting to use, fund raising techniques and the importance of public

relations within the public sector but none on how to work and manage

volunteers. The problem encountered when gathering the research was that

all the books basically contained the same information. For that reason,

interviews were conducted using people currently working in the field and/or

with experience.

Research patterns included interviewing three directors of

volunteers from three local hospitals; Cardinal Glennon's Children's

Hospital, St. Louis Children's Hospital and Belleville Memorial Hospital.

Others interviewed were a president and four volunteer coordinators from

various of not-for-profit organizations. All interviews whether in person or

by telephone consisted of asking three basic questions:

1.) What are your current methods of recruiting new volunteers?

2.) What motivational tools do you use to keep your present volunteers
     returning?

3.) What do you see as your most difficult challenge in working with
     volunteers?

Past and present volunteers were also asked their view points on

what they liked or disliked about volunteering.

Hospitals

The first director of volunteers interviewed was Betty Eschman of

Cardinal Glennon's Hospital, who uses several methods when recruiting

new volunteers. She has tried using Channel 5's "Volunteer 5" to recruit

potential volunteers. This method creates an awareness that there is a

shortage of help but the quality of those responding was not necessarily up to par in terms of personal appearances or hygiene. She also uses high school and college students for summer help. This system provides students with an interest in medicine, a better idea of what it is really like working in a hospital environment. The drawback is that the help is only seasonal. She also relies on people calling or coming into the hospital to do volunteer work. Mothers or relatives of children who previously stayed in the hospital is another way Betty gets new recruits. A problem Cardinal Glennon's faces is the location of the hospital. Located in a high crime area, people are naturally afraid.

To keep her volunteers motivated, Eschman uses a reward system. For example, if a volunteer works one hundred hours (no time limit), they receive a pin. When a volunteer has a birthday, a card is mailed to their home. At Christmas time, each volunteer receives a calendar. Once a year, a catered dinner is held for all volunteers. What Eschman finds the most challenging is keeping her volunteers from getting bored and finding new recruits once they quit.

The second director of volunteers interviewed was Deidre Murphy of St. Louis Children's Hospital. Murphy's current method of recruiting new volunteers is getting students from nearby colleges. She has enough people calling in inquiring about volunteering that she does not have to make an extra effort to recruit. The hospital's reputation, in itself, attracts potential volunteers. This method works well as long as the supply keeps up with

demand. The drawback is that she has no back-up plan to recruit new volunteers during slack the periods such as the summer months.

What keeps current volunteers motivated at St. Louis Children's Hospital is the result of a two-fold process. Murphy uses the reward system in much the same way as Cardinal Glennon. However, at Children's Hospital, the employees with whom the volunteers help are so appreciative that the volunteers want to work. This technique is known as the"You're special" tool.

The most challenging part about working with volunteers, according to Murphy, is that volunteers do not call in when they cannot work. Another problem is when a volunteer quits or needs time off, he or she does not notify the volunteer office. This causes a scheduling problem because when volunteers do not work as scheduled, the play room or a gift shop cannot open, thus causing a domino effect.

The third director of volunteers interviewed was Barbara Skidmore with Belleville Memorial Hospital. This hospital takes a different approach to its volunteer program. Not only do they provide a volunteer staff, but they also have a strong auxiliary that raises money for the hospital. This group runs the hospital gift shop and holds annual book sales and bake sales, and other fund raises throughout the year. The hospital auxiliary is operated completely by volunteers.

Belleville Memorial hospital tends to recruit more senior citizens. This approach works well for the Belleville area, where many senior citizens have lots of time on their hands to volunteer. Sometimes however, senior citizens are slow to learn new job tasks.

A current motivational tool used at this hospital is the award system. Volunteers can earn awards for the number of hours and years served. Twice a year Belleville Memorial hosts award dinners to honor their outstanding volunteers.

The most challenging part of working with volunteers for this director is recruiting individuals to work evenings. Senior Citizens tend to only want to work days, which causes an over abundance of volunteers during the day and a shortage of help for the evening shift.

