

PERCEPTIONS OF OKLAHOMA PUBLIC SCHOOL  
PRINCIPALS ON THE ACCEPTANCE AND  
UTILIZATION OF VOLUNTEERS

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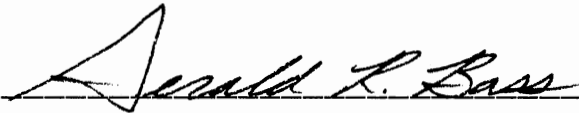
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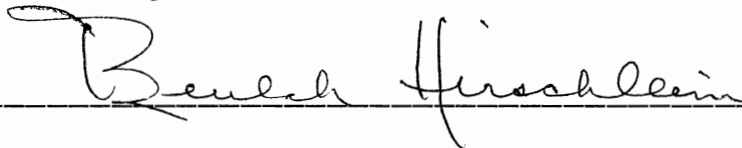
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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The schools in the United States have evolved from the one-room schoolhouses into today's vast educational complex, staffed by professionals. The one-room structure of the past offered the benefits of intimacy between the student and teacher, individualized attention and instruction, opportunity for nonformal education and flexibility in structure (Fantini, 1983).

Fantini (1983) believed the transformation of the family structure has delegated more responsibility for social and economic aspects of society to schools. Whether intentionally or not, the schools have assumed more responsibility for vocational training and college preparation, racial integration, multicultural and bilingual education, moral and health education, education of the disadvantaged and literacy of computer and higher technology. Specialization has overtaken today's schools.

In recent times, three thrusts in education have emerged. One thrust is an attempt to restore the close family-school-community ties of earlier times and to incorporate into the formal, specialized structure of American public education some of the intimacy and individualized attention of the one-room schoolhouse (Fantini, 1983). Coupled with this thrust are the current economic aspects of education. The federal government, during the past two

administrations, has continued to reduce the fiscal contributions to education. State and local governments have initiated tax curbing legislation that has further limited educational resources. Proposition 13 in California, which abolished local discretion in property tax, and Proposition 2 1/2 in Massachusetts, which limited local property taxes, are two examples from 36 states that have adopted constitutional or statutory curbs on education revenues at the state or local level (Lareau & Benson, 1984). A third thrust is summarized as citizen demands for greater student competency, better educational accountability, more productive teacher performance and broader individualization of curricula (Lewis, 1978).

One approach to alleviating some of these problems is the utilization of a tradition of American life, the tradition of volunteerism. Advocates of citizen involvement believe that educational volunteering can substantially reduce the effects of the sharp cutbacks in financial support and contribute to the overall quality of education (Lewis, 1978). Volunteers increase the individual attention students receive, extend the resources and expertise of the school staff, enrich the learning, improve the learning process, contribute service for monetary saving and create a shared sense of responsibility for education in the community (Block, 1976).

O'Connell (1987) stated that never before in our history has a larger proportion of our population participated in community activity. He backed this statement with a survey commissioned by the Independent Sector which found that nearly half of all Americans

14 years old or older (roughly 89 million people) donated an average of 3.5 hours of service each week. More than 60 percent of these volunteers gave service and/or money to more than one organization during the year.

As quoted by Lippitt and Schindler-Rainman (1975), George Romney defined this voluntary spirit when he stated:

In every community and every state across the country we need a program for voluntary action by the people, not just government action for the people--many problems can be tackled right at home, human and social problems like education, mental illness, traffic safety, urban decay, crime, delinquency, and family deterioration, through the organization of voluntary efforts. Nothing can melt such human and social problems faster than the willingness of one individual to involve himself voluntarily in helping another individual overcome his problems (p. 15).

A review of the literature on volunteerism and parent-community involvement in education revealed a growing amount of literature. However, research literature on this particular area of volunteerism was sparse. Most of the literature was authoritative opinion, directed toward strategies to motivate, recruit, train and evaluate volunteers in education. Filipczak, Lordeman and Friedman (1977) stated that the field of volunteerism literature extolls the virtues of various projects and outlines many ways to use community resources. However, little attention has been paid to measuring outcomes or to evaluating the effect of volunteer activities on students, parents, teachers and administrators. Studies by Davies and Zerchykov (1978) have shown that educators are attempting to involve parents in school activities through curriculum changes and innovative programs.

The National School Volunteer Program (1982) suggested that administrators are a vital link in a successful volunteer program. Since research has shown the principal to be an instructional leader and manager at the building level (Dwyer, 1984), his leadership role in an effective volunteer program is just as vital. "The success of a school volunteer program depends on the support of the local school principal" (Taranto and Johnson, 1984, p. 13).

### Statement of the Problem

During the present era of declining financial resources, educators are endeavoring to maintain and enhance the quality of educational programs. The problem of this study was Oklahoma public schools are understaffed and undersupported by human resources, human services and finances.

### Purpose of the Study

One approach to addressing this problem is the assumption that citizen involvement creates a greater awareness of the needs of the school. By utilizing citizen involvement, public schools can extend their resources and augment their finances. The purpose of this study was to determine the level of acceptance and utilization of volunteers in public schools as perceived by Oklahoma public school principals. The factors investigated were: size of the school, classification of school, training of principal in volunteerism, principal's personal volunteerism, use of volunteers at the school and volunteer coordination in the school.

## Research Questions

The following research questions were investigated:

1. Does the size of the school affect the principal's perception of the utilization of school volunteers?
2. Do elementary, middle/junior high and high school principals have different perceptions concerning the utilization of school volunteers?
3. Do principals who have training in volunteerism have different perceptions concerning the utilization of school volunteers than principals who have not had that training?
4. Do principals who volunteer time and service to another organization have different perceptions concerning the utilization of volunteers than principals who have not volunteered time and service?
5. Do principals who have school volunteer coordinators at the district or building level have different perceptions concerning the utilization of volunteers than principals who did not have school volunteer coordinators?
6. As perceived by principals, how are volunteers utilized in indirect instructional services?
7. As perceived by principals, how are volunteers utilized in direct instructional services?
8. As perceived by principals, what factors affect the utilization of volunteers in indirect instructional services?
9. As perceived by principals, what factors affect the utilization of volunteers in direct instructional services?

## Assumptions

For the purpose of this study, the following assumptions were made by the researcher:

1. The stratified random sample of principals was representative of principals throughout the state of Oklahoma.
2. The response of all principals in the study reflected a true representation of their perceptions regarding the utilization of volunteers in their schools.
3. The questions which dealt with the indirect and direct instructional services, in Section II of the questionnaire, gave an accurate description of volunteer utilization in the school.
4. The principals in the sample had previous exposure to school volunteerism.

## Limitations

The study had the following limitations:

1. Principals selected for this sample were limited to those employed by independent school districts during the 1987-1988 school year.
2. Results of the survey were specific to independent public school districts in Oklahoma; generalizations about principals' perceptions of educational volunteers in other states or dependent school districts should be made with caution.

## Definitions of Terms

The following definitions of terms are furnished to provide, as nearly as possible, clear and concise meanings to terms as used in the study:

1. Elementary School. A school which includes grades in the kindergarten through sixth sequence in its organization. Seventh and eighth grades may be elementary if they are grouped with the lower grades in consecutive sequence as listed by Administrator's Handbook, 1987, Bulletin 113-Y, issued by the Oklahoma State Department of Education.

2. High School. A school which may be a two-three-or four-year school that includes at least two consecutive grades between nine and twelve in its organization as listed in the Administrators's Handbook, 1987, Bulletin 113-Y, issued by Oklahoma State Department of Education.

3. Independent School District. A governmental body consisting of a defined geographic area with a board of education endowed with legal authority to levy taxes.

4. Middle/Junior High. A school which includes at least two consecutive grades in the sixth through ninth sequence in its organization as listed in the Administrator's Handbook, 1987, Bulletin 113-Y, issued by Oklahoma State Department of Education.

5. Principal. "Any person having supervisory or administrative authority over any school or school building having two or more teachers" (Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1986, p. 35).

6. School Volunteer. A person who is willing to donate time working for the school to strengthen the school program or to offer special skills to enrich a student's educational experience without receiving any monetary compensation in return.

7. School Volunteer Coordinator. A school person who trains, recruits and orients school volunteers and is responsible for the implementation of the program in the district.

8. School Volunteer Program. An organized effort to involve community people in volunteer service to the school (National Information Center of Volunteerism, 1979).

### Organization of the Study

The report consisted of five chapters. Chapter I introduced the study; stated the problem to be studied; stated the purpose of the study; itemized the limitations of the study; listed assumptions; defined terms; and described the organization of the study.

Chapter II included a review of the related literature focusing on (1) an overview of educational volunteerism, (2) components of a successful school volunteer program, (3) benefits of volunteer involvement in education, (4) disadvantages of volunteers, (5) leadership of the principal and (6) summary.

Chapter III reported the selections of participants in the study, development of the instrument, collection of the data and research design. Chapter IV included preparation of the questionnaire for analysis, summary of the descriptive data and analysis of research questions. Chapter V had a summary of the study, discussion of the



research and literature, statement of the conclusions and recommendations for practice and study.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Overview of Volunteerism

You give but little  
When you give of your possessions . . .  
It is when you give of yourself  
That you truly give . . .  
Kahlil Gibran (1984, p. 19)

Today the range of volunteer activities in education is as broad as education itself. There appears to be no school program, curricular or extracurricular, in which volunteers cannot be used effectively (Carter and Dapper 1972). Not only has there been an explosion in the numbers of school volunteers, but an explosion in the kinds of things they do. The National School Volunteer Program (NSVP) advocated:

School volunteers offer an extra pair of hands, eyes, and ears, Through an organized, structured school volunteer program, school volunteers can help give each child more read-aloud time, extra chances to respond, immediate confirmation of correct answers, and the caring that motivates a child to learn and to succeed. Volunteers can extend the teacher's professional skills and help bring extra educational opportunities and enrichment to the classroom. They also serve as bridges to the community and supportive spokespersons for the school's programs ( p. 1).

Lewis (1978) defined a school volunteer as an "individual who is willing to give his/her time to work, usually on a regular basis, with the school staff in order to enrich the educational program. S/he sincerely wishes to perform a service to others for which s/he will receive no monetary compensation " (p. 16). NSVP and the National Education Association Task Force stated, "A school volunteer is a person who contributes his or her services in an educational program without pay" (NSVP, p. 21).

Volunteers are, generally speaking, dependable, cooperative, conscientious and eager to please (Lewis, 1978). They represent a microcosm of American life composed of parents, grandparents, high school and college students, senior citizens or business people on release time from their employer; they mirror all social, racial, cultural, religious, ethnic and educational backgrounds (Carter and Dapper, 1974, p. 8).

A better way to describe a school volunteer is to characterize the role of the volunteer. The New York City School Volunteer Program used three words to touch on the essence of what the volunteer is and does: nonprofessional, assistance and enrichment (Carter and Dapper, 1972). The principal of Richardson High School in Richardson, Texas, summarized the role of the volunteer as follows: (a) to assist teachers in nonprofessional duties, (b) to offer individual help to students, (c) to enrich the school program by making available the talents and resources of the community and (d) to stimulate and inform the community for more active support of public education (Wilson and Rossman, 1986).

The NSVP follows the point of view that the role of a volunteer is not in teaching the fundamentals of the educational process. They enumerated:

A volunteer always works under the direction and supervision of a teacher or other member of the school staff. A volunteer is never considered a substitute for a member of the school staff. A volunteer is never expected to perform professional services. The teacher is always responsible for content and techniques (NSVP, 1982, p. 2).

In its handbook, Volunteer ABC's, the United States Office of Education (1975) asserted that the teacher is the decision-maker for the implementation of the education program. The school volunteer does only those things that he is directed to do, working under the supervision of the certified person.

### Growth of Educational Volunteerism

In the 1970's, school volunteerism represented a corps of more than 5 1/2 million citizens in some three thousand programs in education in all 50 states. The president of the National School Volunteer Program stated: "Volunteers in the United States have given a minimum of 640 million dollars in time to their schools in the past ten years" (Gray, 1984, p. 406).

The beginnings of the now-massive school volunteer program were modest. New York City began its program as an experiment in 1956 with 2,000 volunteers in 161 schools (Lewis, 1978). Gray reported, in 1984, that the New York City school Volunteer program boasted 25,000 participants composed of senior citizens, business

employees, college and high school students, members of civic and service organizations, parents and 170 companies.

Los Angeles launched its project in 1963 with 380 volunteers. By 1979, it was the largest program in the nation with more than 22,000 volunteers (Lewis, 1978).

In Florida during the 1981-82 school year 77,000 parents, businessmen and other citizens donated their time and talents to support and promote learning in the public schools. Since 1975 school volunteerism increased 73 percent in the state of Florida and 78 percent of all Florida public schools have volunteers (Taranto, 1982).

The Texas State Volunteer Program, in 1984, was NSVP's largest state affiliate with 93 member programs. The estimates of the number of volunteers statewide range from 70,000 to 80,000. The urban areas of Houston, Dallas, Fort Worth, Austin and Beaumont involved some 41,765 school volunteers (NSVP, 1985, March).

According to a 1982 survey by the School Management Group of Salt Lake City with the help of the National Center of Education Statistics and the National School Volunteer Program, there were more than 1,000 school volunteer programs in the United States with 61 percent part-time administrators and 39 percent full-time administrators (Gray, 1984). NSVP (1982) reported more than 4 million school volunteers are serving regularly to touch over 40 million students.

