After dinner, ask everyone to assemble in a circle for a discussion of American-Israeli communication. First, ask the Israelis and those Americans who have been to Israel to briefly describe some cross-cultural communication incidents that surprised, angered, shocked, etc. them. What was behind their emotional reaction? A violation of social "rules"? Values? After discussing a few incidents (which will mostly involve testimony from Israelis and past ISH members), ask your group members if they have had any such experiences or reactions in their contact with Israelis. If appropriate, make or elicit comments about communication that occured during dinner.

Next, ask the group to divide into subgroups of five to ten, with each subgroup including some Israelis, former ISH members, and members from your group. There is a variety of cross-cultural communication exercises you can do at this point. One such exercise is the discussion of "critical incidents." Each subgroup receives a written collection of critical incidents. Each one describing a cross-cultural misunderstanding that arose and how the person involved dealt with it. Subgroup members are told to reach a consensus on how well the incident was handled and to suggest ways that would have been appropriate for dealing with the situation. Depending upon their comfort level, subgroup members may want to role-play various incidents and reactions. The subgroup and their facilitator should try to identify cross-cultural differences in communication styles and values.

The above suggested orientation program is well supported by both the experimental and practice literature on group behavior and by empirical observations of American groups in Israel. It would be worthwhile to compare member outcomes between groups oriented according to the above procedure, groups oriented in the usual atheoretical manner, and non-oriented groups.

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The Professional Staff and the Direct Service Volunteer: Issues and Problems*

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The article deals with the attitudes and problems that professional staff face as social agencies increase their interest in the use of volunteers in the delivery of service. A model experimental program is presented indicating both content and methodology to be used in work with the staff who will supervise volunteers.

Introduction

Voluntarism is taking on renewed significance in our society. All levels of government, industry, education, and social services are promoting and encouraging the use of volunteers. In our own field of social work, there is a growing demand for a new sub-classification of professional, the director of volunteer services. The development is real, even though it has not yet become very evident in schools of social work.

Despite this development, social work organizations and agencies have not yet been able to integrate voluntarism into their programs to the fullest extent, because of a number of obstacles. One of these obstacles is resistance on the part of professional staff, overt and covert, conscious and unconscious, to the effective use of volunteers in new and creative capacities.

The resistance, sometimes almost hostility, has been clearly evidenced, in my work with social agencies, in my teaching experience, and in the research study I did with the Associated Y.M.-Y.W.H.A.'s of Greater New York, an organization of 13 community centers, 10 nursery schools, 9 senior citizen centers, and camps in a variety of socio-economic neighborhoods.[1] The various programs reflect different demographic patterns, so that some areas had very large older adult programs and other Centers served young families. The data demonstrated the variety of ways that staff limited the role of the volunteer, by the assignments they made available, by the treatment of the volunteer, by the recognition of him or the lack of it, by their contradictory responses to questions about reliability, and so forth. Another clear pattern was the practice of using older adult and teenage volunteers, but omitting the middle-adult group.

This study was later replicated by a group of my students in a variety of other social agency settings, including settlement houses, a child-care agency, a psychiatric hospital, a Y.M.H.A., and the Brooklyn diocese of Catholic Charities. Certainly, my experience in the classroom has confirmed the data about professional resistance to use of volunteers, so that I am convinced that this is not idiosyncratic but extensive and pervasive.

Although my original study was made several years ago, I have noted that social workers still confirm the conditions I described. As recently as last month, at a conference of the Association of Voluntary Action Scholars, the current reality of my observation was again confirmed.[2]

Historical Review of Voluntarism and Social Work

It is useful to explore briefly the history of voluntarism as part of the history of social

* Presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Conference of Jewish Communal Service, Washington, D.C., June 7, 1977.

[1] Florence S. Schwartz, *Volunteer Activity in Community Centers: Its Nature and Satisfactions*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University Micro films, Inc., 1966.

[2] Marjorie Buchholz, "Education for Volunteerism" a report of the session at the 1976 AAVA/AVAS Conference, Boston, October 1976 (mimeo).

work in order to provide some context for the understanding of the relationship between social work professionals and volunteers.

