Literature Review

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PAUL PALMER AND MARIANA BOGDANOVA (2008), 'THE BRITISH ARE NOT COMING! UK HIGHER EDUCATION AND THE NONPROFIT SECTOR,' NONPROFIT MANAGEMENT AND LEADERSHIP, 19, 1, PP. 79–99

In 1995, nonprofit education in the United Kingdom resembled what the United States was experiencing a decade later. By 2005, program expansion in the United Kingdom had ceased and a key program at the London School of Economics (LSE) had closed. This paper examines the problems that the United Kingdom experienced in establishing nonprofit management education programs, and why programs that were developed have not met their potential. In particular, it examines what can be learned from the LSE program experience.

Methodology

The authors used existing studies and reports documenting trends in both the voluntary sector and relevant issues

in higher education. Semi-structured interviews with four leaders in voluntary sector management education were conducted. The research ultimately led to the formation of a working group to study the sustainability of nonprofit management education in the United Kingdom.

Contexts – Growth of the sector and nonprofit management education in the United Kingdom

The voluntary sector in the United Kingdom has grown steadily since the 1980s, as the government has provided fewer social services. The number of registered charities grew by 72 per cent between 1991 and 2004. Employment in the sector has also grown rapidly, a situation that is not expected to abate. Organizations currently face problems with both funding and management.

Growth in nonprofit management education has not mirrored the expansion of the sector. The number of institutions offering courses in 2007 is the same as 10 years earlier. Although the number of programs overall has not increased, there has been internal growth in existing programs. There is a wide dispersion of where courses are housed throughout the university. A major program at the LSE Centre

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for Voluntary Organisations closed in 2006.

Early academic programs were focused around research and development of practice-oriented theory. The first university-based program to study the voluntary sector was founded in 1978 by David Billis. The Program of Research and Training into Voluntary Action moved to the LSE Centre for Voluntary Organisations in 1987. The philosophy was that managers needed to go beyond management tools and understand how organizations fit into the overall mix of sectors, as well as the national culture. Programs were often developed through collaborations of faculty from a number of institutions. Most of the individuals involved were working full-time in traditional disciplines, and worked on nonprofit education initiatives on a part-time basis.

By the mid 1990s, a 'small but visible presence of voluntary sector management education had now established itself in the United Kingdom' (p. 85). Offerings were diverse, including executive leadership, finance, fundraising and service and distance learning initiatives. With these foundations in place, why did nonprofit education not continue to grow?

Barriers to development

The VOLPROF report issued in 1993 enumerated barriers to the expansion of nonprofit educational programs. Four questions summarized issues of legitimacy: Is nonprofit management significantly different from business and governmental management? Is it useful to discuss management issues overall for the sector as opposed to being industry-specific? Is management

education concerned with the present or with planning for and managing change? Should career and employability factors be considered?

A primary barrier discussed was resistance to management education from the organizational culture of the voluntary sector. The sector is generally resistant to management education because it may not acknowledge differences between profit and nonprofit enterprises. The rapid growth of the voluntary sector itself and its uncertain role in the economy also encouraged resistance. Additionally, norms regarding the use of donated funds for programs rather than overhead and a structure of large national organizations that were reluctant to impose management education on small local units discouraged support for educational programs.

Universities have also erected barriers that have discouraged program expansion. Some have come from state interventions in higher education, and others have come from within individual institutions.

The 1992 Education Act abolished a multi-tiered system that appeared to promote elitism in higher education. The government was anxious to expand enrollments to create a workforce for the twenty-first century. Between the mid-1990s and 2003, enrollments and government support expanded rapidly. With government funding came demands for accountability and operational efficiency. By this time, institutions were dependent on the state for their funding. Even the endowments of established universities, including Oxford and Cambridge, had not grown at the rate of their US counterparts.

In 2003, a 2-year moratorium on higher education funding was imposed on graduate programs. As nonprofit management education was offered solely at this level, there was no funding to develop new courses or programs, or for student fees. The lack of financial support did not affect students equally. Business programs did not suffer, as students saw the MBA as an investment in future earnings. This was not the case for aspiring nonprofit managers, as there was no guarantee of future payback and no incentives provided by nonprofit employers. Instead of developing specialist courses, existing management courses were 'contextualized' for nonprofit management students. The multidisciplinary nature of nonprofit management also created additional costs for resources needed for course development. An overall lack of sustained fundraising for programs has exacerbated the situation.