This growth has occurred because the attitude of the masses concerning the more traditional role of education and the school has changed. Education has become the shared responsibility and not the

sole obligation of the school systems. As Taranto and Johnson (1984) implied,

For many years, some educators believed that the school should be responsible for the majority of the child's education. The gradual movement is to extend the locus for children's learning from a school responsibility to a shared school/home/community responsibility (p.3).

In a study by the National Center for Education Information which focused on the disparity of America's educational system as perceived by the general public and school administrators, Feistritzer (1988) suggested that the public needs to become more involved in public education and stop expecting schools to be child sitters and social agencies. School officials need to open their doors to volunteers.

Lewis (1978) expressed the view that more than ever before in our history, a larger segment of the population is available, qualified and interested in utilizing their talents and giving of their time to aid and enrich the education of students. Goodlad (1984), in his book, A Place Called School, pointed out:

Such options for both supporting the educational process in school and strengthening community involvement in educating the young became feasible only when we allow our minds to escape from the fetters of conventional thinking about our schools. . . . The cost need not be higher but such options do call for a redistribution of resources, more volunteerism, and imaginative collaboration among educative and potentially educative agencies in the communities (p. 195).

Wilson (1976) listed nine reasons why people volunteer:

1. The desire to utilize special knowledge and skill.
2. The need for a sense of security that results from feeling one's life has purpose, meaning.

3. The need to be a part of activities that have neighborhood, community, regional, or national importance.
4. The desire to help others.
5. The desire for recognition and status.
6. The need to feel useful and needed.
7. An interest in learning new skills and participating in enjoyable and rewarding activities.
8. The desire to gain visibility and skills that will help advancement and employment in social arenas.
9. The need to actively utilize leisure time and reduce loneliness, isolation, and pressure (p. 118).

A Metropolitan Life Survey of the American Teacher (1987) found that parents and teachers alike endorsed a role for parents that included volunteer work, supportive activities and promotional efforts. From this survey 67 percent of the parents and 68 percent of the teachers strongly endorsed parents doing volunteer work to help out the school. Comer (1986) stated that given the complexity of the modern world, students of today need more adult help than children did in the past. Programs that effectively involve parents in the schools can provide a desirable context for teaching and learning.

Clearly, school volunteers and school volunteer programs have grown phenomenally and have increased widely the scope of their efforts. Carter and Dapper (1974) referred to this new force in education as the new breed of educator.

### Components of a School Volunteer Program

There is a growing body of literature on the important components of effective volunteer programs which has developed over the past 20 years. Probably the single organization which has

contributed most to the understanding of how to develop effective programs within educational settings is the National School Volunteer Program (NSVP). NSVP was founded in 1968 as a national non-profit education association providing leadership for thousands of school volunteers (Alden, 1979).

At this organization's seventh annual conference, Willard Wirtz, former U. S. Secretary of Labor, delivered an address highlighting the importance of utilizing the limitless human resources that reside in every community, both as a means of revitalizing the education process and contributing meaning to the lives of the very individuals who make up these communities. In speaking of the personal satisfaction that comes of volunteering, he stated:

People want very much to participate in their way. The problem is that they don't know how to participate, and I think that the job of the National School Volunteer Program is to try to provide those delivery systems for satisfying a sense of values which I believe is common to this whole country (Alden, 1979, p. 54).

Since its founding, NSVP has networked the knowledge which its staff has gathered from thousands of volunteer programs. NSVP has become dedicated to improving the quality of education for all children by sharing information, new ideas and materials to help one another grow, to save time and improve programs (NSVP, 1982).

As a result of NSVP efforts and the collaboration and sharing on the part of volunteer coordinators and community educators, much is known today about why programs succeed or fail. Winecoff and Powell (1976), two authorities in the field of community-based programs and educational problem solving, listed five reasons why volunteer programs in educational settings fail:



1. Lack of adequate overall planning and administrative support.
2. Lack of adequate involvement and preparation of teachers.
3. Lack of adequate training programs and specified tasks for volunteers/paraprofessionals.
4. Lack of adequate volunteer management system.
5. Lack of adequate recruiting strategies.

Winecoff and Powell continued by pointing out that these five problems areas must be given careful attention if the programs are to be successful and lasting.

Taranto (1984) addressed the area of cooperation between the staff and the volunteer to the overall effectiveness of an educational volunteer program. She emphasized, "For a volunteer program to work, there must be a cooperative effort between volunteers who provide the service and the school staff who are the recipients of the service" (p. 14).

"Successful volunteer programs are not add-ons to--but integral parts of--instruction, curriculum, staff development, administration and school management" (Gray, 1983). She listed eight keys to an integrated partnership in education: (1) support of the school board and superintendent, (2) written formal policy of support, (3) system wide coordinator or director, (4) focus on involving people rather than money, (5) options for the volunteer in the assistance areas, (6) collaborative/systematic long-range planning and training, (7) promotion with gusto, and (8) evaluation of the program. (See Appendix A for a summarization of the Eight Keys to an Integrated Partnership in Education.)

Mary Poston, director of the Ohio Department of Education's Division of Elementary and Secondary Education, enumerated six components of a successful volunteer program:

1. Assess the needs
2. Recruitment and interview
3. Establishment of a defined policies
4. Right people in the right places
5. Evaluate the effectiveness
6. Recognize and reward the volunteer (NSVP, 1985, May).

Hill's study (1980) on the characteristics of successful school volunteer programs outlined nine elements. (1) Goals are determined for the program. (2) District-Level director or coordinator of volunteers is selected. (3) School system and community support volunteering efforts. The school system supports with budget, policy guidelines and procedures while the community supports with volunteers, share of the funding and advisory board. (4) A comprehensive needs assessment is conducted. (5) Special projects to meet special needs. (6) School staff and the volunteer receive orientation and training. (7) The total program is evaluated. (8) Recognition is provided for the participants. (9) And volunteers receive public exposure.

The NSVP has developed two models for the total school volunteer program development process. The first model, developed by Sandra Gray, contains 17 steps that coordinators of successful programs report are essential before recruitment of volunteers begins. (See Appendix B for an outline of this program.) This model includes needs assessment, program goals, advisory committee,

organizational patterns, job descriptions, written policies, recruitment strategies, evaluation and communication (School Volunteer Programs, 1981).

The second model focuses on the issue of partnership-in-education or business/education. (See Appendix C for a 13-Stage Development Process.) This development process has the same underlying principles found in other educational volunteerism programs. Merenda (1983) included a diagram illustrating the various stages and their relationship to one another. The 13-stage model includes one component not found in the other models--retention of the volunteer.

### Volunteer Coordinator

Volunteer coordinators are individuals in a management position who work directly under the supervision of the school principal, to administer the volunteer program in cooperation with the school staff in order to provide maximum educational opportunities (Lewis, 1978). Carter and Dapper (1974) felt all successful volunteer programs include three parts: (1) volunteers, (2) cooperation of school staff, and (3) liaison persons known as coordinator. "Without a coordinator, a volunteer program is like an orchestra without a leader" (p. 67).

Lewis (1978) stated the volunteer coordinator is responsible for recruiting, interviewing, placing, orienting, training, supervising, motivating and evaluating. Taranto (1982) enumerated that coordinators are responsible for the recruitment of program staff,

for placing, training and supervising that staff and overall control of the program. She listed two important qualities of a coordinator: management techniques and leadership qualities. These two become important since managing a school volunteer program requires knowledge of how to work with adults and students as well as knowledge of curriculum and school policies.

Merenda (1983) expressed a similar view when he said that coordinators personify the commitment to the partnership between school and community. The coordinator directs the resources available toward the agreed upon goals and objectives for the curriculum, instruction, administration management and staff development.

Another role of the coordinator is that of liaison. "Directors of volunteers have the responsibility to be the catalyst to see that open and healthy communication exists between all segments of the program" (Wilson, 1976, p. 178). The coordinators acted as a liaison between the school and the community, between teachers and volunteers and between administration and the volunteers (Lewis, 1978).

### Utilization of the Volunteer

Utilization of the volunteer is directly related to the general goals of the school volunteer program. The Dade County Board of Education (1978) formulated that the comprehensive goals of a school volunteer program are:

1. To provide individualized educational assistance to students.

2. To enrich the students' curriculum and in turn broaden their awareness and experience.
3. To improve students' self-evaluation and worth by increasing their opportunity for educational achievement.
4. To increase students' self-motivation for learning by providing a positive attitude toward education.
5. To encourage the development of self-control and independence in students.
6. To provide students with an opportunity to develop social competency.
7. To relieve the teacher of some non-instructional tasks and duties.
8. To reinforce lesson skills
9. To stimulate community interest, concern and support for the education system.
10. To provide an opportunity for interested community members to become involved directly with the educational system and processes.
11. To strengthen school-community relations through direct and positive participation in the school.
12. To enhance all aspects of the educational process.

From these goals the potential contributions of school volunteers to the educational process become limitless. The imaginative teacher-volunteer team will create many ways to increase learning opportunities for students. The utilization of the volunteer in the educational setting become numerous (NSVP, 1982). Kay Bergdahl, NSVP Regional Vice President, stated it best,

"Volunteers are school employees. The currency is different but they are employees" (NSVP, 1986 January, p. 3).

Volunteers have been utilized to a very small extent in the elementary schools for many years. Traditionally, elementary schools have utilized parents of children for a variety of noncurricular activities. Mothers of children came to the school to help in the library, to help in the cafeteria and to serve as homeroom mothers (Lewis, 1978).

A Teacher Training Task Force of the NSVP and the National Educational Association, under a grant from the Charles Stewart Mott Foundation, developed a list of ways volunteers can be utilized at both the elementary and secondary school levels. The elementary list contains 76 suggestions and the secondary list contains 30 suggestions. Some suggestions are: (a) providing administrative advice; (b) working with school administrators on management techniques through computer technology; (c) serving on advisory committees; (d) tutoring students; (e) providing one-on-one attention to special education and gifted and talented students; (f) providing assistance in special projects; (g) arranging and supervising special programs and assemblies; and (h) assisting with career guidance programs (NSVP, 1982). (See Appendix D for a list of the 76 elementary suggestions and 30 secondary suggestions.)

In Ohio volunteers function as tutors, mentors, resource instructors under the direction of the teacher, staff developers, technical advisors for administrators or management, advisory boards members, assistants in attendance, career guidance and

kindergarten screening programs, or members of committees for curriculum projects (NSVP, 1985 May).

Howard County, Maryland, public schools initiated a program with the senior citizens. To improve basic proficiency in reading, writing and mathematics at the middle school level, the elderly were used in tutoring. Students progressed in the classes with senior citizen volunteer help (Ridge, 1982). Age is not a factor in providing volunteer services to schools. Senior citizens are a valuable resource and a growing number of them are providing many volunteer hours (NSVP, 1985 May).

Senior volunteers are used as tutors, media assistants, clerical help, story tellers or readers, and specialists in career education. Senior citizens bring a wealth of experience and an enthusiasm for life into the school. The number of senior volunteers has grown by evidence of the establishment of the Retired Senior Volunteer Program (School Volunteer Program, 1981).

Clark's report (1984) on model volunteer program in 24 school districts in Maryland concluded that 91 percent of the volunteer coordinators indicated a need for more senior volunteers. Elderly school volunteers provide positive social and academic benefits to the students.

In a survey of 400 volunteer programs, the National School Public Relations Association (1973) reported some unique areas where volunteers can be utilized. The report lists using volunteers in behavior modification with play therapy, in training children with poor perceptual motor skills and in answering community complaints.

From the data on the 571 exemplary secondary schools selected by the U.S. Department of Education's Secondary Schools Recognition Program (Wilson and Rossman, 1986), citizen volunteers were recruited for clerical assistants duties, to serve as nurses' assistants, to come into classroom to teach about special skills and to grade compositions and essays. Volunteers were given extensive opportunities to give their time, experience and good will which becomes a collaborative link in a community. They continue by stating, "What set these exemplary schools apart is the frequency with which the community and the school cooperate, the high level of participation, and the degree to which the activities are considered central to the school" (p. 710).

As the number of school volunteers continues to increase, the utilization of volunteers will become more diversified.

Thus it cannot be stressed enough that today's volunteers not only want to contribute, they want their contribution to have an impact. They want their talents and strengths used in ways that count. And here lies the challenge. For if school volunteer programs do not make good use of the talents they recruit, if they do not offer adequate training programs or competent supervision, they may well lose their volunteers to other fields (Carter and Dapper, 1974, p. 30).

When we look to the future in the utilization of volunteers, the most important development in school volunteering will be new programs aimed at utilizing volunteers in specific areas of the curriculum. This will call for cooperation between curriculum coordinators, administrators, volunteer coordinators and the community (NSVP, 1985 January).



## Benefits of Volunteers

The benefits of integrated school and community educational collaboration start with the learning environment of the school. Moler (1976) made the following general summary statements:

1. Parents contribute toward building good teacher morale.
2. Curricula are enriched by activities of parents.
3. Parents perform school publicity and public relations services.
4. Parents are active in promoting legislation affecting schools.