In New York, the first city-wide use of volunteers to give personal service to the poor was the organization in 1843 of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. Four hundred prominent business and professional men volunteered to call on poor families, give them moral uplift, and in some rare instances, provide financial relief. The agency was a product of volunteer creativity, imagination, and service.

In those early years, volunteers were proud of their personal service to the immigrant Irish and German poor, and of the lessons they taught them about thrift, sobriety, and hard work. During subsequent depressions, periods of mass unemployment, starvation, overcrowding in tenements, deaths and illness from epidemic diseases, volunteers turned to social reforms. They then hired workers to deal with the poor.

In the 1800's, volunteers formed another agency, the Charity Organization Society. This time, women, known as "Ladies Bountiful," not men, were considered particularly suited for personal visits to the poor in order to help them by examples and precept, to solve problems. Again, money was to be given only as a last resort. And again, as with the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, volunteers moved away to other interests, and paid workers had to carry on the daily jobs. Charity agents were underpaid and not well trained, but they became the backbone of the Society.[3]

In the 1890's the municipal reform movements and the social settlements began to compete with the Charity Organization movements as an exciting place for women's volunteer services. As the visions of reform began to take shape in organizations, once again a paid staff was recruited to give the programs continuity.

[3] Dorothy C. Becker, "Exit Lady Bountiful: The Volunteer and the Professional Social Worker," *Social Service Review,* March 1964, pp. 57-72.

The volunteer no longer delivered the direct services, but became the Board member, fund-raiser, policy-maker, or the administrative volunteer.

Historically, then, volunteers shaped new programs and gave them visibility, but once the routines were established, they tended to go on to other interests. The challenge in the relationship between volunteers and professionals is how staff can sustain volunteer interest so that volunteers can continue to innovate, to question accepted ideas, to raise funds for selected projects, and to feel that they are personally committed to performing services that are unique and urgently needed.

Voluntarism as a Solution to Some Current Problems

Today there is a renewed interest in the volunteer. New needs are being identified and the available funds cannot keep pace with the demands. One partial solution to the limitations of funding is the extensive use of volunteers. However, more effective use of funds is not the only value of voluntarism. For many tasks, they will be more effective than professionals, providing a more personalized and informal quality.

This newly recognized need for volunteers as practitioners presents some special problems. The professionals at the top levels have developed great skill in dealing with high level volunteers, whom they "handle," in the process of developing policy and improving public relations. The professionals at the lower levels use volunteers effectively for addressing envelopes and filing forms. But using volunteers for tasks requiring service skills and talents is more difficult for the typical professional.

During the sixties, the social work profession accepted the concept of the paraprofessional to an extent that they have not yet accepted the volunteer, though many of the motivations and needs of the paraprofessional and the volunteer are the same. But since they were paid, the paraprofessional became part of the bureaucratic hierarchy and therefore could be fitted in, whereas the volunteer does not fit in so clearly, and may even be considered a threat.

Rewards and Motivations of Voluntarism

But the volunteer must be dealt with, and if we are to continue to use his service, we must recognize that for the volunteer there must be some reward (more than the luncheon), a pay-off in lieu of money. For the different groups that volunteer, there are different pay-offs. Unless the staff member with whom the volunteer works understands this, the volunteers, in the short run, will not perform satisfactorily or may present problems, and in the long run, may disappear. These rewards must be related to the motivations of the volunteers, which vary from group to group; for instance:

1. Young people see volunteering as an opportunity to test themselves in the maturational process and while exploring career possibilities.
2. Women, who traditionally constitute the major volunteer force, see volunteer activity as an opportunity to make social contacts, to learn new skills, to gain experience for a new career, or generally to test the possibility of a return to the labor force.
3. Men are increasingly joining the volunteer force, sometimes encouraged by business organizations in order to become involved with the community, to foster avocational interests, and to employ unused skills, otherwise unused.
4. People preparing for retirement volunteer in order to develop new interests and activities for their retirement years.
5. Retired persons volunteer as a substitute for paid work. Volunteering provides opportunities to combat the feelings of dependence and loneliness that often accompany the process of disengagement from work.
6. People who have gone through special experiences and ex-clients of agencies volunteer in order to use their own experience productively, as seen in many of the self-help groups—such as Reach for Recovery, FRIA, Overweight Anonymous, and ex-offender programs. Consumers of service are becoming more involved in the delivery of service, as in the community control of the schools.