Medium Size Nonprofit Organizations

Syd Vogt, president of St. Louis Clowns of America, uses word-of-mouth and public relations to recruit new volunteers. Current members spread the word or bring in friends to join. St. Louis Clowns of America is a nonprofit organization established to educate interested people in the art of clowning. Members work at local events throughout the year to pay office rent and supplies. Interested people at these events are told how they can join.

Vogt uses monthly educational meetings as a motivational tool to keep members. Each meeting covers a certain topic such as teaching clowns how to make balloon animals, create face paintings, to do magic tricks, to develop a personality and to juggle.

Vogt's most challenging problems when working with volunteers is that they do not attend meetings to keep up with current affairs of the group and volunteers that do not show up at scheduled events when they signed up to work.

Cindy Cross, volunteer coordinator with The Ronald McDonald House of St. Louis, recruits volunteers from local colleges and churches to work designated evenings. This method works well because the supply of college students and church members is limitless, but students are not a dependable source of labor during tests and finals.

The Ronald McDonald house uses a unique approach to get meals donated and volunteers to serve them. They have a designated organization come in to cook lunch or dinner. For example, a girl scout troop may come in to cook and serve lunch to earn a badge. Or a school group may come to cook dinner. Getting meals donated has its draw backs because too much food is left over even though the group knows how many people they will serve. Moreover, volunteers are not familiar with the kitchen and often too many volunteers from the group come to work. The kitchen and dining room is only so big.

Cross uses empowerment to keep her volunteers motivated. The volunteers are given instructions as to what needs to be done on a nightly basis, but the group of volunteers themselves decide who will do what, when, and how. They tend to keep themselves motivated by doing different "chores" each week.

What Cross finds most challenging about working with volunteers is that some volunteers do not show up to work their scheduled time. The volunteers who do work tend to get frustrated because they are overburdened by their various duties, such as showing new families around the house.

Elizabeth Aulsebrook with the Armed Services YMCA recruits new volunteers by consistently being on the look-out wherever she goes. According to Aulsebrook, "The formula is to find out what people love to do and ask them to do it at the "Y." The key is to develop a relationship and to make sure they enjoy what they do. Aulsebrook also stated that she had no shame when it comes to recruiting. She has found potential volunteers at the busiest places; such as fairs or at parties. She even recruited volunteers at another "Y" program. Sometimes they come looking for volunteer work, but often she finds them first.

To keep her volunteers motivated, Aulsebrook makes it as easy as possible to be a volunteer. She tries never to keep a volunteer waiting or waste their time. She's ready and prepared for the time together, investing the time to let them talk about themselves, even if she does not think she has

the time. She recommends feeding them lunch, having coffee and refreshments available and being genuinely pleased they are there. She's clear about the work to be done, and gives them as much power and control over the work as possible. She "empowers" people to do their thing.

What Aulsebrook finds challenging about working with volunteers is that she does not feel that she devotes enough time to properly train them. Another problem she has is a lack of time to properly train her support staff to work with the volunteers. Employees regularly cut volunteers off at the knees without knowing it. They do not get the idea that the staff supports volunteers instead of using them. They are afraid that volunteers will change their job tasks or cause them more work.

Small Size Nonprofit Organization

Wendy Graefe with Key Volunteer Network is a volunteer coordinator. This organization serves as a liaison between families and the military unit. Graefe solicits new volunteers through newsletters, advertising via local newspapers and publications and, mostly, by word of mouth.

The steps Graefe takes to keep her volunteers motivated are as follows: First, job description and reality based training is given in a clearly defined manner. Secondly, discussion about burnout is included in training sessions as well as on a continuing basis through newsletters and pep talks.

Recognizing the signs of burnout and what action can be taken to reduce its effects are absolutely necessary to keep people involved.

Challenges Graefe faces when working with volunteers is that volunteers' expectations are sometimes different than reality, or they do not receive the gratification or praise that they need. They also do not realize the toll that reaching out to others takes on themselves mentally, which in turn may cause them to experience burnout.