Funding for nonprofit management education was also impacted by the 1996 Research Assessment Exercise (RAE), which was imposed for a second time in 2000. Only departments receiving the highest ratings received funding. The ratings depended on an evaluation of research output that was determined through an analysis of publication in key discipline-based journals. Existing nonprofit management journals are not recognized by the RAE. As voluntary sector studies were not given a specialist designation, programs received no research funds.

The London School of Economics program

The LSE program was grounded in practice-based research. Practitioner

students investigated nonprofit theory in the context of actual organizations, examining how organizations actually operated, rather than how they should operate. The program allowed students to develop leadership skills. The Masters program was located in an appropriate department that focused on social administration. During the founding years, there was an emphasis on comparing nonprofit to both government and profit enterprise in order to legitimize both research and education. As the focus of the university became more international, the focus of the Centre for Voluntary Organisations followed suit, changing its name to the Centre for Civil Society. The founding director stepped down. By the late 1990s, the program focus was on policy, attracting many international students. Fees rose with little effort to fundraise in order to keep student costs under control. New leadership in 2002 attempted to return the programs to its original focus. Dissolution in 2006 resulted from departmental disinterest in the program and from the fact that it was no longer competitive in the market.

Was the failure the result of the founders not being in step with the voluntary sector, or was it because of poor placement of the program within the educational institution? The original VSO program was too narrow in scope, and did not reflect the direction of UK higher education. The change to CCS seemed to be a correction and a good match with institutional objectives. The failure of the program resulted from going against the embedded focus of the university, rather than from flaws inherent in the program. Programs have been very successful where

there is a good institutional and departmental fit. Faculty from the VSO program also successfully offered standalone courses in policy administration at other institutions, an indication that there continues to be student interest and capacity for enrollments.

Conclusion

A working group to study the future and sustainability of nonprofit management education in the United Kingdom has recently been convened. The authors are cautiously optimistic that voluntary sector education in the United Kingdom may grow. This will require financing for student support and curriculum development. In addition, the orientation of the curriculum may need to change. The sector itself needs to be more fully understood. Research must understand and explain, rather than merely describing what is observed. Surveys to understand the needs of the sector must be conducted. Coursework needs to include analysis of policy, stakeholders and resources. Although the current focus is UK policy, an international perspective would be useful. The authors suggest that collaboration with institutions across the United Kingdom and the European Union would be a better model than looking to the United States as an example. Teaching must be based in research. Sharing core courses with students of business and government and equal representation for each group would also be far better than 'cheap contextualization' (p. 96) for the nonprofit world. The authors conclude that this may well be the future of UK voluntary sector studies.

**CHUCK TOMKOVICK,
SCOTT W. LESTER,
LANETTE FLUNKER, AND
THERESA A. WELLS (2008),
'LINKING COLLEGIATE
SERVICE-LEARNING TO
FUTURE VOLUNTEERISM:
IMPLICATIONS
FOR NONPROFIT
ORGANIZATIONS,'
NONPROFIT MANAGEMENT
AND LEADERSHIP, 19, 1,
PP. 3–26**

At a time when higher education is emphasizing the value of service-learning, corporations are being called upon to be more responsible citizens, and nonprofit organizations are feeling pressure to attract and develop long-term relationships with volunteers. The trend within higher education is to make service-learning a requirement. Service-learning programs benefit from understanding why people volunteer, so that programs can be better designed and managed. In the wake of corporate scandals, some companies are coming out publically in favor of service-learning requirements and other forms of community citizenship. Nonprofit organizations have everything to gain from these trends if they can figure out why young graduates volunteer, and then devise ways to encourage and retain them.

This study looks at the relationship between service-learning participation in college and volunteerism in the post-graduate years. The authors examined a mandatory service-learning program at a Midwestern university. Their purpose was to identify qualities of the service-learning experience that affected whether alumni volunteered after graduation. The paper also discusses the implications of their

findings for service-learning directors and for nonprofit organization volunteer administrators.

The study was based on existing service-learning theory and on predictors of volunteerism. The current view of collegiate service-learning is that it is a form of experiential learning. Typically, students are placed with community nonprofit organizations. Service-learning is mandatory at some institutions, but not at all. In some programs, students receive some form of compensation, but the majority does not. Outcomes from service-learning include enhanced academic, personal, social and career development. Although service-learning originated in the liberal arts, it has been embraced by other schools and disciplines, including business. In addition to benefits for students, nonprofit organizations have much to gain by hosting students in service-learning programs. Prior research shows that students who volunteer during their last year of college are twice as likely to volunteer after graduation. Two-thirds of students who have had a service-learning experience volunteer annually.