While Moler focused on only the parent's aspect Johnston and Slotnik (1985) enumerated advantages for both the student and the volunteer. The students were increased in richness and variety of the learning environment and had more enthusiasm from the energies generated by the volunteer. The parent advantages included making them better parents, learning the complexity of the learning process and realizing learning occurs in a variety of settings.

Taranto and Johnson (1984) listed the assets of volunteerism to the entire school system:

1. Enriches student experience and increased student motivation.
2. Frees teachers from nonteaching tasks.
3. Assists in individualizing instruction.
4. Fosters positive awareness and public relations between the school and the community.
5. Stimulates support for public education.

6. Promotes maximum student learning environments between the school and the community.

7. Unifies the community and extends lifelong-learning opportunities.

A report on 212 elementary schools recognized as outstanding by the U.S. Education Department says the successful schools make full use of the resources available in their communities and use outside volunteers to enhance teaching and learning. One of the important resources that contributed to teaching and learning in the exemplary schools was the work of outside volunteers to enhance the instructional program (U. S. Education Department, 1987).

Tom Hood, principal of Ben Milam Elementary in Dallas, Texas, pointed out one of the most spectacular success stories for volunteers when he noted that test scores of students in his school have gone up in years of high volunteer activity and down when the number of volunteers has fallen off (NSVP, 1983 April). Ryan (1976) studied the reading patterns of two groups--an experimental group experiencing a planned program of volunteer participation and a control group with only incidental contact. The planned group scored significantly higher on the word meaning test. This group also read more extensively, visited the library more frequently and expected less help with new words than the control group.

In other studies the National School Volunteer Program Information Bank (1976) cited two programs where academic achievement was related to volunteerism. The remedial reading program at Castlemont High School in Oakland, California, was adopted by the Clorox Company. During the first semester of the

program students gained an average of 11 months in their reading capabilities. Where reading skills improved, class attendance and student attitude improved dramatically. In Boston's Two-Way Tutoring Program high school students, including many with low reading scores, tutored younger students in reading. Tutors raised their own reading scores an average of 1.2 years for an average 6 month period of combined training and tutoring (NSVP Information Bank, 1976).

Baker's study (1975) indicated that the reading and mathematics achievement of minority group girls was enhanced by assigning high school student volunteers of like race as tutors. Analysis of the data gathered by Dade County Board of Education (1978), Dade County, Florida Public Schools, on the parents and senior citizens as volunteers, showed similar results. Students in grades 2-6 who were one or more years below national norms in reading and mathematics achievement were tutored by volunteers. They gained significantly more in reading and mathematics achievement than the non-tutored control group students.

Some studies on volunteers as tutors showed no significant achievement gains. Howard (1986) reported that volunteer tutoring had no effective measurable increase on reading scores with the experimental group. However, academic achievement was only one benefit of a effective school volunteer program.

Individual attention and instruction is another advantage of school volunteer programs. Paul Romig, Principal of Dogwood Elementary School in Fairfax County, Virginia, had volunteers contribute more than 1,000 hours of service each month. He stated,

" With the volunteer help we can give that much more attention to the individual child" (NSVP, 1983 April, p. 2). Doyle (1976) concurred when he emphasized that the children are the beneficiaries of school volunteers. Students are offered new activities and personal attention to aid academic progress.

Conclusions of a dissertation by Yagmin (1985) concerning the effect of classroom volunteers on teacher-student interaction indicated that individual attention to student learning increases with volunteers. According to Yagmin: (a) teachers are able to interact significantly more with those students who remain with the teacher; (b) volunteers do not impede teacher-student interaction and sometimes enhance it; (c) volunteers in the classroom increase the teacher's individual attention to the students; and (d) training is needed to utilize volunteers more fully.

In an exploratory study conducted in a school where about 90 assistants were assigned to one or more of the 26 classroom teachers, it was concluded that the amount of individualized instruction increased considerably with the number of assistants who were available to help in the classroom. That same study suggested that the teacher's role in managing assistants in the classroom was crucial for the effective utilization of these helpers. The study found that the amount of interaction with individual students during instructional time appeared directly related to the teacher's ability to organize and coordinate assistants (NSVP Information Bank, 1976).

NSVP believed that volunteers bring their varied backgrounds, career experiences, skills and resources into the classroom and

enrich the learning environment. Five results of an enriched learning environment were:

1. Stimulated citizen understanding of school problems.
2. Tell taxpayers about problems and success.
3. Greater motivation of student learning.
4. Better attendance at school.
5. Improved student achievement (School Volunteer Program, 1981).

Although all effects of a volunteer program are hard to measure, the benefits from the volunteer are still noticeable. Franchine (1982) pointed out that those students, in the Chicago public schools mathematics department, being tutored by a volunteer showed a maturity about learning which is expressed in being more adventurous and confident.

A particular convincing example of the benefits of community involvement in education is found in the final report of a six-year federal Rural/Urban Project (Joyce, 1978). This project was carried out by the Leadership Training Institute of the Center for Educational Research at Stanford University under a contract with the National Institute of Education. A final comprehensive evaluation of the project concluded that the project had significant impact on the individual communities by

1. Decreasing feelings of alienation between community members and school staff;
2. Increasing feelings of efficacy on the part of all groups which were involved;
3. Bringing about a more integrative education process;

4. Generating a flow of energy into those communities;
5. Demonstrating that local needs can be translated by local personnel into meaningful programs.

Looking more specifically at the consequences of community involvement in school volunteer programs, Santee Ruffin, Director of Urban Services, National Association of Secondary School Principals (NSVP, 1983 April), asserted:

The school volunteer is more necessary now than ever, as schools are reducing teaching personnel and cutting down in areas such as secretarial and infirmary staff. . . .Volunteers in schools become community ambassadors. Once they know what's going on, they become supporters. A treasured by-product of voluntarism is true community involvement (p. 4).

Lareau and Benson (1984) proposed that the public benefits include such things as social cohesion, an enlightened electorate, intellectual and artistic expression, inventions and innovations. Volunteerism allows parents to use their energies and specialized knowledge to foster the development of larger groups of children and to encourage teachers to deal with students in a more individual fashion.

More important, than any specific activity, are the feelings beliefs and values that all the activities of volunteerism generate. These local experiences show how people can be drawn into the daily life of the school. This builds commitment and loyalty. It creates a special identity for the school that includes the surrounding community. The ethic of mutual caring that is created multiplies the effectiveness of the school and integrates the school into its community (Wilson and Rossman, 1986).

Hedges' (1972) research suggested that using parents as volunteers benefits their children as it: (a) increases communication between home and school; (b) improves parental attitudes; and (c) enhances parents' teaching skill.

Davies' (1976) intensive case studies of more than 35 schools in 11 states around the country added supporting evidence to Hedges's findings. He purposely examined examples of parent involvement projects which had been highly successful in overcoming community disenchantment with public education. In all cases, there was found to be true joint ownership by teachers, administrators and community members in planning and decision participation in the education program of the schools. In a number of schools, a school volunteer program was part of the total process. The case study of the Laquntias School in Marin County, California, provided a good example. The comments written by parent volunteers in the daily log showed the openness of communication between the school staff and families.

The 1985 Gallup Poll made the point that those individuals most closely in touch with the schools--and presumably most knowledgeable about them--perceived them more favorably than individuals with infrequent contact with the schools. Volunteers in the community who participate in the school activities and are exposed to educational processes through volunteering became more aware of the positive functions of the school. It may be difficult to measure the benefits of a school volunteer program, but a former commissioner of education noted, "What school volunteers give, money can't buy" (Alden, 1979, p. 17).

## Disadvantages of Volunteers

Although the advantages of school volunteers are compelling, a school volunteer program is not without drawbacks. Johnson and Slotnik (1985) listed five disadvantages associated with volunteers:

1. A successful program of parent participation requires the teachers to carefully nurture and actively encourage parents. The teacher must learn to manage the volunteer and their individual differences.

2. As relationships between teacher and volunteer develop, the eroding of the traditional parent/teacher boundaries requires additional problem solving time constraints.

3. Another time constraint is the scheduling of volunteers into the school week. Combining the volunteers' interests, abilities and time constraints to the students academic needs and schedule required flexibility.

4. This flexibility leads to another problem of fragmentation of learning.

5. With several parents and volunteers participating in the classroom it became difficult to maintain consistency with regard to student behavior.

Parker's (1984) research on the use of parent-volunteers as coordinators for peer tutoring program indicated several inadequacies. Some of the problems cited were: continued absenteeism because of illness, family commitments taking precedent over volunteering, salary commitment canceling volunteer service and school system activities interfering with tutoring.



Johnson and Slotnik (1985) assessed the disadvantages of utilizing volunteers by stating:

Given these disadvantages and myriad complications, is parent participation in the classroom really worth the effort? Having spent a combined total of 14 years teaching in cooperative elementary schools, we still answer in the affirmative with conviction and enthusiasm. The burdens are definitely balanced by the benefits (p. 433).

### Leadership of the Principal

The principal has a key role in determining the community involvement of volunteers in the school setting. Yet, principals reflect certain ambiguity concerning their role and the impact volunteerism has in education. As the person in charge of the school's staff and educational programs, he serves as the general supervisor of all volunteers and the volunteer program (Lewis, 1978). Gray contended:

It is a simple maxim that a school volunteer program will not succeed if the building principal is not committed to it. In this, as in so many other aspects of education, it is the principal who sets the tone and the atmosphere in which people work together to the benefit of students (NSVP, 1983 April, p. 3).

In a study of elementary principals, Goldhammer and Becker (1971) admitted that working with parents and community volunteers was one of the most difficult tasks for principals. Davies (1976) surmised that some administrators were reluctant to work with parents for fear that the parents might see the problems and begin to demand changes in school curriculum and programs. In response to this fear many schools and principals put "window

dressings activities" for the appearance of an open, responsive school system with parent and community involvement, but without reality or substance.

Because most of the citizen involvement in schools has been at the elementary and pre-school programs, the majority of research on attitudes toward parent involvement relates to younger children (Thornburg, 1981). Elementary programs considered three approaches to parent involvement in the schools: (a) parent involvement to help parents in their role as educational facilitators to their children, (b) parent involvement with benefits to both the school and the parent, and (c) parent involvement to support the school programs. Secondary programs generally use the third approach (Bauch, Vietze, & Morris, 1973).

Parents' perceptions of how administrators view parent involvement in the schools was studied by Ainsworth (1977) in consultation with the League of Women Voters. It outlined parents' perspective of administrators' (a) ignoring help that volunteers gave, (b) having difficulty in selecting advisory committees, and (c) showing frustration of long term projects. The study concluded that the parents wanted less alienation between schools and community.

Two other studies reflected adversely on principal and community involvement. Van Cleve (1984) suggested that principals spend a great deal of time buffering teachers from the outside environment. When principals do this, however, relations between the schools and the community often suffer. Hickey (1977) stated that one of the major obstacles to community involvement was the principals' reluctance to utilize volunteers in the schools.

In major research by Blumberg and Greenfield (1980), they found that effective principals were not willing to simply keep the pace and maintain a smooth organization. All were innovators, constantly seeking ways to effect school improvement with an emphasis on student learning. Principals who utilized volunteers to improve the learning environment were considered to be innovators.

The National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) with funding from the Rockefeller Family Fund clarified the high school principal's role in community involvement. The principals of the survey had been identified as "effective" by a previous study. Of these principals sampled:

1. Sixty-seven percent agreed that citizen involvement increased commitment and support.
2. Sixty-four percent did not feel that sharing policy and decision power with the community reduced the principal's authority.
3. Sixty-seven percent believed that citizen involvement creates a more positive public opinion of schools.
4. Seventy-six percent felt citizens needed to be involved in the evaluation of curriculum and programs
5. Seventy-seven percent responded that involvement in evaluation creates increased student learning (Hines and McCleary, 1980).

Another study by Thornburg (1981) showed positive attitudes of principals and teachers toward parents working in schools. More specifically it found that (a) principals preferred parents to be involved as decisionmakers in the schools, and teachers preferred

more support and volunteering from parents. (b) Principals and teachers preferred significantly more parental volunteering than did parents.

The Teacher Training Task Forces explained the support of the principal in improving the involvement of school volunteers:

The principal can demonstrate support for school volunteer programs by welcoming new volunteers at the orientation session, by encouraging teachers to involve volunteers, by helping the school volunteer coordinator to train volunteers and teachers, by enlisting the support of the total staff, and by ensuring proper recognition of the contributions of school volunteers (NSVP, 1982, p. 23).

The principal provides the leadership role for a successful and effective school volunteer program. His efforts can insure that the volunteer program is "a positive public relations program" for the school (NSVP, 1983 April, p. 5). This leadership role included:

1. Discussing and enlisting support of the staff.
2. Making space available for volunteers.
3. Appointing a coordinator.
4. Acquainting the volunteers with teachers and staff.
5. Reviewing and evaluating the program regularly.
6. Identifying volunteers for leadership in future programs.

(See Appendix E for an additional listing of the leadership roles of the principal.)

### Summary

Most writers perceive the concept of the traditional school changing to involve more community resources in the educational

process. One of these resources that has shown phenomenal growth is the role of volunteers in the public schools. Volunteerism enriches and enhances the learning environment for both the learner and the teacher. School volunteers serve the school in a variety of ways by assisting the teacher, offering individualized instruction to students, expanding school programs and stimulating community support for education.