Past Volunteers And Their Viewpoints

Twenty former volunteers from various nonprofit organizations were asked why they quit doing volunteer work. Their reasons for no longer working were similar. Seventeen people stated that a change in family and job schedules conflicted. Boredom and the feeling of not being fulfilled was another reason. Yet in contrast, a former volunteer felt overwhelmed. They were asked to do too much too often with insufficient help. Five former volunteers stated that they felt management was not friendly or helpful. The former volunteers felt that management did not care if they were there or not.

Current Volunteers And Their Viewpoints

Twenty current volunteers were asked why they do volunteer work. Almost all stated that they do volunteer work because they wanted to give back to society what had been given to them. Ten people stated that they volunteer because it makes them feel good. Five people said that they

volunteer because it is a way to socialize and to meet new people. Others said, it is also a good way to keep the mind alert after retiring. Three people said that they volunteer to learn new job skills. While another person stated that he does volunteer work to find out what a certain field is like, such as forestry or teaching, before investing any time and money.

Volunteer Manual Justification

Currently, no texts are available on how to manage volunteers in a nonprofit sector, but the need for one exists. People who manage volunteers often fall into the their positions without the proper training or background. For example, hospitals tend to hire individuals with a medical background rather then with the marketing and management experience needed for this type of position. Or they receive little on-the-job training from an unqualified employee before taking over the position. Medicine and managing volunteers are two different professions.

Volunteers can be the hardest group of people to manage. Individuals who are not paid to do a job tend to take a different attitude or approach to their work than those who are paid. It requires a certain type of personality who can understand the behavior of both the paid employee and volunteer.

A manager who works with volunteers in whatever capacity, such as school or scouts, must first have the ability to look at what the manager's position entails. This person needs to know how to recruit a person or sell

the volunteer experience. They need to know where to look for new volunteers and where to place them to best use their talents. They need to know how to encourage open communication with management and volunteers. They also need to identify job burnout before it happens as well as dealing with its appearance in a volunteer. Most importantly, a good manager would never ask a person to perform a task that he or she would not do themselves. For example, whenever there is a shortage of volunteers, a good manager would step in and help out until the crisis was over. However, this is usually not the case in the not for profit sector where the manager is a paid employee.

People with volunteer experience can usually spot nonprofit recruiters who do not do volunteer work themselves. For example, a nonprofit manager who sets overly strict rules or regulations and expects volunteers to adhere to them is sending a red flag to experienced volunteers. It is hard to sell the volunteer experience that a paid employee never performs. If a manager does not want to do volunteer work, then he or she needs to either re-evaluate his/her career or know as much as possible about each position they expect to fill.

Managing volunteers can be both frustrating and rewarding. A manual designed to include the points listed above would control the frustration level felt by inexperienced managers and reduce the high turnover rate that often exists in not-for-profit organizations.

Chapter III

METHODS AND EVALUATION

<u>Materials</u>

The function of this manual (Appendix C) is to simply provide a source of information or a tool for management to refer to when faced with problems while managing volunteers. The manual puts the problems and tips into a clear, easy to read order.

The benefits of this manual is as follows: it should reduce the frustration level felt among management; it will increase enrollment among new volunteers; it will decrease the number of volunteers leaving; and it will improve moral.

<u>Subjects</u>

Four evaluators were selected to review this manual. The evaluators are from various work and educational backgrounds.

The first evaluator, Helen Morrell, has ten years management experience working at Incarnate Word Hospital and Cardinal Glennon's Children's Hospital. She managed the gift shop at Incarnate Word until it closed in 1994. She currently manages the Gift Shop at Cardinal Glennon Children's Hospital. With the exception of Morrell, both gift shops are operated by volunteers. She is familiar with how working with volunteers is

both gratifying and rewarding. Morrell has an Associate of Science degree in Management.

The second evaluator was Melvin Dillard, a high school counselor at East Side High School in East St. Louis before retiring in 1995. He is also a minister at Bethal Chapel Church in Shiloh, Illinois.