A review of existing research on predicting future volunteerism resulted in three hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: ‘The stronger the belief that a service-learning project helped volunteers in their personal development, the higher the level of future (post-service-learning) volunteerism.’ (p.7)

Hypothesis 2: ‘The more valuable service-learning volunteers believe their work has been to the non-

profits they served, the higher the level of future (post-service-learning) volunteerism.’ (p. 8)

Hypothesis 3: ‘The greater the incidence of volunteer behavior prior to a collegiate service-learning experience, the higher the level of future (post-service-learning) volunteerism.’ (p. 9)

Survey instrument

The alumni studied were management and marketing graduates of a regional Midwestern university, completing degrees between 1998 and 2003. The university has a mandatory 30-hour service-learning requirement for all students.

A pre-tested electronic survey was sent to 383 individuals via email, generating 131 usable responses (34.2 per cent). The level of volunteering before and after the service-learning experience was measured with one question using a 4-point scale. How valuable the service-learning project was to the nonprofit organization was also measured through a single question using a 3-point scale. Four items measured the effect of the service-learning on personal development, using a 7-point scale. The survey controlled for race and gender. Analysis used multivariate ordinary least squares regression.

Results of survey

Although neither control variable (race and gender) showed a significant relationship to post-graduate volunteering, all three hypotheses were supported by the data collection. A strong correlation was also found between conceptions of personal development and the perceived value

of the service to the nonprofit organization.

The study also found much higher levels of volunteering among this alumni population (48.6 per cent) than has been reported by either the Bureau of Labor Statistics (20.4 per cent) or the Center on Philanthropy (Indiana University) Panel Study (31 per cent) (p. 14). This suggests that service-learning does promote post-graduate volunteerism.

Another key finding was that past volunteering was the greatest predictor of future volunteering. Although service-learning promotes future volunteering, it is not the only factor. Mandatory service-learning predicts future volunteering as long as the participant perceives a benefit to him or herself and the organization.

Volunteers expect to get something positive out of the service-learning experience. Those who experienced positive personal development reported volunteering after completion of the service-learning experience. Alumni who felt that their work was of benefit to the organization were more likely to continue to volunteer after completing the service-learning experience. Individuals who identify with an organization are more likely to volunteer. After selecting an organization that is a good match with personal beliefs, an experience in which the person felt that they made a positive contribution will lead to commitments for additional hours.

Implications for nonprofit managers

Additional conversations with community organization service-learning coordinators and supplemental review of volunteer recruitment literature suggested directions that

volunteer administrators might take. Volunteer managers should look for individuals with prior volunteer experiences. Recruiters of service-learning students need to highlight personal skills and growth that may be developed through the service-learning assignment. These skills need to be reinforced through the reflection exercise that is usually required of service-learning participants.

Service-learning coordinators at the community level need to design assignments that will help participants feel that they are making a real contribution. Assignments must be something the student is capable of doing but are of value to both the student and the organization. The student must believe that both parties will benefit. Service-learning participants must also have their contributions formally recognized and acknowledged.

Implications for higher education

University and college service-learning coordinators should work with community organizations to develop the type of opportunities that will encourage volunteerism in the long term. Students are more likely to include service-learning experiences in their resume if they feel that there was value to the organization. Corporations increasingly are interested in seeing service-learning experiences on applicant resumes. Institutional coordinators need to emphasize to students that service-learning experiences can help them obtain jobs, and the value of continued volunteerism to the community.

Limitations and future research

The authors noted that the study has limitations. The results would have

been more generalizable if students had not been geographically homogeneous and if data had also been collected from students in a service-learning program that was not mandatory. Moreover, the response rate for future studies needs to be improved. Because of the specific program studied, the period that could be viewed was not longer than 5 years. More longitudinal studies are needed to determine the long-term effects of service-learning on future volunteering. Other variables, including academic achievement, socio-economic status, marital status, religious affiliation and family history, may affect volunteering and need to be tested in future studies. Finally, past volunteering experiences may not have been interpreted in the same way. The authors are fairly confident that their participants interpreted the service-learning experience as volunteering. They also cite the need for more integration of studies of K-12 volunteering and service-learning research to understand the developmental aspects of volunteering behavior.