Some important components of successful and effective school volunteer programs are needs assessment, recruitment, orientation, training and evaluation. One key to an effective volunteer program is a coordinator or director. The coordinator serves as a liaison between the school and the community with the overall responsibility for recruiting, placing, training and supervising volunteers and staff.

The principal is another key to an effective program. The success of the program depends upon the principal's attitude and the atmosphere of the school setting.

The problems in using school volunteers are more than offset by the results--a better community in which to educate children and adults. Volunteers extend the teaching capacity of the schools, bring unique skill, talent and expertise with their service and improve the climate of the community culture that encourages a sense of caring for the quality of life.

## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### Scope of Study

This research study examined the level of acceptance and utilization of school volunteers as perceived by elementary and secondary principals in Oklahoma. The level of acceptance and utilization was studied to determine if there were significant differences among mean scores on selected descriptive categories.

#### Description of Sample

The population of this study included all elementary, middle/junior high and high school principals of independent school districts in the state of Oklahoma. A stratified proportional random sample of 105 elementary school principals, 42 middle/junior high schools and 53 high school principals was selected. (See Table 1.)

Since a random sample may by chance have an undue proportion of one type of unit in it, an investigator may use stratified random sampling to get a more representative sample. When employing this technique, he divides his population into strata by some characteristic and from each of these smaller homogeneous groups draws at random a predetermined number of units (Van Dalen, 1973, p. 299).

TABLE 1  
SUMMARY OF INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS IN THE STATE OF  
OKLAHOMA AND STRATIFIED RANDOM  
SAMPLE BY CLASSIFICATIONS

Stratified Group	Schools in Population	% of Total Population	Schools in Sample	% of Schools in Sample
Elementary	926	52.3	105	52.5
Middle/Junior	374	21.1	42	21.0
High	470	26.6	53	26.5
Total	1770	100.0	200	100.0

Two factors accounted for determining a sample size of 200. First, the researcher expected a 60 percent return rate for the questionnaire mailed to principals. Second, those responses that were returned invalid because the participant did not follow the directions could not be used for statistical purposes.

Three strata were selected by the researcher after examining the data listed in the Oklahoma Education Directory for 1987-1988 school year. Each of the schools in the three strata was assigned numbers. Using a table of random numbers from Gay (1981), selection of participant principals was made separately in each of the three strata to obtain the subjects for the sample.

## Instrumentation

The instrument used to gather the data was a questionnaire developed by the researcher. The questionnaire reflected information assembled from the review of the literature, the Self-Assessment System for School Volunteer Programs, National Information Center on Volunteerism (1979) and from the researcher's personal experience. (See Appendix F for a copy of the final version School Volunteer Questionnaire.)

The survey was divided into two sections. The first section consisted of descriptive data: size of school, classification of school, training of the principal in volunteerism, principal's personal volunteerism, use of volunteers at the school and volunteer coordination in the school.

The second section consisted of statements grouped into two areas: indirect instructional services and direct instructional services. Indirect instructional services refer to responsibilities that teachers have which are not considered teaching, such as, supervising students, making visual materials and keeping records and attendance. Direct instructional services refer to interaction with students in the teaching process. The statements in this section assessed the utilization of volunteers in the public schools.

Each response was recorded on a 5-Point Likert scale with possible answers of "Frequently," "Often," "Sometimes," "Seldom," or "Never." The principal indicated his perception in two areas: (1) the "actual" level of utilization of volunteers at his school and (2) the "preferred" level volunteers should be utilized at the school.



Discussion with four professors of education at Oklahoma State University was helpful in designing and developing the questionnaire.

Following the selection of participant schools, the questionnaire was field tested. The field-test questionnaire was mailed in January 1988 with a response date of two weeks.. Along with the questionnaire, the researcher sent an accompanying letter that briefly described the purpose of the study and explained the desire to test the survey instrument for clarity. (See Appendix G for a copy of the cover letter that accompanied the field testing of the questionnaire.)

After the sample of 200 schools was selected, six schools were randomly selected from the remaining pool for the field test. Three schools, or fifty percent of the schools selected for the field test, returned responses. Two schools responded with information to increase the clarity of the instructions for filling out the questionnaire.

#### Data Collection

The questionnaire was mailed in March 1988 to each principal of the 200 selected for the sample, as indicated in Table 1, with a response time deadline of two weeks. Each survey instrument was coded with an assigned number. Coding of the questionnaire was performed to identify the subjects who did not respond to the first mailing so that they could be included in a second mailing.

Included with the questionnaire was a cover letter (see Appendix H) explaining the purpose of the survey, where the results from the questionnaire could be sent; that the identity of schools and principals participating would remain confidential; and that the principal's assistance in gathering this information on volunteerism in education was important. Fifty-three percent, or 107, of the questionnaires were returned on the first mailing. The data in column three of Table 2 showed the number of principals in each stratum which responded to the first mailing.

Two weeks after the first mailing, a second mailing, in April 1988, occurred to principals who did not return responses. A second cover letter (see Appendix I) was included with the survey and informed the nonresponding principals of their importance to the research and encouraged them to return the questionnaire in two weeks. Forty-one questionnaires were returned on the second mailing. The data in column four of Table 2 showed the number of principals in each stratum which responded to the second mailing.

Of the 74 percent, or 148, of the questionnaires returned, 70 percent, or 140, of the questionnaires were used in the study. Four percent, or 8, of the questionnaires returned were incomplete and therefore were not used for research.

The data in column five of Table 3 indicated that the representation of respondents within each stratum was consistent with the representation random-stratified-sample. Over 52 percent of the stratified sample consisted of elementary principals and 52 percent of the returned responses were from this stratum. Twenty-one percent of stratified sample was middle/junior high principals

TABLE 2  
SUMMARY OF RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE  
RETURNED BY PRINCIPALS IN SAMPLE  
BY CLASSIFICATION

Stratified Group	Schools in Sample	First Mailing	Second Mailing	Total Returned	% Sample Returned
Elementary	105	58	19	77	73.3
Middle/Junior	42	23	10	33	78.5
High	53	26	12	38	71.6
Total	200	107	41	148	74.0

TABLE 3  
SUMMARY OF STRATIFIED-RANDOM SAMPLE  
AND RETURNED STRATIFIED SAMPLE

Stratified Group	Schools in Sample	% of Sample	Returned Responses	% Returned Responses
Elementary	105	52.5	77	52.0
Middle/Junior	42	21.0	33	22.3
High	53	26.5	38	25.7
Total	200	100.0	148	100.0

and 22.3 percent of the returned responses were from this stratum. Finally, 26.5 percent of the stratified sample was high school principals and 25.7 percent of the returned responses represented this stratum.

After receiving the responses from the second mailing, an effort to check nonrespondent principals to determine whether or not answers from nonrespondent principals were dramatically different from those of respondent principals was conducted. This validation was conducted by telephoning a random sample of nonrespondents to get answers on several questions which were compared with information given by respondents. No substantial differences were found in nonrespondent principals' telephone answers when compared to respondent principals' responses.

### Research Design

According to Gay (1981), one of the critical decisions in the analysis of research data is whether to select a parametric or non parametric test. Parametric tests were selected for this study because parametric tests are usually more powerful and seem to be relatively hearty. Gay (1981) stated, "more powerful means that the test is more likely to reject the null hypotheses when it should be rejected" (p. 317). He referred to "hearty" statistics as being valid even when assumptions are violated moderately.

Parametric tests are used when the data meet four assumptions:

1. The variables measured are normally distributed.
2. The data represent an interval or ratio scale of measurement.
3. The selection of subjects is independent and random.

4. The variances within the groups are relatively the same (that is homogeneity of variance) (Gay, 1981, p. 318).

In this study the data were analyzed with the statistical package MYSTAT (1988). Two parametric statistical techniques, t-test and one way analysis of variance, were used to compare mean scores.

Research questions concerning the description of (a) principal's education in volunteerism, (b) principal's volunteering time and service to other organizations and (c) principals with school volunteer coordinators were formed into two groups; principals who responded yes and principals who responded no. An independent t-test was used to analyze these questions because it was one parametric statistical technique "to compare two groups to see whether the differences between group means are large enough to assume that the corresponding population means are different" (Huck, 1974, p. 49).

Since the principals classified their schools as elementary, middle/junior high or high school, a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was selected to analyze these data. Huck (1974) pointed out that the ANOVA is an inferential statistical procedure to test for a significant difference between two or more group means.

The school population size was categorized into three groups; schools of population 1-200, schools of population 201-400 and schools of population 400 and more. The researcher derived these categories through information received from the Oklahoma State Department of Education on the mean size of all schools in the state

of Oklahoma. Since the research compared the mean scores of these three categories, an ANOVA was selected for analysis of this data.

Data concerning the utilization of the school volunteer in indirect and direct instructional services were presented in a table of mean scores. The data on the factors affecting the utilization of volunteers in indirect and direct instructional services were grouped and listed.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF DATA

#### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the level of acceptance and utilization of volunteers in public schools as perceived by Oklahoma public school principals. The goal of the study was to answer nine research questions, the answers to which may advance principals' perceptions concerning the acceptance and utilization of volunteers in the public schools. The following questions were examined:

1. Does the size of the school affect the principal's perception in the utilization of school volunteers?
2. Do elementary, middle/junior high and high school principals have different perceptions concerning the utilization of school volunteers?
3. Do principals who have training in volunteerism have different perceptions concerning the utilization of school volunteers than principals who have not had that training?
4. Do principals who volunteer time and service to another organization have different perceptions concerning the utilization of volunteers than principals who have not volunteered time or service?

5. Do principals who have school volunteer coordinators at the district or building level have different perceptions concerning the utilization of volunteers than principals who did not have school volunteer coordinators?

6. As perceived by principals, how are volunteers utilized in indirect instructional services?

7. As perceived by principals, how are volunteers utilized in direct instructional services?

8. As perceived by principals, what factors affect the utilization of volunteers in indirect instructional services?

9. As perceived by principals, what factors affect the utilization of volunteers in direct instructional services?

The remainder of this chapter is devoted to the preparation of the questionnaire for analysis, descriptive characteristics of principals and analysis of research questions. Data and results are presented in narrative and table formats.

#### Preparations of the Questionnaire for Analysis

In order to analyze the data from the questionnaire, the researcher totaled some of the perception scores and categorized the school by size. The responses to each of the seven volunteer utilization items in indirect instructional services and direct instructional services were totaled to create four perception totals. The columns under the "actual" utilization and under "preferred" utilization were totaled separately. This created a perception total for (a) actual utilization for indirect, (b) preferred utilization for indirect, (c) actual utilization for direct and (d) preferred



utilization for direct. Seven was the least possible total for any of the four perceptions and 35 was the highest possible total in any of the four perceptions.

The researcher totaled actual utilization in indirect and actual utilization in direct to create an actual utilization total perception. The same process occurred for the preferred utilization in indirect and preferred utilization in direct to create a preferred utilization total perception.

The principals' responses based on the school population size were categorized into three groups: (a) schools with average daily attendance of 1-200 students, (b) schools with average daily attendance of 201-400 students and (c) schools with average daily attendance of 401 and more students.

### Descriptive Data

Descriptive data of principals are presented in Table 4. The number and percentages of responses in (a) school population size, (b) classification, (c) training, (d) volunteerism of personal time and service, (e) school involvement of volunteers and (f) level of school coordinator of volunteers are presented.

Thirty-five percent, or 49, of the principals indicated that their school population was in the category 401 and more. School population size of 201-400 accounted for 30 percent, or 43, of the

TABLE 4  
 DESCRIPTIVE CHARACTERISTICS OF PUBLIC SCHOOL  
 PRINCIPALS BY CLASSIFICATION

Descriptor	Classification						Total	
	Elementary		Middle		High		N	%*
	N	%	N	%	N	%		
Level	71	50.7	31	22.2	38	27.1	140	100.0
Size								
1-200	18	12.9	14	10.0	16	11.4	48	34.3
201-400	24	17.1	6	4.3	13	9.3	43	30.7
400-up	29	20.7	11	7.9	9	6.4	49	35.0
Training								
Yes	29	20.7	5	3.6	10	7.1	44	31.4
No	42	30.0	26	18.6	28	20.0	96	68.6
Personal Time								
Yes	61	43.6	26	18.5	32	22.9	119	85.0
No	10	7.1	5	3.6	6	4.3	21	15.0
Utilization								
Never	2	1.4	1	0.7	0	0.0	3	2.1
Seldom	14	10.0	7	5.0	10	7.1	31	22.1
Sometimes	16	11.4	14	10.0	20	14.3	50	35.7
Often	16	11.4	3	2.1	5	3.6	24	17.1
Frequently	23	16.4	6	4.3	3	2.1	32	22.8
Coordinator								
Building	3	2.1	5	3.6	5	3.6	13	9.3
District	12	8.6	1	0.7	1	0.7	14	10.0
Both	9	6.4	3	2.1	0	0.0	12	8.6
None	47	33.6	22	15.7	32	22.8	101	72.1

\* Subgroups may not total to 100 due to rounding

respondents while school size of 1-200 was 34 percent, or 48, of the respondents. The largest single group of respondents, 20 percent or 29 of the principals, was the elementary principals with school size of 401 and more.

Sixty-eight percent, or 96, of the principals responded that they had no training in the area of volunteer management, citizen involvement or community education. These 96 principals, with no training in volunteer management, citizen involvement or community education, were composed of 42 elementary principals, 26 middle/junior high principals and 28 high school principals.