The third evaluator was Bruce Carl, an officer at CPI Corp. in the New Business Venture Department. He has personally developed and managed a not-for-profit organization called Youth Leadership. He also served on the board of Jewish Light Federation. Many admire his enthusiasm for doing volunteer work and helping others. He has a Bachelor of Science degree in Mechanical Engineering and a Masters degree in Management.

The Fourth evaluator was Joe Clark, a dentist in Belleville. He recently retired from the Marines, but is currently a major in the Air National Guard. While serving overseas, he received help from volunteers. His experience was on the receiving end of a not-for-profit organization.

Instrument

This survey (Appendix A) was used to aid in the development of this manual. The survey consisted of three pages in total. The first page was a cover letter explaining the reason for the survey, directions, and time limit allowed for completion. The second and third pages consisted of six multiple

choice questions with enough space after each question for additional comments.

There were three areas of statistical analysis gained by using this survey. The first was to see how a males' point of view differs from a females' perspective regarding this manual. The second was to see whether a subject with management experience answered any differently from those individuals with little or no management skills. The third was to see how many subjects gave additional comments and if the comments were beneficial to the manual.

Procedure

The survey was administered to the evaluators via First Class Mail in an uncontrolled setting. They were instructed to look over the survey and answer the questions to the best of their ability. If they had any questions, a telephone number was provided on the cover page for their convenience. They were given seven days to return the survey. If the surveys were not returned within that time period, a follow up telephone call was made.

The limitations of the survey was that since the survey was not in a controlled environment, the questions may not have been answered by the selected evaluator or additional input from other people may have influenced the answers selected.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

QUESTION ONE

Three evaluators agreed that the author was very knowledgeable on the subject of this manual. One evaluator felt that the author was above average on the subject.

Carl noted that the author seemed to have a lot of volunteer experience and an understanding of the "people" factor on volunteering. This came across in the manual.

Dillard said that he felt the author knows the need for volunteering and has an informed view point on the subject.

Clark reasoned that the author understood the volunteer's motivation and realized the need to nurture new volunteers so that they find their niche within the organization.

Morrell admitted that the author was familiar with many recruiting methods, but contended that the ideas were vague, and she wanted to know more about the author's background.

QUESTION TWO

All four evaluators felt that the information within this manual would be very useful in the management of volunteers.

Morrell noted that some managers may not realize the needs of volunteers and the reasons people volunteer, or the need for volunteers.

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Dillard said he felt that the manual was easy to follow and to understand. The simple ideas listed in each category could help an organization find success or to become more successful.

Clark reasoned that the manual lists warning signs to watch out for to prevent burn-out that a manager may not otherwise know.

Carl admitted that he agreed with the author regarding managers working along side volunteers. He said this would show not only how much volunteers are appreciated but also how necessary they are.

QUESTION THREE

Two of the evaluators felt that the manual would be very effective when recruiting new volunteers. The other two evaluators felt that the manual would be somewhat effective.

Morrell said that she thought the manual would be a useful media to reach new volunteers.

Clark noted the listing of reasons why people do volunteer work and that a person may identify with the list and start volunteering.

Dillard reasoned that although being properly trained does relieve the anxiety new people feel, some new volunteers will still quit for whatever reasons.

Carl admitted the manual contained good ideas; however, the drawback was that enrolling new volunteers is difficult but the idea of using the "buddy system" was a good start.

QUESTION FOUR

Two of the evaluators felt that the manual would be very effective tool for retaining volunteers. The other two evaluators felt that the manual would be somewhat useful.

Morrell noted that if managers understood the warning signs of "burnout" in volunteers, the "burnout" could be prevented or controlled.

Dillard responded that if volunteers are included in setting their own schedules, then they may be more apt to work the time they scheduled. Dillard believes that making training and meeting time to fit day and night volunteers is very important. Volunteers need to feel that they are doing work that is useful and needed. If they are overloaded, extra help will be provided.

Clark admitted that the manual contained good general ideas, but that maybe there could be more specific points on how to communicate appreciation, and include a list of activities, awards for recognition the organization would provide.