**ADRIAN SARGEANT,
JOHN B. FORD, AND JANE
HUDSON (2008), 'CHARITY
BRAND PERSONALITY:
THE RELATIONSHIP
WITH GIVING BEHAVIOR,'
NONPROFIT AND
VOLUNTARY SECTOR
QUARTERLY, 37, 3,
PP. 468–491**

The motivations behind giving for charitable purposes remain somewhat cloaked in mystery despite a growing body of research from economics, psychology, anthropology, sociology

and – most recently – marketing. The synthesizing analysis that has come from the field of marketing has examined characteristics of givers, major givers and motives for giving.

How nonprofit organizations themselves influence donations has not been given as much scrutiny, and organizational characteristics that may attract donors have not been studied. The nonprofit brand has not been examined empirically for its effect on fundraising, although prior research has shown a connection between brand and issues such as trust and transmission of organizational values. Organizational personality can be conveyed by the brand. Some brand traits apply to the nonprofit sector as a whole – those that distinguish between charitable and non-charitable organizations. The authors' goal was 'to delineate a set of personality traits associated with nonprofit brands, explore the extent to which these are genuinely distinctive or shared with others in the sector, and explore the relationship, if any, with facets of giving behavior' (p. 470). Being able to make these distinctions is critical for developing a brand-based marketing program. For fund-raising, the distinctive traits that attract gifts could form the basis of brand-based appeals.

The study used qualitative focus groups with donors to nine nonprofit organizations representing three distinct nonprofit sub-sectors. Hypotheses generated from the focus groups were then tested using a mail survey.

Two generic traits emerged from the focus groups that appeared to apply to all charitable organizations. *Benevolence* was described as 'caring, compassionate, supportive, fair, ethical, honest, trustworthy, and

helpful' (p. 473). Because charities are charged with producing social change, the generic trait of *progression* was characterized as 'transforming, pioneering, responsive, and engaging' (p. 474). Identification of these two overall traits generated the first two hypotheses:

1. 'Traits associated with benevolence will be shared by all charities within the sector.'
2. 'Traits associated with progression will be shared by all charities within the sector' (P. 474)

In addition, charities associated with a particular part of the third sector were assumed to have unique traits. Those that served people, in particular, were seen as having a unique service perspective, generating the third hypothesis:

3. 'Traits associated with service will be shared by organizations aimed at providing assistance to human beneficiaries.'

Descriptive traits were also generated that distinguish individual organizations. *Emotional engagement* included characteristics that were perceived as 'strong, bold, exciting, fun, heroic, and inspiring' (p. 475). *Performance* was associated with effective organizational management, and included the descriptors 'prudent, efficient, effective, wasteful, and bureaucratic' (p. 475). These differentiating characteristics generated four additional hypotheses:

4. 'Traits associated with emotional engagement will differentiate among individual charity brands.'

5. 'Traits associated with performance will differentiate among individual charity brands.'
6. 'The perception of traits associated with emotional engagement is linked to individual giving behavior.'
7. 'The perception of traits associated with performance is linked to individual giving behavior.' (pp. 475–476)

The mail survey developed from the focus group phase was sent to donors to the nine nonprofit organizations. The pool included three organizations each from animal welfare, children and visual impairment sub-sectors. The sample size was 500 individuals from the donor databases of each organization. The survey response rate was 27.9 per cent, or 1255 responses. The questions tested reactions to 61 traits identified in the focus groups using a 7-point scale.

Initial analysis of the data showed three factors that describe all charitable organizations:

1. *Benevolence* – associated with the descriptors ethical, fair, helpful, reputable, supportive and sympathetic;
2. *Progression* – associated with the descriptors empowering, engaging, pioneering, transforming and visionary;
3. *Conservatism* – associated with the descriptors cautious and conservative.

Further analysis showed traits that did appear to distinguish between organizations:

1. *Emotional engagement* – associated with the descriptors exciting, fun,

- heroic, innovative, inspiring and modern;
2. *Service* – associated with the descriptors approachable, compassionate and dedicated;
 3. *Voice* – associated with the descriptors ambitious, authoritative and bold;
 4. *Tradition* (emerged as its own descriptor).