A majority, 85 percent or 119, of the principals indicated that they volunteered their personal time or service to other organizations. These 119 principals who donated personal time or service to other organization included 61 elementary principals, 26 middle/junior high principals and 32 high school principals. For the item of volunteer utilization in the schools, 32 principals indicated volunteers were utilized "frequently", 24 principals indicated volunteers were utilized "often", 50 principals indicated volunteers were utilized "sometimes", 31 principals indicated volunteers were utilized "seldom", and 3 principals indicated volunteers were utilized "never".

Over 72 percent, or 101, of the principals indicated that they had no coordinator for school volunteers. Of the 39 principals who had volunteer coordinators, 13 principals had coordinators at the building level, 14 principal had coordinators at the district level and 12 principals had coordinators at the district and building level.

## Analysis of Research Questions

Each of the six independent variables (1) size of school, (2) classification, (3) training, (4) personal volunteering, (5) school utilization and (6) coordinator of volunteers was analyzed with the dependent variables of the principals' perception of school volunteer utilization in actual indirect, actual direct, actual total, preferred indirect, preferred direct and preferred total.

### 1. Does the size of the school affect the principal's perception in the utilization of school volunteers?

A one-way analysis of variance was used in analyzing the data for each of the principals' perceptions of utilization of school volunteers. A one-way analysis of variance is based upon the assumption that the scores in each of the various groups have approximately the same variance. If the various groups contained the same sample size, the F test is robust to violations of homogeneity of variance assumption. If the sample did not contain the same number of subjects, the researcher was obligated to test the assumption of equal variances (Huck, 1974).

When the researcher checked the responses, the data indicated unequal group sizes which meant the possibility of unequal variance of scores in each group. Hartley's F-max test, one of four popular procedures to test the assumption of homogeneity among variances, was selected to test for homogeneity of variance (Jaccard, 1984). The result of this test (see Table 5) yielded a  $F\text{-max}=2.304$  ( $p < .05$ ) for the perception of school volunteer utilization of actual indirect, indicating a significant difference in group variances. Since the

TABLE 5

RESULTS OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE TEST: PERCEIVED  
 UTILIZATION OF SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS  
 BY PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS  
 BASED ON SCHOOL SIZE

Utilization	<u>1-200</u> (N=48) Variance	<u>201-400</u> (N=43) Variance	<u>400+</u> (N=49) Variance	F
<u>Actual</u>				
Indirect	12.679	25.130	29.225	2.304*
Direct	15.686	15.454	20.776	1.324
Total	48.589	64.429	80.092	1.648
<u>Prefer</u>				
Indirect	18.319	29.796	22.975	1.626
Direct	17.232	21.502	18.532	1.247
Total	53.950	87.928	66.062	1.629

\* $p < .05$

three categories of principals failed to have approximately the same variance, the researcher did not analyze this data with a one-way analysis of variance. In the other five measures, the degree of homogeneity was not significant, permitting the researcher to test for the differences among the means with ANOVA.

The data in Table 6 showed significant differences between group means in the five perceptions of school volunteer utilization; actual direct ( $F=6.156$ ,  $df = 2/137$ ,  $p < .05$ ), actual total ( $F=10.822$ ,  $df = 2/137$ ), preferred indirect ( $F=8.451$ ,  $df = 2/137$ ), preferred direct ( $F=3.464$ ,  $df = 2/137$ ) and preferred total ( $F=7.264$ ,  $df = 2/137$ ). The researcher then proceeded to determine the relationship between the significant means with a multiple comparison test. Tukey's honest significant difference (HSD) test was selected because it is one of the more common methods and it is a conservative procedure to determine the relationship between group means (Jaccard, 1984). (See Table 7.)

An examination of the means in Table 7 revealed that the means for principals with schools of size 401 and more and principals with schools of size 201-400 was greater than the mean for principals with schools of size 1-200 in the perception of school volunteer utilization of actual total, preferred indirect and preferred total ( $p < .05$ ). The difference in means between principals with schools size 201-400 and principals with schools of size 401 and more was not significant for the same perceptions of school volunteer utilization of actual total, preferred indirect and preferred total ( $p < .05$ ). This indicated that principals with schools of size 201-400 and principals with schools of size 401 and more utilized more

TABLE 6

RESULTS OF ANOVA: PERCEIVED UTILIZATION OF  
SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS BY PUBLIC SCHOOL  
PRINCIPALS BASED ON SCHOOL SIZE

Utilization	SS	<i>df</i>	MS	F
<u>Actual</u>				
Direct				
Between	214.208	2	107.104	6.156*
Within	2383.585	137	17.398	
Total				
Between	1395.718	2	697.859	10.822*
Within	8834.075	137	64.482	
<u>Prefer</u>				
Indirect				
Between	396.648	2	198.324	8.451*
Within	3215.237	137	23.469	
Direct				
Between	131.598	2	65.799	3.464*
Within	2602.537	137	18.997	
Total				
Between	996.798	2	498.399	7.264*
Within	9399.623	137	68.610	

\* $p < .05$

TABLE 7

RESULTS OF TUKEY'S HSD TEST: PERCEIVED UTILIZATION  
OF SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS BY PUBLIC SCHOOL  
PRINCIPALS BASED ON SCHOOL SIZE

		<u>Absolute Difference Between Means</u>			
Utilization	Mean	<u>A-Schools</u> 1-200	<u>B-Schools</u> 201-400	<u>C-Schools</u> 400-+	CD**
<u>Actual</u>					
Direct	A-13.625	---	3.073*	1.497	1.97
	B-16.698	---	---	1.576	
	C-15.122	---	---	---	
Total	A-26.417	---	7.583*	5.277*	3.80
	B-34.000	---	---	2.306	
	C-31.694	---	---	---	
<u>Prefer</u>					
Indirect	A-17.646	---	3.680*	3.415*	2.28
	B-21.061	---	---	0.265	
	C-21.061	---	---	---	
Direct	A-18.458	---	2.240*	1.807	2.06
	B-20.698	---	---	0.433	
	C-20.265	---	---	---	
Total	A-35.917	---	6.106*	5.063*	3.92
	B-42.023	---	---	1.043	
	C-40.980	---	---	---	

\*  $p < .05$

\*\* Value of critical difference



volunteers and preferred more volunteer participation than principals with schools of size 1-200.

In the perception of school volunteer utilization of actual direct and preferred direct, the data in Table 7 revealed that the means were significantly different between principals with schools of size 201-400 and principals with schools of size 1-200 . However, no significant difference in means for the perception of school volunteer utilization of actual direct and preferred direct were found between principals with schools of size 1-200 and principals with schools of size 401 and more and between principals with schools of size 201-400 and principals with school of size 401 and more ( $p < .05$ ). This indicated that principals with schools of size 1-200 did not utilize volunteers in classroom activities directly related to instruction as frequently as principals with schools of size 201-400.

2. Do elementary, middle/junior high and high school principals have different perceptions concerning the utilization of school volunteers?

Since the three classifications of principals, elementary, middle/junior high and high school, have unequal group sizes, a test for the assumption of equal variances was necessary. A Hartley's F-max test (Jaccard, 1983) on the within-group variances showed significance for the principals' perceptions of school volunteer utilization in actual total ( $F=2.522$ ,  $p < .05$ ). (See Table 8.) The principals' perceptions of school volunteer utilization in actual indirect, actual direct, preferred indirect, preferred direct and preferred total failed to show significance ( $p < .05$ ), thus indicating

TABLE 8

RESULTS OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE TEST: PERCEIVED  
UTILIZATION OF SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS BY PUBLIC  
SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BASED ON INVOLVEMENT  
BY CLASSIFICATION

Utilize	<u>Elem (N=71)</u> Variance	<u>Middle (N=31)</u> Variance	<u>High (N=38)</u> Variance	F
<u>Actual</u>				
Indirect	26.702	17.806	30.826	1.731
Direct	18.960	11.733	23.494	2.002
Total	76.588	37.658	94.996	2.522*
<u>Prefer</u>				
Indirect	27.788	23.512	22.885	1.214
Direct	21.199	20.531	15.974	1.331
Total	82.014	68.265	61.588	1.331

\* $p < .05$

homogeneity of variance. Because the variance within the cells are homogeneous for these five perceptions, this allowed the researcher to proceed with the analysis by testing for differences among the means.

An ANOVA was then used to analyze the data for the principals' perceptions of school volunteer utilization in actual indirect, actual direct, preferred indirect, preferred direct and preferred total. The results, in Table 9, showed that mean perception differences among the three classifications of principals; elementary, middle/junior high and high school, failed to reach significance. The mean differences among perceptions were spread from the perception of actual indirect ( $F=2.332$ ,  $df = 2/137$ ,  $p < .05$ ) to the perception of preferred direct ( $F=1.100$ ,  $df = 2/137$ ).

3. Do principals, who have training in volunteerism, have different perceptions concerning the utilization of school volunteers than principals who have not had that training?

The means and variances of the principals, who indicated training in volunteerism, and principals, who indicated no training in volunteerism, were computed. The differences between means were analyzed by the use of a *t* test for independent samples. According to Huck (1974) "the *t* test assumes that the scores in one sample group have about same the degree of variability as the scores in the second group" (p. 57). Since the two cell sizes from the sample date were 44 principals with training in volunteerism and 96 principals with no training in volunteerism, the researcher tested for the assumption of homogeneous variances.

TABLE 9

RESULTS OF ANOVA: PERCEIVED UTILIZATION OF  
SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS BY PUBLIC SCHOOL  
PRINCIPALS BASED ON INVOLVEMENT  
BY CLASSIFICATION

Utilization	SS	<i>df</i>	MS	F	<i>p</i>
<u>Actual</u>					
Indirect					
Between	120.635	2	60.317	2.332	0.101
Within	3543.901	137	25.868		
Direct					
Between	49.347	2	24.673	1.326	0.269
Within	2548.446	137	18.602		
<u>Prefer</u>					
Indirect					
Between	114.585	2	57.292	2.244	0.110
Within	3497.301	137	25.528		
Direct					
Between	43.204	2	21.602	1.100	0.336
Within	2690.932	137	19.642		
Total					
Between	328.765	2	164.383	2.237	0.111
Within	10067.656	137	73.487		

Group variances were calculated to an F value which was compared to a critical F value at the .05 significant level with  $df = 43/95$  (Jaccard, 1983). Because none of the six F tests on principals' perceptions was significant, the researcher was able to proceed with the  $t$  test. (See Table 10.)

Analysis of the  $t$  test revealed that each of the principals' perceptions showed significant differences in means for principals with training in volunteerism and principals with no training in volunteerism. (See Table 10.) In the principals' perception of school volunteer utilization in actual total, the mean of principals with training in volunteerism was 34.773 compared to a mean of 28.677 for principals without training in volunteerism. While principals with training in volunteerism had a perception in total preferred mean of 43.227, principals without training in volunteerism had a perception in total preferred mean of 37.885. In each of the perceptions, the mean for principals with training in volunteerism was significantly higher than principals with no training in volunteerism.

4. Do principals, who volunteer time and service to another organization, have different perceptions concerning the utilization of volunteers than principals who have not volunteered time and service?

Since the group sizes were 119 for principals indicating volunteering service to another organization and 21 for principals not volunteering service, a homogeneity of variance assumption was tested. (See Table 11.) The result showed significant differences in variances between the scoring groups on the principals' perceptions

TABLE 10

RESULTS OF *t* TEST AND HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE TEST:  
 PERCEIVED UTILIZATION OF SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS BY  
 PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BASED ON  
 TRAINING OF PRINCIPAL

Utilize	<u>Yes (N=44)</u>		<u>No (N=96)</u>		F	t
	Mean	Variance	Mean	Variance		
<u>Actual</u>						
Indirect	17.932	24.158	14.646	24.210	1.002	3.670*
Direct	16.977	20.534	14.229	15.652	1.311	3.643*
Total	34.773	68.970	28.677	64.663	1.066	4.121*
<u>Prefer</u>						
Indirect	21.955	25.812	19.063	23.680	1.090	3.220*
Direct	21.273	21.412	19.094	17.581	1.217	2.762*
Total	43.227	73.482	37.885	67.113	1.094	3.530*

# F test--test the homogeneity of variance,  $p < .05$

\**t* test--test significance of difference between means,  $p < .05$

TABLE 11

RESULTS OF *t* TEST AND HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE TEST:  
 PERCEIVED UTILIZATION OF SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS  
 BY PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BASED ON  
 VOLUNTEERMENT OF PRINCIPAL

Utilize	<u>Yes (N=119)</u>		<u>No (N=21)</u>		F	<i>t</i>
	Mean	Variance	Mean	Variance		
<u>Actual</u>						
Indirect	16.353	26.518	11.857	8.729	3.037#	
Direct	15.529	18.607	12.619	12.548	1.482	2.920*
Total	31.672	72.782	24.276	35.862	2.029#	
<u>Prefer</u>						
Indirect	20.605	23.800	16.381	24.248	1.018	3.653*
Direct	20.244	19.423	17.143	13.529	1.435	3.040*
Total	40.655	69.957	33.381	59.848	1.168	3.714*

# F test--test the homogeneity of variance,  $p < .05$

\**t* test--test significances of differences between means,  $p < .05$

of school volunteer utilization in actual indirect ( $F=3.037$ ,  $p <.05$ ) and of actual total ( $F=2.029$ ,  $p <.05$ ). Following Ferguson's suggestion (1981), a robust  $t$  test was applied to the principals' perception of actual indirect ( $t =5.620$ ,  $p <.05$ ) and actual total ( $t =4.815$ ,  $p <.05$ ), which proved significant.