At different stages of the life cycle, volunteer service meets different needs. Thus, we have two significant aspects of voluntarism. First, volunteers perform useful functions that benefit agencies. Second, agencies perform useful functions that benefit volunteers.

If the second isn't paid heed, the first is lost. Satisfaction of his own needs is important to the volunteer.

To provide the opportunity for volunteer activity is a service that enables the volunteer to meet some of his own psychological, developmental and social needs. It is therefore a social work task to enable people to become effective volunteers.

Problems of Using Volunteers

In social agencies, it is the social work staff which becomes the gatekeeper for volunteers. But the nature of the organizational structure frequently makes the task difficult. Bureaucratic structures with a fixed hierarchy of status can accomodate to volunteers more readily than agencies where the staff structure is more collegial. For example, a hospital, where the tasks are clearly identified, can incorporate volunteers as "grey ladies" (hospital visitors) since that function is not performed by anyone else. The escort service of some agencies (accompanying clients to doctors) is also an example. These institutions deal with the problem of volunteers by isolating and limiting them. But in community centers, which tend to be less bureaucratic and where the volunteer tasks are frequently the same as those of paid group leaders or teachers, there are greater problems.

Another type of problem is related to the tendency of social work professionals to work more effectively with older adult and teenage volunteers and least effectively with younger adults. The former are viewed as clients over whom the professional has some power. The

latter may be successful, competent practitioners and staff finds it difficult to supervise and make demands on such people.

Even more difficult is to develop the understanding that volunteer service is a self-actualization process for these people, so that the professional must deal with highly individual needs.

Because of these different problems, professionals frequently do not understand their functions with respect to volunteers, do not appreciate the potential usefulness with respect to volunteers, do not appreciate the potential usefulness of volunteers, and are not equipped to program the work of volunteers. They often see volunteers as threats to their jobs. They discourage and oppose the use of volunteers, sometimes very subtly. They create myths of unreliability and incompetence.

Such attitudes do not reflect the historical reality regarding volunteers, as shown in my brief review. They ignore the creative and innovative functions performed by volunteers. They limit the activities of the professionals and other Center staff including receptionists, secretaries, or even janitors as part of the environment.

There are at least two places where the social work profession must make some changes with respect to voluntarism: in schools of social work and in social agencies.

Change is Needed in Schools of Social Work

Most social workers come out of professional school with only a minimal knowledge of the role of volunteers in the field, historical or current; neither are they exposed to courses or field work which might enable them to develop skills in dealing with volunteers and volunteer programs. Not only do they learn virtually nothing about voluntarism, but what they do learn is frequently negative. The role of board members is usually dealt with, but is generally viewed as management—the enemy, as it were. The negative knowledge about volunteers is reinforced by the field experiences of the students. What is not taught or valued in the social work educational experience is accepted very slowly, if at all, later.

What is needed is to build into the social work curriculum a component to help students understand voluntarism in the context of public responsibility for dealing with our social and economic problems. The respective functions of government and industry must be seen as part of a broad picture of the role of non-professionals in the field of professional social work.[4]

In addition to building a more sophisticated understanding of voluntarism into the curriculum, social work schools must relate voluntarism to the practice courses. A specific course on volunteers can be developed. But more important, while learning the strategies of helping, whether in casework, group work, or community organization, students must be given an opportunity to explore the entire range of social work personnel, including case aides, social work assistants, and volunteers, as well as professionals. Sensitivity to the need to integrate the activities of all of these must be built into the course work. Moreover, courses in social policy, social welfare organization, social welfare services, and the multitude of other titles that make up the stuff of our curriculum must all be reexamined and revised with a new sense of the role of voluntary participation.

Curriculum must be reinforced with field experiences in agencies, demonstrating the need for integration, and identifying activities related to volunteers. Such experiences certainly should involve contact with volunteers themselves.