A final step in the analysis was to run regressions to measure the impact of the differentiating traits on giving behavior, using number of gifts given, total amount given and last gift given as dependent variables. The regressions were first run on the generic traits, but no significant correlation to giving behavior was found. Regressions on the differentiating characteristics showed weak significance for number of gifts and amount of last gift given. *Voice* had an impact on total amount given, and *Emotional Engagement* had an impact on number of gifts and amount of last gift.

Discussion and conclusions

A large number of characteristics are shared by the nine organizations studied (32 out of 61). This finding supports Hypotheses 1 and 2. An additional generic trait of *Conservatism* was also deduced. Although the *Service* factor was found, it does not appear to distinguish between causes. Consequently, Hypothesis 3 was rejected.

The remaining hypotheses tested differentiating characteristics. The four factors that showed meaningful differentiation were emotional engagement, organizational voice, quality of service provision and the perception of 'tradition'. Hypothesis 4

was supported; Hypothesis 5 was not. Emotional engagement was also weakly linked to giving behavior (Hypothesis 6 supported), but performance was not (rejection of Hypothesis 7).

The authors conclude that charity brands are not comparable to commercial brands. The public has a clear vision of what 'charity' means to them and what they expect of these organizations. Of 61 traits analyzed, 32 were viewed as belonging to all charities. The direct implication for marketing is that it would not be productive to promote commonly perceived traits. It would be more cost-effective to focus efforts on differentiating traits.

The results of this study are persuasive, but may not apply to all nonprofit organizations. Overall sector effects were not shown to affect giving behavior in this study, but the result may not apply to first-time charitable donors. Additional research should examine a wider variety of sub-sectors and causes, and should encompass a broader range of cultures and countries. It would also be useful to look at the effect of nonprofit brand on corporate donors.

**HELEN BUSSELL AND
DEBORAH FORBES
(2008), 'HOW UK
UNIVERSITIES ENGAGE
WITH THEIR LOCAL
COMMUNITIES: A STUDY
OF EMPLOYER SUPPORTED
VOLUNTEERING,'
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL
OF NONPROFIT AND
VOLUNTARY SECTOR
MARKETING, 13, PP. 363–378**
Nonprofit organizations in the United Kingdom anticipate that it will be

more difficult in the future to recruit and retain volunteers. This decline in volunteering comes at a time when organizations are offering a wider spectrum of services, and need more volunteers than in the past. Some of these volunteers will become available through employee-supported volunteering (ESV). Because so little has been written about ESV, the authors' aim is to provide a description of this type of initiative. The study looks specifically at ESV in the UK university setting.

ESV is a rapidly growing segment of volunteering in the United Kingdom and Western Europe. This is due in some measure to public expectations about corporate responsibility. ESV is also strongly encouraged by the UK government. ESV is usually structured in one of two ways. Release time arrangements allow employees to volunteer during their normal working hours. Under 'own-time' schemes, employees are encouraged to volunteer outside their working hours.

Some evidence exists about the benefits of ESV. The company receives a benefit from enhanced image that has a positive impact on customer and community relations. This can lead to higher profits. The company also benefits from employee volunteers who bring fresh perspectives and new skills back to the workplace. Employees who volunteer become more committed and loyal to their employers. This translates to higher retention, morale and productivity. Some employee volunteers develop job-related skills in their volunteer roles. In addition to getting larger numbers of volunteers, community organizations get volunteers with new skills and points of view. Overall, the employee

volunteers enlarge the volunteer pool network. Finally, the community benefits by employee volunteers becoming more knowledgeable about community problems and challenges.

This paper reports on the first phase of a larger initiative. It was sponsored by the Higher Education Active Community Fund (HEACF), the goal of which is to encourage university participation in the local community. The current phase examines official policies, the extent of staff ESV involvement and the attitudes of staff volunteers. The authors looked for examples of best practices with the aim of being able to advise institutions that are developing ESV programs.

An exploratory approach was used aimed at developing more systematic studies. An email survey was sent to all 122 universities in England, Scotland, Wales and Northern Ireland. The instrument used open-ended questions asking for information about institutional ESV policy, including how it was developed and how it currently operates. University websites were also analyzed for emphasis on volunteering for staff and students. Telephone and email were used for follow-up clarification and to increase response rate. Responses were received from 65 institutions (53 per cent).