The principals' perceptions of school volunteer utilization in actual direct, preferred indirect, preferred direct and preferred total showed no significant difference in homogeneity of variance. Therefore, the researcher proceeded with an independent  $t$  test. The results indicated that principals who volunteer service to another organization showed significantly higher mean scores in the principals' perceptions of school volunteer utilization in actual direct ( $t =2.920$ ,  $df =138$ ,  $p <.05$ ), preferred indirect ( $t =3.653$ ), preferred direct ( $t =3.040$ ) and preferred total ( $t = 3.714$ ) than principals who did not volunteer service to another organization. (See Table 11.)

5. Do principals, who have school volunteer coordinators at the district or building level, have different perceptions concerning the utilization of volunteers than principals who did not have school volunteer coordinators?

The initial inspection of the response data indicated the possibility of non-homogeneity of cell variances. A test for the homogeneity of variances failed to indicate significant differences between variance for principals with school volunteer coordinators at the district or building level and principals without school volunteer coordinators at the district or building level. Thus, the variances of principals with school volunteer coordinators was



approximately equal to the variance of principals without school volunteer coordinators. (See Table 12.)

The researcher continued with the  $t$  test for independent samples. A significant difference was found between principals with school volunteer coordinators and principals without school volunteer coordinators for the principals' perception in school volunteer utilization in actual indirect ( $t = 6.087$ ,  $df = 138$ ,  $p < .05$ ), actual direct ( $t = 3.378$ ), actual total ( $t = 5.044$ ), prefer indirect ( $t = 3.685$ ), and prefer total ( $t = 2.848$ ). (See Table 12.) For principals' perception of school volunteer utilization in actual total, principals without school volunteer coordinators reported a significantly lower mean score of 28.460 compared to a mean score of 35.925 for principals with school volunteer coordinators. Principals with school volunteer coordinators had a greater mean score (42.775) in the principals' perception of school volunteer utilization of preferred total than principal without school volunteer coordinators (38.280).

From the data in Table 12, however, no significant difference was found between the group means for the principals' perception of school volunteer utilization of preferred direct ( $t = 1.823$ ,  $df = 138$ ,  $p < .05$ ) In this perception, the principals with school volunteer coordinators had a mean of 20.850 compared to a mean of 19.350 for principals without school volunteer coordinators.

6. As perceived by principals, how are volunteers utilized in indirect instructional services?

The mean scores for the principals' perception of school volunteer utilization in indirect instructional service were listed in

TABLE 12

RESULTS OF *t* TEST AND HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCE TEST:  
 PERCEIVED UTILIZATION OF SCHOOL VOLUNTEERS  
 BY PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BASED ON  
 AVAILABILITY OF VOLUNTEER COORDINATOR

Utilize	<u>Yes (N=40)</u>		<u>No (N=100)</u>		F	t
	Mean	Variance	Mean	Variance		
<u>Actual</u>						
Indirect	19.400	25.426	14.190	19.166	1.326	6.087*
Direct	16.975	20.589	14.340	16.126	1.276	3.378*
Total	35.925	71.815	28.460	58.958	1.218	5.044*
<u>Prefer</u>						
Indirect	22.375	23.471	19.010	23.970	1.021	3.685*
Direct	20.850	22.849	19.350	17.967	1.270	1.823
Total	42.775	78.281	38.280	68.345	1.145	2.848*

# F test-test the homogeneity of variance,  $p < .05$

\**t* test-test significance of difference between means,  $p < .05$

Table 13. The means were categorized by principal classification; elementary, middle/junior high and high school, and a combined total. The perception of the principal in the actual school volunteer utilization and the preferred school volunteer utilization were also listed.

The highest mean score of principals' actual perception of school volunteer utilization in indirect instructional service was in assisting at assemblies, class parties, carnivals, or sporting events (3.379). The lowest mean score of principals' actual perception of school volunteer utilization in indirect instructional services was recording grades (1.129). High school principals' actual perception mean of 1.079 for recording grades was the lowest while the elementary principals actual perception mean for recording grades was 1.169 and the middle/junior high principals' actual perception mean for recording grades was 1.097

The principals' actual perception of school volunteer utilization, in order of size, was (1) assisting at parties and assemblies, (2) supervising field trips, cafeteria and play grounds, (3) assisting library and media areas, (4) preparing materials and displays, (5) assisting with clerical duties, (6) telephoning for attendance and (7) recording grades. (See Table 13.)

The mean scores reported in Table 13 reflected that principals' preferred perception of school volunteer utilization in the same order as the principals' actual perception of school volunteer utilization. Assisting at parties and assemblies was the principals' most preferred perception of school volunteer utilization with a mean of 4.00. Principals' preferred perception reported utilizing

TABLE 13  
 MEAN SCORES OF PERCEIVED UTILIZATION OF SCHOOL  
 VOLUNTEERS IN INDIRECT INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICE  
 BY PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BASED  
 ON CLASSIFICATION

Service	<u>Elem (N=71)</u> Mean	<u>Middle (N=31)</u> Mean	<u>High (N=38)</u> Mean	<u>Total</u> Mean
<u>Actual</u>				
Supervise	3.127	2.806	2.868	2.986
Materials	2.690	2.290	2.026	2.421
Parties	3.690	3.032	3.079	3.379
Grades	1.169	1.097	1.079	1.129
Media	2.549	2.387	2.421	2.479
Clerical	2.099	1.871	1.895	1.993
Attendance	1.268	1.323	1.289	1.286
Total	16.592	14.839	14.658	15.135
<u>Prefer</u>				
Supervise	3.606	3.387	3.579	3.550
Materials	3.452	2.903	3.237	3.271
Parties	4.000	3.419	3.763	3.807
Grades	1.352	1.161	1.211	1.271
Media	3.507	3.129	3.526	3.429
Clerical	2.803	2.484	2.711	2.707
Attendance	2.000	1.839	2.000	1.964
Total	20.690	18.387	19.921	19.971

volunteers between "often" (4) and "sometimes" (3) in assisting at parties and assemblies, supervising field trips, cafeteria and play ground, assisting in media and libraries, and preparing materials and displays.

7. As perceived by principals, how are volunteers utilized in direct instructional services?

In the utilization of volunteers in direct instructional services, the principals' actual perception indicated a high mean score (2.700) for volunteers serving on advisory committees for curriculum and textbook selection. The lowest mean score (1.150) as perceived by the principals was in the actual utilization of volunteers in grading student essays and compositions. (See Table 14.)

The principals perceived actual utilization of volunteers in direct services from "sometimes" (3) to "seldom" (2) in the areas of serving on advisory and curriculum committees, serving as guest speakers, serving as substitute teachers and tutoring one-on-one. Principals perceived actual volunteer utilization in direct services from "seldom" (2) to "never" (1) in the areas of assisting in small group academic instruction, assisting in small group activity instruction and grading essays and compositions.

The data in Table 14 reflected the highest mean score for principals' preferred perception of volunteer utilization was in serving as guest speakers (3.464). The lowest mean score for principals' preferred perception of volunteer utilization was in grading essays and compositions (1.307). Elementary principals' preferred perceptions indicated the highest mean for volunteer utilization as tutors (3.450) while middle/junior high principals' and

TABLE 14

MEAN SCORES OF PERCEIVED UTILIZATION OF SCHOOL  
VOLUNTEERS IN DIRECT INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICE  
BY PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS BASED  
ON CLASSIFICATION

Service	<u>Elem (N=71)</u> Mean	<u>Middle (N=31)</u> Mean	<u>High (N=38)</u> Mean	<u>Total</u> Mean
<u>Actual</u>				
Academic	2.282	1.774	1.816	2.043
Speaker	2.535	2.613	2.763	2.614
Grading	1.197	1.000	1.184	1.150
Tutoring	2.423	1.968	2.079	2.229
Committees	2.535	2.710	3.000	2.700
Activity	1.887	1.903	1.947	1.907
Substitute	2.394	2.097	2.842	2.450
Total	15.310	14.000	15.579	15.093
<u>Prefer</u>				
Academic	3.042	2.645	2.553	2.821
Speakers	3.394	3.387	3.658	3.464
Grading	1.394	1.194	1.237	1.307
Tutoring	3.450	2.903	3.237	3.271
Committees	3.085	3.323	3.605	3.279
Activity	2.817	2.581	2.763	2.750
Substitute	2.775	2.677	3.262	2.886
Total	20.028	18.742	20.158	19.779

high school principals' preferred perception reported the highest mean for utilizing volunteers as guest speakers (3.387 and 3.658, respectively).

Principals reported preferred perception of volunteer utilization "sometimes" in the areas of serving as guest speakers, serving on advisory and curriculum committees and tutoring one-on-one. Serving as substitute (2.886), assisting in small group academic instruction (2.821) and serving in small group activity instruction (2.750) were indicated as "seldom" by principals' preferred perception of volunteer utilization. (See Table 14.)

8. As perceived by principals, what factors affect the utilization of volunteers in indirect instructional services?

Sixty-nine principals returned written responses concerning the factors that affect the utilization of volunteers in indirect instructional services. These 69 principals included 41 elementary principals, 12 middle/junior high principals and 16 high school principals.

As perceived by the principals the leading factor which affected the utilization of school volunteers in indirect instruction was the availability of citizen volunteers. Another factor, as perceived by principals, was the lack of interest by the community. The perceptions of the principals and the frequency of their responses (in parentheses) are listed as follows:

1. Availability of volunteers (21)
2. Lack of interest by the community (7)
3. Invasion of privacy laws (6)
4. Working parents (6)

5. Negative attitude of teacher toward volunteers (5)
6. Needs of the school (4)
7. Personality clash of the volunteer (4)
8. Consistency of the volunteer (4)
9. No one to coordinate program (4)
10. Ability of volunteers (3)
11. Legality of volunteers (3)
12. Number of people volunteering (3)
13. District policy prohibiting volunteers (3)
14. Dependability of volunteers (2).

Two perceptions of only high school principals on the effect of volunteer utilization were the size of the school and lack of understanding by the volunteer. Two perceptions of only middle/junior high principals on the effect of volunteer utilization were the quality of the volunteers and the volunteers feeling needed. Two perceptions of only elementary principals on the effect of volunteer utilization were the superintendent was against volunteers and there was no organized parent/teacher group.

9. As perceived by principals, what factors affect the utilization of volunteers in direct instructional services?

Sixty-nine principals returned written responses concerning the factors that affect the utilization of volunteers in direct instructional services. These 69 principals included 41 elementary principals, 12 middle/junior high principals and 16 high school principals.

As perceived by the principals the leading factor which affected the utilization of school volunteers in direct instruction was the



availability of citizen volunteers. Other factors, as perceived by principals, were the qualifications and abilities of the volunteer and the negative attitude of the staff. The perceptions of the principals and the frequency of their responses (in parentheses) are listed as follows:

1. Availability of volunteers (18)
2. Qualifications of the volunteer (9)
3. Abilities of the volunteer (9)
4. Negative attitude of the teachers toward volunteers (9)
5. Working parents (5)
6. Lack of knowledge of the volunteer (4)
7. Invasion of privacy laws (3)
8. Training of the volunteer (3)
9. Lack of interest in the community (2)
10. District policy prohibiting volunteers (2)
11. Legality of volunteers (2).

Four perceptions of only high school principals on the effect volunteer utilization has on direct instruction were (a) size of the school, (b) no formal organization, (c) positive willingness on the part of the volunteer and (d) the personality of the volunteers involved. The perceptions of only elementary principals on the affect of volunteer utilization on direct instruction were (a) no PTA, (b) the superintendent was against volunteers and (c) school has no need for volunteers.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the level of acceptance and utilization of school volunteers as perceived by elementary and secondary principals in Oklahoma. Principals' perceptions studied were the actual and preferred utilization of school volunteers in indirect instructional services and direct instructional services. The following factors were examined:

1. Does the size of the school affect the principal's perception in the utilization of school volunteers?
2. Do elementary, middle/junior high and high school principals have different perceptions concerning the utilization of school volunteers?
3. Do principals who have training in volunteerism have different perceptions concerning the utilization of school volunteers than principals who have not had that training?
4. Do principals who volunteer time and service to another organization have different perceptions concerning the utilization of volunteers than principals who have not volunteered time and service?
5. Do principals who have school volunteer coordinators at the district or building level have different perceptions concerning the

utilization of volunteers than principals who did not have school volunteer coordinators?

6. As perceived by principals, how are volunteers utilized in indirect instructional services?

7. As perceived by principals, how are volunteers utilized in direct instructional services?

8. As perceived by principals, what factors affect the utilization of volunteers in indirect instructional services?

9. As perceived by principals, what factors affect the utilization of volunteers in direct instructional services?

Literature reviewed by the researcher included the role of volunteerism in education, components of successful and effective school volunteer programs, the benefits and disadvantages of volunteers in the schools and the leadership of the principal in educational volunteerism.