It is interesting to note that applicants to schools of social work frequently use their own volunteer experiences to explain their motivation and to support their applications. From that point on, voluntarism tends to be gradually devalued in the minds of social work students, reaching a low point when they graduate. They come to the Schools with dramatic experiences in Vista, the Civil Rights movement, Peace Corps, Headstart and the like. They leave us with diminished appreciation for what their own lives should have taught them.

[4] Eileen Blackey, "Professional Leadership for Volunteer Development," paper presented at Association of Volunteer Bureaus of America Meeting, National Conference on Social Welfare, New York, May 27, 1969.

Change is Needed in Social Work Agencies

The second place where the profession must institute, or in some cases continue, change is in the agencies.

This need for new approaches to voluntarism is best appreciated by my describing some recent experiences in teaching professionals about voluntarism and volunteers.

I have used two alternative models. One is a short term intensive workshop, two or three full days, the total immersion technique. The other is a series of classroom type sessions conducted over several months. In both cases, my approach is to use some proven principles of adult education.[5] These principles are valid in the training of professionals and volunteers alike, though the content is different. Among these principles are:

1. Participants themselves must feel the need for self-development, or there is no point in running educational programs. They must be conscious of a gap between what they have and what they want.

2, Participants themselves can diagnose their own needs. They may need help in discovering what they need to know specifically, but they themselves must assess their needs and participate in designing the material to be covered.

3. More than young students, practitioners learn by doing, since they are better equipped to apply experience to simulations, discussions, role play, etc.

4. The emphasis should be on problems rather than subjects.

5. The atmosphere of the learning experience should be appropriate to the status of the participants: the atmosphere should be highly professional, research-oriented and perhaps in a university setting; not merely a series of staff meetings.

[5] Lawrence A. Allen, Principles of Program Training for training adults (mimeo) and Malcom S. Knowles, *The Modern Practice of Adult Education;* New York: Assoc. Press, 1970.

A Training Program for Professionals

One model for training is that developed for the Associated YMWHAs of Greater New York in conjunction with the Hunter College School of Social Work.

As a preliminary to the program described below, a brief questionnaire was sent to all participants, asking for their ideas, questions, and problems, and some background material on each of them. This material was built into the session.

The limited objectives for this short course were bilateral:

A. The Conceptual Level
   1. To understand the changing role of the volunteer in a changing society—
   2. To define the differential responsibilities of staff and volunteers—

B. An Administrative or Operational Level
   1. To create a more hospitable climate for the development of volunteer programs and to develop a cadre of staff who are knowledgable.
   2. To develop new assignments for volunteers, to enable Centers to provide services in time of fiscal limitations.
   3. To develop competent administration of volunteer programs.
   4. To broaden the volunteer constituency in Centers.

The training course was held at the Hunter College School of Social Work, rather than in the agency, for two reasons:

1. The staff would recognize that this was considered continuing education at a professional level.
2. The volunteer program would gain visibility in the school, as a cooperative agency-school activity.

Announcements went to each Center from the Executive vice-president of the Associated Ys giving an outline for the course and inviting the executive director to attend or to enroll another member of the professional staff.

There resulted 16 participants, including several Center directors who attended regularly. The majority (11) of the participants were M.S.W. social workers, the others, B.A. level staff members. The course consisted of six sessions, the last of which was an All-Day Conference. The program for each of the sessions was as follows:

Session 1 — The History of Voluntarism

Material covered started with the New York Association for improving the Condition of the Poor, and covered historical developments to the social work agencies of the twentieth century.

The agency's own history of voluntarism was described and explained by long-time active participants in its program.

Session 2 — *Developing Volunteer Opportunities*

Identification of tasks that volunteers can handle; mobilization of volunteer program activities by utilizing volunteers from their own constituencies; understanding of the variety of reasons for which people volunteer; the motivations for volunteering; the process of reaching out for volunteers by professional staff; development of a volunteer skills bank; differential expectations for volunteers and paid workers.

Session 3 — *Developing the Volunteer Program: Recruitment, Interviewing, Orienting and Training*

Two role-playing sessions for which the participants were divided into groups of three, assuming roles that reflected key issues. Each group contained two "players" and one observer; the roles were then switched for the others to try new approaches. The role-playing sessions were developed out of the experiences and problems of the participants as submitted in advance.