Three institutions were identified as exemplars of best practices, and served as the basis of a collective case study. Status as an exemplar was based on factors including state of policy development, numbers of volunteers and the types of volunteer activities and projects the institution was involved in. Additional documents were examined and in-depth interviews conducted with the contact that was

responsible for ESV for the institution. The interviews used a standardized set of questions. Transcript data were analyzed using a grounded theory approach.

Survey findings

Although there was evidence of considerable volunteer activity, involvement with ESV varies from institution to institution. More than half of the respondent universities do not have a formal policy. Sixteen institutions reported that they were actively working on a policy. Institutions with a formal policy tended to be the older, well-established universities. Many institutions actively encourage volunteer engagement but only 10 have a release time arrangement. Thirty-three reported having a policy that allows time off for civic obligations such as jury duty and reserve force commitments.

Organization of ESV varies from institution to institution. It is often managed through Human Resources but sometimes through a center specifically designated for civic engagement or through university marketing or upper administration.

Case studies

The case study organizations were three well-established institutions – the LSE, Imperial College London (ICL) and the University of Cambridge. The reasons cited for establishing ESV programs were varied, including HEACF initiatives, the interest of a single sponsor and internal support from staff.

Policy and organization were not homogeneous across the three universities. Two institutions – LSE and ICL – have formal written policies for the whole institution. Cambridge

does not have a single policy for its 147 autonomous units. LSE's program is managed out of its personnel department. ESV at ICL is jointly managed out of the Office of Staff Development and the Volunteer Centre. The Office of External Affairs manages ESV at Cambridge.

At all three institutions, employees go through a formal process to obtain volunteer opportunities. Supervisory approval is required, as is a diary of volunteer activity. The time allowed for volunteering varies, stated as either hours per week or days per year. ICL requires matching volunteer hours from the employee. At Cambridge, the office acts as a clearinghouse for posting volunteer opportunities, but does not provide assistance in finding good matches between community organizations and volunteers. LSE and ICL try to match the professional expertise of the volunteer to the community organization.

Numerous benefits of ESV were cited by the three institutions. In addition to being an essential element in community engagement, ESV also makes the institutions more competitive with other universities. By communicating the work of the university to a wider audience, ESV plays a role in marketing. In the community, ESV helps to counteract perceptions of elitism, and may result in community engagement with underrepresented student groups. Employees view the chance to volunteer as a benefit, and value the opportunities to develop new skills, meet people and give something back to the community. The community receives the benefit of a new group of volunteers offering new skills and access to university facilities. Contact

with the university community raises the ambitions of the community and breaks down social barriers.

The three cases also provided insights on program management. One factor that set the three institutions apart is the commitment to ESV at both the administrative and staff levels. As only two out of the three have a formal policy, this may not be essential to success. However, having a policy is advisable, as other researchers have found evidence that having a formal policy can impact program effectiveness. Even with a formal policy, there should be established practices and procedures for participants. In addition, a wide variety of volunteer offerings increases participation in ESV. Although the value of ESV is recognized, none of the organizations put as much effort into promoting ESV as had been expended on evaluating impact. The three universities have formal reporting mechanisms, including website information and newsletters. Community impact is at the institutional level, resulting in better local relations, but there is also impact at the staff level. Staff who come from outside the local community develop local ties. In addition to staff skills that flow to the community organizations, skills acquired while volunteering flow back to the university. One negative note is that, within the local area, universities may have to compete for ESV opportunities with corporations having an abundance of resources to offer community organizations.

Conclusion

Because of the lack of studies of ESV, the authors cite a number of

concerns and the need for additional research in many areas:

- Evidence of a direct relationship between volunteering and job skill development is needed.
- Studies that show the value of ESV to community organizations are needed.
- Need discussions of ethics inherent in ESV – does the community organization benefit as much as the employer?
- Need discussions of what it means to volunteer. If employees volunteer during working hours, are they really volunteering?
- Existence of formal policy has been tied to effectiveness. This premise needs additional testing.
- Effect of cyclic HEACF funding on ESV development. Institutions may be reluctant to develop long-range plans that may not be funded.
- The unit where ESV is managed within the institution may affect levels of employee involvement. Additional studies are needed.
- Community organization needs should be matched with the existing skills of volunteers.
- Varying time schedules and work flexibility need to be recognized. Support staff may not have the time availability of managers and students.

These are all issues that the authors hope to address in subsequent stages. Most immediate will be to look more specifically at levels of staff volunteering and attitudes of staff volunteers, as well as an analysis of the costs and benefits to the community organizations involved.