Participants in the study were selected as a stratified-random-sample of public school principals in Oklahoma. This sample included 71 elementary principals, 31 middle/junior high principals and 38 high school principals, a total of 140 principals which was 70 percent of the original sample.

The instrument used to conduct the study was developed and field tested by the researcher. The questionnaire contained two sections. Section I covered the descriptive and demographic data. Section II contained fourteen assessments of volunteer utilization in indirect and direct instructional services. The principals used a 5-Point Likert-type scale to indicate their perception in actual utilization of volunteers and preferred utilization of volunteers.

Information from the questionnaire was analyzed using mean scores. Independent *t* tests and one way analysis of variance were used to compare differences among group means.

### Discussion

A review of the literature revealed a continuing growth in the amount of writing regarding school volunteerism and citizen involvement, but research literature to validate the utilization of volunteers in the public schools was sparse. However, as the growth of volunteerism continues in all aspects of life, the research literature in volunteerism will increase.

In the state of Oklahoma, principals from smaller schools viewed the utilization of school volunteers with reservation. The review of literature reflected the utilization of volunteers was not limited by the population of the school. Principals of schools, from diverse communities, diverse socio-economic levels and diverse school sizes, spoke with warmth and enthusiasm regarding the positive effects of school volunteer programs. Because of the small number of students and small communities, the Oklahoma principals perceived the availability of citizens as a problem.

Classification of schools, elementary, middle/junior high and high, did not affect the principals' perception of school volunteer utilization. Principals' perceptions of schools with successful volunteer programs came from all three classifications. More than the classification, the literature revealed it was the creative attitude of the principal and the community that forged a greater

utilization of school volunteers in educational activities.

One ingredient of successful school volunteer programs was the training of the volunteer and the school staff. Principals with training in volunteerism or community education perceived their volunteer utilization to a higher degree than principals without this training. While most programs gave training to the volunteer, the effective school volunteer programs also trained the teachers and principals on the utilization and management of volunteers. The principal, with responsibility for the education program of the school, should not be neglected in this training. Training increased the utilization of the school volunteers and instilled a cooperative perception in principals.

Principals who volunteer their service to other community organizations reported utilizing volunteers to a greater extent than principals who were not involved in community service. Not only did principals of exemplary schools invite themselves into the community, but they invited the community members into their classrooms. They became service oriented. Principals saw the school as one element of a larger whole--the community. When principals perceived the school and the community as a collaborative effort, school volunteers are utilized with greater frequency, with higher levels of participation and to a greater degree.

Principals of Oklahoma public schools with school volunteer coordinators perceived the utilization of volunteers more favorably than principals with no school volunteer coordinators. Coordinators of school volunteer programs enhanced the perception of the principals and the community regarding the utilization of school

volunteers. Coordinators provided the "glue" that held the program together and the "oil" that made the program run smoothly. Since each volunteer program is unique to the individual identity of the school and the community, coordinators assisted the principal in the utilization of volunteers to improve the education environment of the community.

Oklahoma principals continued to utilize volunteers in the traditional ways of serving as clerical help, being "homeroom mothers," preparing visual aids and assisting with playground supervision. Two emerging trends in the utilization of volunteers will affect the perceptions of Oklahoma public school principals. One trend focused on utilizing school volunteers in specialized curriculum areas. For example, schools are currently being asked to instruct youth in the dangers of substance abuse. Many schools are looking to outside experts in the community for help in developing curriculum or teaching materials.

The other emerging trend emphasized the utilization of businesses and universities to enhance the schools' curriculum in specialized areas. Businesses are providing release time to employees to assist in mathematics, science and computer instruction. Many school districts and businesses are collaborating by matching corporate resources to school needs, thus, creating business/school partnerships. A side benefit of these partnerships was increased financial resources for the school.

Principals spend a good deal of time buffering the school and the teachers from the outside environment of the community. When principals did this, the relationship between the school and the

community may have suffered. Principals, who invited volunteers into the schools, enhanced the relationship between the community and the school and strengthened the learning environment.

### Conclusions

The conclusions that resulted from this study were as follows:

1. Principals accepted and utilized school volunteers to a greater extent when their school size was greater than 200 students. Principals with school size of more than 200 students had a significantly higher perception of volunteer utilization than principals with school size of less than 200 students. The size of the school affected the principals' perception in the acceptance or utilization of volunteers in the public schools.

2. Elementary principals, middle/junior high principals and high school principals accepted and utilized school volunteers in similar manner. The mean scores among the three classifications of principals; elementary, middle/junior high and high school, showed no significant differences. Principals' perceptions of actual utilization and preferred utilization of volunteers were similar. The classification of principals did not affect the perception of the principal in the acceptance and utilization of volunteers.

3. Principals, who received training in citizen involvement, volunteerism or community education, had increased acceptance and utilization of school volunteers. In actual perceptions and preferred perceptions, principals with training in citizen involvement, volunteerism and community education had significantly higher mean scores.

4. Principals, who volunteered their personal time to another organization, showed greater confidence in accepting and utilizing volunteers in teaching activities. Principals, who donated their personal time to other organizations had significantly higher mean scores in actual perceptions and preferred perceptions.

5. Principals with school volunteer coordinators at the district and/or building level had greater acceptance and utilization of school volunteers. Principals utilize volunteers more and in a variety of areas if another person can handle the problems and the every day administration of the volunteer program. However, a school volunteer coordinator did not affect the principals' preferred perception of the volunteers in activities directly related to instruction.

6. Principals continued to utilize citizens in the traditional areas of supervising carnivals and parties, supervising play grounds and cafeterias, preparing visual materials and serving as guest speakers.

7. A larger majority of the principals were not aware of the infinite potential of volunteers. More than 68 percent of the principals indicated no exposure to volunteer training.

8. Principals were service oriented. They gave of their time to help others. Eighty-five percent of the principals had developed an awareness of community needs and a sense of personal involvement.

9. The position of school volunteer coordinator was a pioneering position. One in four schools had coordinators. Of the 39 schools indicating school coordinators, they were equally divided among the building level, district level and district and building level.



## Recommendations

Based upon the knowledge gained through the collection and analysis of data, the following recommendations for practice are suggested:

1. Conduct statewide workshops/seminars that focus on citizen involvement and volunteering in the public schools. Superintendents, principals, assistant principals, community education directors and school volunteer coordinators are the desired participants.

2. Conduct statewide workshops/seminars with the endorsement of the Oklahoma Education Association that focuses on the utilization of volunteers in the classroom. The desired participants are teachers, principals and school coordinators.

3. Influence colleges of education of all Oklahoma universities to offer at least one course that introduces the concept of volunteerism.

4. Influence administrative certification programs at Oklahoma universities and colleges to require one course offering on the concept of volunteerism or community education for provisional administration certification. Two courses might be required for standard administration certification.

5. Organize and structure a state and federal legislative contact network for the dual purposes of providing information to legislators and lobbying for funding for volunteerism in the public schools.

6. Influence the Oklahoma School Volunteer Program and the State Department of Education to network and compile information, and statistics on volunteerism and citizen involvement in the public schools.

7. Require each school district in the state of Oklahoma to designate an individual who would be responsible for the community resources and coordination of volunteer involvement.

This study began to answer some questions for the researcher, but developed an interest in some possible future studies.

Recommendations for further research are:

1. Conduct a follow-up study in two or three years to determine if the acceptance and utilization of volunteers of Oklahoma principals have changed.

2. Conduct a study of Oklahoma public school superintendents to determine the acceptance and utilization of volunteers in public school districts.

3. Conduct a study that would compare the level of acceptance and utilization of volunteers between respondent principals of this survey and their superintendents.

4. Conduct a national study that would compare the acceptance and utilization of volunteers with Oklahoma.

5. Conduct a study that would compare the perception of volunteer utilization between respondent principals of this survey and teachers under their supervision.

6. Conduct a study that would compare the perception of volunteer utilization between respondent principals of this study and volunteers who serve in their buildings.

7. Conduct a study that would compare the perception of the volunteer utilization between principals and their volunteer coordinators

8. Conduct an indepth study on the type of training and/or education of the principal that affects the utilization of volunteers in the public schools.

9. Conduct a study on the frequency and/or type of community volunteer service of the principal that affects the utilization of volunteers in the public schools.

10. Conduct a study that would compare the level of acceptance and utilization of volunteers between urban and rural school districts.

In the next few years, school volunteers will become increasingly important in enhancing the quality of education. Present day volunteer programs have only begun to reach the potential which is open to school volunteers. The results of this study provided important data on the level of acceptance and utilization of volunteers in Oklahoma public schools. Further research in the area of educational volunteerism would increase the effectiveness of volunteers and improve the educational process.

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## APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

EIGHT KEYS TO AN INTEGRATED  
PARTNERSHIP IN EDUCATION

### Eight Keys to an Integrated Partnership in Education

- I. Support of the School Board and Superintendent. This support is critical to successful programs. It is important for the superintendent to create an atmosphere in which principals and teachers feel comfortable to change what they are currently doing.
- II. Written Formal Policy of Support. The written policy provides tangible evidence of support to everyone involved in the school system and the community, especially in times of drastic budget reductions.
- III. System-Wide Coordinator. Such a coordinator personifies the commitment to the partnership between school and community. Optimum results from the program are possible because the coordinator directs resources district-wide toward agreed upon goals and objectives for the curriculum, instruction, administration, management and staff development.
- IV. People. The emphasis should be on involving people rather than on money. Research done by the Gallup Poll indicates that people involvement translate to more confidence in the schools.
- V. Options for Volunteers. A key to success is a school system providing the volunteer with a number of options in a variety of areas needing assistance in order to take advantage of the diversity of expertise available.
- VI. Collaborative/Systematic Long-Range Planning & Training. The people--principals, teachers, and volunteers--who are directly affected must participate in planning. Clear understanding about purposes, procedures, and methods of assessment require ample planning time and strong, sensitive coordination. Establishing open lines of communication with the community is an essential prerequisite to implementing a partnership that directly affects school management and academic instruction.
- VII. Promotion with Gusto. A consistent media strategy is an essential key. Promotion, awards, and recognition for the volunteers are essential. There needs to be a public relations staff that maintains a relationship with the media, school personnel, and the community.
- VIII. Evaluation. Evaluation must be built in from the beginning and the results must be used to improve the partnership. Hard evidence of results provides a foundation for continuing and/or expanding support for the partnership, especially in times of drastic budget reductions.

Gray, Sandra. (1983). Eight Keys to a Integrated Partnership in Education. Alexandria, Virginia: National School Volunteer Program, Inc.

APPENDIX B

HOW TO SET UP A DISTRICT-WIDE SCHOOL  
VOLUNTEER PROGRAM-AN OUTLINE

National School Volunteer Program, Inc.  
Sandra T. Gray, Executive Director  
300 North Washington Street  
Alexandria, Virginia 22314  
(703) 836-4880

#### HOW TO SET UP A DISTRICT WIDE SCHOOL VOLUNTEER PROGRAM--AN OUTLINE\*

No precise recipe exists for establishing the perfect school volunteer program, but the coordinators of successful programs report that these 17 steps are essential before you recruit the first volunteer. Rearrange the steps to fit the needs of your program.

1. Examine your needs.
2. Investigate the climate
3. Talk with representatives of all the groups you will want to involve in your school volunteer program.
4. Assess your resources.
5. Set up an advisory committee.
6. Select goals for the program which have specific, measurable objectives.
7. Establish a system for recording volunteer hours and types of contributions.
8. Decide on your organizational patterns.
9. Write job descriptions for all the tasks for which volunteers will be sought.
10. Get written school board support for your school volunteer program.
11. Check with your superintendent to learn the health requirements for school volunteers.
12. Check on other state or local policy matters relating to volunteers.
13. Develop recruitment literature.
14. Plan recruiting strategies.
15. Plan a system for maintaining volunteer morale.
16. Plan for continuing evaluation of the program.
17. Establish a communication system.

\*from SCHOOL VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS: EVERYTHING YOU NEED TO KNOW TO START OR IMPROVE YOUR PROGRAM, National School Volunteer Program, Inc., pages 5-9 (1981)

## APPENDIX C

### 13 STAGE DEVELOPMENTAL PROCESS





APPENDIX D

WAYS VOLUNTEERS CAN HELP

## 76 WAYS VOLUNTEERS CAN HELP AT THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL\*

These suggestions are only a beginning. You will think of other ways.

1. Tell stories to children.
2. Listen to children read.
3. Conduct flash card drills.
4. Provide individual help.
5. Assist in learning centers.
6. Set up learning centers.
7. Help contact parents.
8. Reproduce materials.
9. Work in clinic or library.
10. Check out audio-visual equipment.
11. Vocabulary practice.
12. Make instructional games.
13. Play instructional games.
14. Play games at recess
15. Assist with visual tests.
16. Prepare visual materials.
17. Develop programmed materials.
18. Grade papers.
19. Prepare bulletin boards.
20. Help with book fairs.
21. Work with underachievers.
22. Reinforce Dolch words.
23. Help select library books.
24. Assist with field trips.
25. Make props for play.
26. Set up or run book store.
27. Gather resource materials.
28. Help children learn to type.
29. Help children with arts and crafts.
30. Help with cooking projects.
31. Check out books from library.
32. Set up experiments.
33. Take attendance.
34. Collect lunch money.
35. Escort Children to library, cafeteria.
36. Work on perceptual activities.
37. Make list of library resources.
38. Visit a sick child at home.
39. Work with handicapped child.
40. Prepare teaching materials.
41. Record grades.
42. Supervise groups taking test.
43. Discuss careers or hobbies.
44. Show a filmstrip to a group.
45. Help children with P. E. activity.
46. Reinforce learning of alphabet.
47. Reinforce recognition of numerals.
48. Drill recognition of color words.
49. Talk to children--be a friend.
50. Help children with motor skills.
51. Help children with foreign language.
52. Play amusical instrument.
53. Help students who play instrument.
54. Make puppets.
55. Dramatize story.
56. Help with handwriting practice.
57. Role play to practice money skills.
58. Drill spelling words.
59. Make reading carrels from boxes.
60. Tell stories.
61. Assist with singalongs.
62. Show slides.
63. Discuss care of pets.
64. Demonstrate artistic abilities.