Carl reasoned that although rotating volunteer positions to prevent them from becoming bored, especially by starting with volunteers "area of interest" was a good idea, some people do not like or adapt to changes very well. An added comment was that it was too bad volunteers needed to be rewarded, because it should be a reward to itself knowing that they help others. If rewards are needed, it's a great alternative.

QUESTION FIVE

All four evaluators agreed that the manual was presented in a clear and precise manner.

Morrell noted that the use of headings and points below each heading was very helpful.

Clark reasoned that the manual was presented in a clear, well organized and easy to read language. The lists followed a nice progression from recruiting to controlling burnout.

Dillards' comment was that every step was listed as to what and how to go about getting, keeping and rewarding volunteers. It was spelled out very clearly.

Carl stated that the manual was not overwhelming to the reader.

QUESTION SIX

Only two evaluators felt that some important information was missing from this manual.

Carl's suggestion was to add more specific ideas of activities etc. or maybe talk more about recognition (evening volunteers versus day volunteers). Some other suggestions would be to design eye-catching recruitment signs, or creative things a person or organization could do to recruit and keep volunteers.

Clark's suggestion was to include information discussing incentive prizes, maybe make some examples. Clark said that most volunteers do not want money spent on things that are not beneficial to the organization.

Chapter V

DISCUSSION

The survey resulted in the collection of several complimentary and constructive comments. Overall, the evaluators agreed the manual could be a useful tool in managing volunteers. However, on certain topics, more detailed information was needed. This chapter discusses the suggestions made by the evaluators and the changes that will result.

Summary

In question one, Morrell addressed two important issues. The first was on the recruitment methods. His concern was the lack of details describing each method.

The purpose of keeping the recruiting methods vague was to appeal to a bigger audience. However, the suggestion is accepted. More details will be added to the manual. After listing each method, step by step instructions on how to get started was also included.

The second issue Morrell addressed was the relative lack of information about the author's background. This suggestion is also accepted. The author's background was printed on the back page of the manual.

Dillard and Clark had two problems with question three. The first issue, according to Dillard, was the training of new volunteers. He

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felt, that although properly training new volunteers does relieve anxiety, some will still quit. In agreement with the evaluator on this problem, the following paragraph was added to the manual.

"Although unforeseen circumstances do arise which could force a new volunteer to quit, when conducting interviews or during orientations, emphasize the time a new volunteer will be committing to and the need for dependability before going through the training process."

Carl addressed the second concern. It relates to the enrollment of new volunteers. His concern was that the manual contained some good tips but that recruiting is a difficult process and was not certain the manual fully covered it.

In agreement with this concern, a step by step detailed information on how to best utilize each tip to fit an organization's need was added to the manual. The buddy system method is an example. Stress the need to recruit additional volunteers to active volunteers via a newsletter. Make suggestions on who they could recruit, such as neighbors, coworkers, friends, relatives. In addition, run contests on who can recruit the most volunteers within a certain time period. Use incentive prizes to encourage participation.

Two issues were pointed out in question four by Clark and Carl. The first issue was addressed by Clark. The manual needs to contain more specific points on how to communicate appreciation, such as a list of activity awards for recognition the organization will provide.

In agreement with this statement, a list of recognition tools was added to the manual. Examples of these types are as follows; annual award dinners, volunteer of the month, free meals, length of time service pins and certificates.

Carl addressed the second issue. He questioned the idea of rotating volunteer positions to prevent boredom. He felt that some people do not adapt well to changes and rotating positions might scare off potential volunteers.

The manual was changed to include recommending new volunteers if they prefer to stay in one position or to rotate.

Carl covered two issues in question six. He suggested adding more specific ideas of activities for volunteers, and he also suggested designing eye-catching recruitment signs.

In acceptance to the first issue, a list of activities on how to organize them was added. An example of this type is holding semi-annual volunteer meetings or hosting holiday parties for volunteers.

In agreement with the second issue, the suggestion of using eye-catching recruitment signs was also added. In addition, a list of the best locations to place the signs (example: grocery stores, discount stores or malls) was added.