Using Force Field Analysis, the group worked on the stated objective of the session, making the Volunteer an Effective Part of the Service Team. The Force Field Analysis approach to problem-solving is based on the work of Kurt Lewin. It involves (1) stating the objective; (2) identifying the driving forces, those forces that support the objective; (3) identifying the blocking forces, the obstacles to the achievement of the goal; and (4) using a "brain-storming" technique, encouraging the group to let creative ideas flow without any critical discussion. Later, the group deals with the operational aspects of the analyses and the solutions that have been generated.

Among the driving forces that emerged were: new progress can be created, staff and workers can learn new skills, intergenerational and heterogenous experiences can be provided, opportunity to strengthen supervisory skills, public relations, recruitment, financial savings, lighten staff load, new profile and outreach activities. Among the blocking forces that emerge were egocentric volunteers, unreal expectations of volunteers, unavailability, staff resistance, interpersonal conflict, lack of skill and knowledge to train volunteers, threat to staff, more staff work, staff dependency, and lower quality of work.

Session 5 — *Problem Lab*

Each participant has been asked to bring in problems encountered in their work with volunteers. These were dealt with in small groups, and then brought to the total group. A sampling of the problems that were presented:

1. The wife of a board member pictures herself as an "artist." She has been taking courses and doing work at home since her children went away to college. She now "volunteers" to teach the oil painting course in the senior citizen program of the Center. As director of the senior program, however, I am very reluctant to have her fill the position because I have observed that she talks down to and infantilizes the seniors at the Center. Also, she has said that she will teach beginners by encouraging them to copy from attractive pictures. She is not interested in volunteering in any other capacity.

2. Some volunteers in the older adult program feel that they are entitled to extra privileges or compensation such as free trips, extra food, better seats in bus or theater, or free admission to special functions and events.

3. Certain jobs among the older adult group are considered more prestigious than others. How to deal with assignments, rotation, and qualifying procedures?

4. Some volunteers became over-invested in their work, resulting sometimes in frustration, in hostility and aggressiveness at other times. How to "depersonalize" contacts among volunteers?

Session 6 — *(All-Day Conference)*

The creative use of the volunteer in the community center, an all-day institute planned by the committee of executives and board members of the Associated Y's, and developed with the workshop participants. Fifty members of the agency professional staff attended. Professor Eugene Litwak of Columbia University made the keynote address, "Agency Linkages to the Community," based on his paper, "Community Participation in Bureaucratic Organizations: Principles and Strategies."[6]

Dr. Litwak's paper contrasted natural support systems, such as are found in primary groups such as family, friends and neighbors, with rationalistic structures such as business, government, or social agency organizations. The latter maximize specialization, technical knowledge and economies of large scale; the former maximize interpersonal relationships, the sense of individual obligation, and the emphasis on general function as against specialized function.

In discussing the role of the volunteer, Dr. Litwak called for a variety of linkages between staff, community and volunteers that most utilizes characteristics of both types of structures in new and innovative forms.

His address was followed by lunch and four workshops led by the planning committee and participants of the previous session. The subjects of these workshops were:

I. The Retired Professional Volunteer.
II. Mutual Expectations of Staff and Volunteers.
III. Organization of Volunteer Program — Issues and Dilemmas of Board Member Volunteers.
IV. The Volunteer Drop-Out, A Psycho-Social Dilemma: The Role of Supervision As A Supportive Tool.

A summary session provided an opportunity for all the participants to learn about the highlights of the sessions they were not able to attend.

The program was followed up by an evaluation, which I consider a key part of any such experience. The evaluation supported the principles of adult learning, identifying the most helpful sessions as those in which the participants had the maximum opportunity to deal with problems.

Among suggestions for future sessions were:

Training in how to lead sensitivity sessions for volunteers.

Training in content and methods of group supervision.

Sessions dealing with young volunteers.

Sessions with more homogeneous participants.