65. Discuss life from the point of view of a handicapp.
66. Discuss different handicapps.
67. Discuss attitudes, feelings and emotions.
68. Share ethnic backgrouds and experiences.
69. Discuss farm life and farm animals.
70. Demonstrate gardening skills.
71. Help prepare assembly programs.
72. Discuss holidays and special occasions.
73. Discuss aspects of safety.
74. Share information about local history.
75. Demonstrate pioneer crafts.
76. Assist in preparing courses in photography, creative dramatics, knitting.

\*Handbook for Teachers--Effective Involvement of School

Volunteers. (1982). National School Volunteer Program, Inc.  
Alexandria, Virginia. p. 23.

### 30 WAYS VOLUNTEERS CAN HELP AT THE SECONDARY SCHOOL\*

Use these ideas for starters.

1. Volunteers who are native speakers from other countries and people who speak foreign languages fluently can give language students extra practice in conversation or discuss the literature that advances language students are reading.
2. Volunteers can be available in guidance offices to help students find answers to questions about careers, training opportunities and college selections.
3. Volunteers can contribute to social studies units. Resource people from the community can speak or be interviewed on topics in which they have experience and expertise. A senior citizen can supply details on local history. Others may describe their personal participation in events such as the bombings in London during World War II, the Nazi holocaust, the Vietnam War, the civil rights movement, political campaigns or other current events. A city planner might discuss urban renewal or current zoning problems.
4. Volunteers can help students use library sources and assist with research projects.
5. Volunteers can assist teachers in gathering resources for units of study.
6. Volunteer nurses may extend the work of the school nurse--for example, they might help teach cardiopulmonary resuscitation to health classes.
7. Volunteers can tape record textbooks so that students who have reading problems may listen to cassettes as they read their assignments.
8. Volunteers can prepare tactile materials for visually impaired students--using large print typewriters, Brailing machines, etc.
9. Volunteers can assist in science and math laboratories.
10. Volunteers can help in vocational classrooms and laboratories, such as printing, auto mechanics, commercial food and sewing, industrial arts, construction trades.
11. Volunteers can accompany the school chorus and help build sets for the school play.
12. Volunteers who are artists and performers (such as musicians and dancers) can assist and encourage students who aspire to careers in fine arts.

13. Volunteers can arrange meaningful field trips into the community to augment class learning.
14. Volunteers can share collections, discuss careers, travels, hobbies, and other areas of special knowledge.
15. Volunteers can sponsor school clubs and interest groups.
16. Volunteers can assist with audio-visual equipment maintenance and scheduling, and with production of video cassettes and other AV products.
17. Volunteers can assist the staffs of student publications--yearbook, literary magazine, newspaper.
18. Volunteers can produce a parent-teacher newsletter to inform parents of student and school achievements and activities.
19. Volunteers can assist teachers in academic subject matter areas.
20. Volunteers can assist special education teachers, giving students extra drill and reinforcement of concepts.
21. Volunteers can assist English teachers as lay readers of student essays and compositions, enabling teachers to give more writing assignments.
22. Volunteers can help students who were absent to make up missed work.
23. Volunteers can supervise students who are taking tests.
24. Volunteers can assist non-English speaking students in expanding their vocabularies and improving their conversation skills.
25. Volunteers can share slides and artifacts from other cultures and countries as well as from different sections of the United States.
26. Volunteers might share their own experiences, such as what it's like to be a handicapped person and how the handicap impacts on relationships and career choices.
27. Volunteers can demonstrate a variety of artistic abilities.
28. Volunteers from various ethnic backgrounds might share their individual life experiences.
29. Volunteers can assist in organizing a college fair.
30. Volunteers can assist in organizing a career exploration day or week.

\*Handbook for Teachers--Effective Involvement of School Volunteers. (1982).

National School Volunteer Program, Inc.: Alexandria, Virginia, p. 24.

APPENDIX E

ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN VOLUNTEERISM

## ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL

The principal has general responsibility for all programs and personnel in the school. Willingness to be involved in the establishment of the volunteer program and in the evaluation of its progress is a big factor in the assurance of its success. The principals' role includes:

1. Providing leadership to recruit parents, business leaders, scientists, lawyers, doctors, computer specialists, engineers, certified public accountants, senior citizens and representatives from churches and community organizations.
2. Discussing the volunteer program possibilities with the school staff, enlisting their support.
3. Working with the faculty to determine how volunteer services can be used effectively in the school.
4. Making space available for volunteers to carry out their assignments in an atmosphere that affords them the same privacy that teachers enjoy in the faculty room.
5. Providing needed supplies.
6. Appointing a responsible, enthusiastic, cooperative individual to be the volunteer coordinator in the school.
7. Working with the volunteer coordinator in orienting the volunteers to the school. This should include a review of school policies (philosophy, respect and courtesy required of students, student discipline, etc.) and procedures (fire drill, time schedules, organization, etc.)
8. Making volunteers feel at home in the school setting by acquainting them with the teachers and other staff members, explaining the physical arrangement of the school building, etc.
9. Working with the volunteer coordinator in orienting new volunteers in areas of responsibility, limitations, ethical standards, etc.
10. Providing appropriate persons to instruct volunteers in the operation of school machines such as ditto, mimeograph, projectors, tape recorders, video cassettes, copy machines, etc.
11. Reviewing and evaluating the program regularly with the faculty and the volunteer coordinator.
12. Assuring that volunteers are appropriately recognized for their service.
13. Identifying volunteers for leadership in future programs.

\*The Idea Bulletin. (1983, April). The Volunteer in Education. Alexandria, Virginia: National School Volunteer Program.



APPENDIX F

SCHOOL VOLUNTEER QUESTIONNAIRE

## QUESTIONNAIRE

### SECTION 1

For the purposes of this questionnaire, a school volunteer is defined as a person who is willing to donate time working for the school to strengthen the school program or to offer special skills to enrich a student's educational experience without receiving any monetary compensation in return.

Listed below are some questions related to you as an individual or to your school. Please mark the appropriate space or fill in the blanks where indicated.

1. School size (ADA) \_\_\_\_\_ .
  
2. Your school is classified as:
 

	elementary_____
middle/junior high_____	high school_____
  
3. Have you taken a class, course, workshop or inservice training in the area of volunteer management, citizen involvement or community education?
 

yes _____	no _____
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4. Do you volunteer your personal time or service to other organizations? (This does not include financial contributions.)
 

yes _____	no _____
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5. To what extent does your school utilize volunteers?
 

frequently _____	often _____	sometimes_____	seldom _____	never _____
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In you answered "Never", go to Section II of the questionnaire and answer the right column only.

However, if you answered "Frequently, Often, Sometimes or Seldom", please continue the questionnaire and answer both the left and right columns.
  
6. Does your school have a volunteer coordinator? yes \_\_\_\_\_ no \_\_\_\_\_
 

If yes, indicate at what level the coordinator functions . . .

district _____	building _____	district and building _____
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## Section II

The following statements describe some general utilizations of public school volunteers in the areas of indirect instructional services and direct instructional services. The column on the left indicates the level of actual utilization of volunteers. The column on the right is your preferred utilization of volunteers in your school. Circle the appropriate number to indicate the level of utilization. For the open ended questions, a blank is provided for the answer. Your answers will remain confidential.

### RATING SCALE

Frequently 5	Often 4	Sometimes 3	Seldom 2	Never 1
Actual utilization	<b><u>INDIRECT INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES</u></b>			Preferred utilization
5 4 3 2 1	Assist with supervision on field trips, on the play ground and in the cafeteria.			5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Prepare instructional materials and displays for teachers.			5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Assist at assemblies, class parties, carnivals or sporting events.			5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Record grades.			5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Assist in library and media areas.			5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Assist in clerical office duties.			5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Attendance telephone call to parents.			5 4 3 2 1

What factors affect your utilization of volunteers in indirect instructional services?

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Actual utilization	<u>DIRECT INSTRUCTIONAL SERVICES</u>	Preferred utilization
5 4 3 2 1	Assist the teacher in small group labs and instruction in academic subject matter.	5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Serve as guest speakers or lectures.	5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Grade student essays and compositions.	5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Tutor one-on-one in academic skill and subject areas.	5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Serve on advisory committees for textbook selection and curriculum.	5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Assist the teacher in small group instruction in music, art and physical education.	5 4 3 2 1
5 4 3 2 1	Serve as substitute teachers.	5 4 3 2 1

What factors affect your utilization of volunteers in direct instructional services?

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If you wish an abstract of this study when completed, send your address (under separate cover ) to:

Sterling Ming  
528 West C Street  
Jenks, Oklahoma 74037

APPENDIX G

RESEARCHER'S LETTER TO PRINCIPALS  
FOR FIELD TESTING QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Fellow Administrator:

This letter is to request your assistance in field testing a survey questionnaire on school volunteerism. The survey seeks data on the perception and acceptance of public school principals concerning the utilization of educational volunteers in the schools. The data gathered will be used in a doctoral dissertation at Oklahoma State University.

As you complete the questionnaire, I would appreciate any comments or suggestions to improve the clarity and effectiveness of the survey. You may include your comments in the margin or revise the text.

Enclosed is a stamped, self-addressed envelope for returning the questionnaire by January 26, 1988. Thank you for your time and cooperation in assisting a fellow educator.

Sincerely,

Sterling W. Ming,  
Assistant Principal  
Jenks High School

APPENDIX H

RESEARCHER'S LETTER TO PRINCIPALS FOR  
FIRST MAILING OF QUESTIONNAIRE

March 25, 1988

Dear Fellow Administrator:

This letter is to request your assistance in compiling data for a school volunteer questionnaire that is currently being circulated and in which your participation is needed. The survey seeks data on the perception of public school principals concerning the utilization of educational volunteers in the schools.

The data gathered will be used in a doctoral dissertation at Oklahoma State University. The results of this survey will be sent to the National School Volunteer Program in Alexandria, Virginia and to the Center for Community Services and Voluntarism at Oklahoma State University.

The analysis of data obtained from the completed questionnaire will be valuable in expanding our resources and in expanding the quality of education in the communities we serve.

The identity of schools and principals participating in this survey and any data shared will remain confidential. While each questionnaire is coded in order to identify the participant for the purpose of a second mailing, no individual will be identified in the records.

I hope that you can find time to participate in the survey and please accept my sincere appreciation of your time and efforts. A stamped, self addressed envelope is enclosed for returning the questionnaire by **April 15, 1988**.

Sincerely,

Sterling Ming  
Assistant Principal  
Jenks High School



APPENDIX I

RESEARCHER'S LETTER TO PRINCIPALS FOR  
SECOND MAILING OF QUESTIONNAIRE

April 18, 1988

Dear Fellow Administrator:

At the present time, I have not received your school volunteer questionnaire. As the letter of March 25 stated, this survey seeks data on the perception of public school principals concerning the utilization of educational volunteers in the schools.

If your questionnaire is in the mail, thank you for your support. If you have misplaced your questionnaire, I am enclosing another one for your convenience. Your response to the survey is very important.

I appreciate you taking a few minutes to participate in the survey. A self addressed, stamped envelope is enclosed for returning the questionnaire by April 28, 1988.

Sincerely,

Sterling Ming  
Assistant Principal  
Jenks High School

VITA <sup>2</sup>

Sterling W. Ming

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: PERCEPTIONS OF OKLAHOMA PUBLIC SCHOOL PRINCIPALS ON  
THE ACCEPTANCE AND UTILIZATION OF VOLUNTEERS

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tulsa, Oklahoma, April 25, 1949, the son of Sterling W. and Deliliah R.; wife Nirena Eady Ming; four children Channa, Jaron, Kasia and Cameron.

Education: Diploma from Nathan Hale High School in May, 1967; received Bachelor of Arts degree from Brigham Young University, Provo, Utah, in August, 1972; Master of Education degree from Northeastern Oklahoma State University, Tahlequah, Oklahoma, in May, 1983; and meet requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma, in December, 1988.

Professional Experience: Teacher, High School, Cleveland, Oklahoma, August, 1972 to May, 1973; Teacher, High School, Jenks, Oklahoma, August, 1973 to May, 1975; Teacher, Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, August, 1975 to May, 1976; Teacher, High School, Jenks, Oklahoma, August, 1978 to May, 1980; Assistant Director of Athletics, Jenks, Oklahoma, August, 1980 to June, 1985; Assistant Principal, High School, Jenks, Oklahoma, August, 1985 to present.