Nearly all not-for-profits have paid personnel to manage their organization. Unless they are willing to work alongside their volunteers (example: volunteer off the clock), they can not fully understand

volunteerism and no manual will help. However, if people want to be successful in the not for profit business, they can, if they use the manual as a source of reference.

Limitations

Just a few problems were encountered while completing this study. Some evaluators gave brief answers that were not helpful on some of the questions. Another problem was that the surveys were not returned by the date requested. A reminder call was needed.

Suggestion For Future Research

If the opportunity to change the study should arise, additional evaluators from a broader background would be used instead of only the four chosen. More input would make the manual a more informative tool.

Appendix A

COVER LETTER

As per our conversation on July 28, 1996, enclosed is my survey. Please complete the test as soon as possible, and return all forms to me in the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope.

To insure confidentiality, please do not put your name on any of these forms. In the upper right-hand corner of the answer sheet there is a series of three blank rectangles entitled "Identification Number." This number will be used for test identification during statistical analysis. It is important that this number be completed correctly. If you are male, put a "O" in the first rectangle on the left. If you are female, put a "1" in this rectangle. In the subsequent two rectangles, place the number of years of experience that you have in management.

Please read over the instructions and answer the questions by filling in the appropriate circle on the answer sheet. If you should have any questions, please do not hesitate to call Mary Brooks at 231-1575 ext. 3756. Remember to answer all questions, as a blank answer will negate a portion of the scoring procedure. The average time for completing the survey is approximately one hour.

Appendix B

SURVEY

Please circle the answer that best describes your thoughts about the manual.

1. **Did you feel the author is knowledgeable on the subject of this manual?**

   a. Very knowledgeable
   b. Above average knowledge
   c. Average Knowledge
   d. Below average knowledge

   Please offer three reasons for your selection:

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

2. **Do you believe the information in this manual will be useful in the management of volunteers?**

   a. Very useful
   b. Somewhat useful
   c. Not useful at all

   Please offer three reasons for your selection:

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

3. **Do you believe this manual will be effective in increasing the enrollment of new volunteers?**

   a. Very effective
   b. Somewhat effective
   c. Not effective at all

   Please offer three reasons for your selection:

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

4. **Do you believe this manual will be effective in retaining volunteers?**

   a. Very effective
   b. Somewhat effective
   c. Not effective

   Please offer three reasons for your selection:

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

5. **Is the material in this manual presented in a clear and precise manner?**

   a. Very clear and precise
   b. Somewhat clear and precise
   c. Not clear or precise at all

   Please offer three reasons for your selection:

   a. _____

   b. _____

   c. _____

6. What important information, if any, do you believe is missing from this manual? Please use the balance of this page to document this information and the reason(s) why you believe this information should be included in the manual. Please Note: Use additional pages as necessary.

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"QUICK TIPS"

Manual for Not-For-Profit Organizations

Mary Brooks

INTRODUCTION

"The best gift people can give is time." One out of every two
American Adults serve as a volunteer in a nonprofit sector in the
United States and spend at least three hours a week in nonprofit work
(Reiss 55). People get involved with a cause for many reasons. Why some
volunteers stay working while and others quit shortly thereafter has puzzled
many not-for-profit organization managers.

Answers to this question and many others can be found in this handy,
easy-to-read manual.

BACKGROUND OF A NOT-FOR-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

A nonprofit organization is an economic entity that provides a
socially desirable service. There are four distinct characterics which
separate nonprofit from for-profit businesses:

1. There is no ownership. Any excess revenue over expenses is put back
   into the organization.

2. They are financed in part by taxes and contributions based on some
   measure of ability to pay.

3. They are exempt from federal income and most state and local sales and
   property taxes.

4. Nonprofit organizations rely heavily on volunteer work for their
   survival.

The nonprofit sector can be divided into two sectors. The first is the member serving sector, which are organizations that while having some public purpose, primarily exist to provide a benefit to the members of the organization rather than to the public at large. Examples of this type include the Shriners or the Lions Club.