It is my belief that the approach of this program represents a significant shift in emphasis for dealing with staff in relation to volunteers. We deemphasized the "how to deal with volunteers" aspect, and emphasized the program as an educational experience which provided intellectual stimulation through consideration of issues, philosophy, and history. Some of the sessions dealt with specific operational problems, but the tone of the entire program was to provide a truly professional atmosphere. The material that was offered, and the additional material that came out of the sessions can provide the basis for consideration of what might get into social work education regarding voluntarism.

The technique of opening up the area of professional resistance to the use of volunteers provided opportunities for participants to deal with their own resistance and to interact with one another around the problem.

The variety of topics dealt with enabled the participants to see the various contexts in which voluntarism should be viewed. Some additional topics that require consideration are: 1) the significance of social class differences between volunteers and professionals; and 2) the strains involved where the consumer of service is also the deliverer of service.

In Conclusion

Since the workshop, there appears to have been an increase in the use of volunteers in the agency, and an additional full-time staff

[6] *Interchange*, Vol. 1, No. 4, 1970.

member has been added with duties related to the use of volunteers.

One more comment. The development of new attitudes and new functions with respect to volunteers will probably require structural changes in the organization. New jobs and new relationships among staff members and among the organizational divisions may have to be considered, as functions are redefined. This involves decision—making at the highest administrative level of the agency.

The relationship between social work professionals and volunteers has many implications and raises many problems. Social workers will find their jobs changing in response to these problems, and change is always difficult, sometimes threatening. However, this change may well be an opportunity for greater responsibilities in planning, supervision, program development and consultation, and for a more important role for our profession.

Long Range Planning— Problems, Pitfalls, & Alternatives*

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. . . when the emphasis is more on short-range planning, with some tentative projections on a long-range basis, then the planning is more meaningful. Best of all (is) . . . short and long-range planning . . . with collaboration between Federation and the agency . . .

(1) The Mythology of Long-Range Planning

In recent years there has developed a mythology around the concept of "long-range planning" that has made difficult its rational criticism and analysis of its implications. Management "specialists" and "social planners" have written learned tomes on the value of planning. Industrial firms as well as social scientists have experimented with Planning-Programming-Budgeting-Systems (PPBS), and with Management by Objectives (MBO), in efforts to eliminate the elements of "guesswork" and "rule of thumb" which often appear to be the alternatives. Those who doubt the ability to do accurate long-range forecasting are looked on as iconoclasts. For, after all, are not virtue and wisdom on the side of those who suggest that we map out our plans and programs for the next five to ten years, make a few allowances for unpredictable variables and proceed to achieve our clearly defined goals and priorities? To dare to question various methods of long-range forecasting and planning and the process of evaluation of existing programs and unmet needs for the future may sound heretical, like opposing God or motherhood. In the world of business and industry the lack of success in achievement and forecasting is usually indicated by reduction in profits or increases in financial losses, which are often buried in the financial statements that accompany the annual reports. The failures are then attributable to "bad" planning, the vagaries of consumers' attitudes, the unfriendliness of government, and/or the political climate of the times, rather than by questioning the basic concept of long-range planning.

Why does this particular myth die hard, especially as it applies to social service planning? Man retains the myth of rationality. We would like to believe that the application of intelligence to the planning process will help us to plan for most contingencies. We hate to face, or admit to, the possibility that we can have gaps in social services, mental health programs and medical care delivery systems, that are the marked disparities in income between rich, poor and middle-class, and that we have not come up with solutions to these problems. We sometimes assume, quite falsely, that the existing "systems,"—for delivery of services, income distribution or handling of priorities—can be radically changed within a five to ten year-period by the application of computer technology, planful thinking and the use of demographic and sociological studies of needs. We tend to forget the nature of power, the forces of inertia and resistance to changes in the "status quo," the difficulty of making major "revolutions" in the structure of social agencies, funding patterns and service delivery systems.

We may modify the "system" slightly, year-by-year, and thereby help a few more clients to cope better, or differently, with life's problems. We may even add a new group of clients to those that we currently serve. Sometimes, by shifting priorities, we may be doing this at the expense of discontinuing or decreasing service to other clients. Our feeling of failure is in part due to the false sense of optimism that is built up when "long-range

* Based on a Presentation to the Annual Meeting of the National Conference of Jewish Communal Service, Washington, D.C., June 8, 1977