The second sector is the public serving segment that exists primarily to serve the public at large. Examples of this type are the American Red Cross or the American Cancer Society. Because of their size and popularily, the public serving groups are what most often come to mind when people speak of the nonprofit sector. The public serving sector is the topic of this manual.

REASONS PEOPLE VOLUNTEER

1. To socialize

2. To develop new friendships

3. To repay a non-profit group for help previously received by either themselves or a family member.

4. To give back to society what has been given to them.

5. To gain work experience before pursuing a particular field.

6. To fill time. Retirement

REASONS PEOPLE QUIT VOLUNTEERING

1. Boredom

2. Less then expected

3. Lack of Time

4. Burnout

5. Unfriendliness

THE WHEN, WHERE AND HOW TO RECRUIT NEW VOLUNTEERS

The **when** to recruit can be at anytime or anyplace. When a person

works for a not-for-profit organization and they talk about it, then

they are representing the organization whether they are at work or not.

Everyone is a potential volunteer, family members, friends, or

neighbors.

The following are examples of **where** new volunteers can be
recruited:

1. Advertise in local newspapers.

2. Use St. Louis Channel five's "Volunteer 5" service to create an
   awareness.

3. Send "Volunteers Wanted" flyers to the Human Resources department
   of businesses within the area.

4. Contact local churches

5. Send letters or telephone past volunteers.

6. Communicate to present volunteers that there is a shortage of
   volunteers. Encourage the "buddy-system" method. Get a friend to
   join.

7. Offer incentive prizes to present volunteers to recruit.

8. Get large businesses to establish a group of their own employees to do volunteer work. Have a team leader plan a monthly work schedule of the employee volunteers. This leader would work as a liaison between the not-for-profit group and their company.

9. Get paid employees to volunteer.

10. Telephone people at random from the telephone book.

11. Send letters to people that have donated to the organization within the last two years.

The how to recruit is simple. Be honest with the potential volunteer.

Tell them exactly what is expected of them. Explain what paper work needs

to be filled out and why.

When scheduling new volunteer training sessions, plan two

separate meetings. One meeting for the day volunteers and one for the

evening volunteers. Many times organizations schedule meetings without

taking into consideration that working people cannot or do not want to take

off work just to attend an orientation meeting for volunteering.

At most orientation meetings, the manager will tell the new

volunteers how important and needed they are in order for the

organization to be successful. That is impressive, but what would be more

impressive is to say that you the manager also do volunteer work as well.

WHERE TO PLACE NEW VOLUNTEERS

1. On the application, an "area of interest" question is usually asked, a good place to start when positioning a new volunteer.

2. What the new volunteer does for a living is helpful in placement.

3. Ask the new volunteer what they would like to do and an alternative choice.

SCHEDULING VOLUNTEERS

1. Before starting any new schedule, ask volunteers if anyone needs time off or would like to work any additional days. This could be done by placing a flyer on a bulletin board in a break room office.

2. Schedule volunteers to work on certain days of the month.

3. If there are enough volunteers, schedule an extra person to work each day. Just in case any one calls off work.

SYMPTOMS OF BURNOUT

1. Consistently calling off work.

2. Not wanting to perform the job usually assigned to them.

3. Questioning the person in charge about other jobs they could do instead of current position.

HOW TO CONTROL BURNOUT

1. Rotate job assignments.

2. Offer incentives for working. If awarding prizes for number of hours worked, make the quota lower for evening volunteers than for day volunteers, because day volunteers on the average work more hours per day then the evening shift.

3. Establish volunteers of the month awards.

4. Schedule monthly communication meetings. Ask for suggestions on how to better serve the client as well as the group.

5. Whenever possible, tell volunteers how much they are appreciated.

6. Never ask more from a volunteer then you are willing to do yourself.

7. Help when needed.

CONCLUSION

If the tips in this manual are followed, enrollment of new volunteers should increase. More volunteers will stay longer, thus causing the turnover rate to decline. Moral will improve, which in turn will cause an increase in volunteer productivity.

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