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**VOLUNTARY ACTION
RESOURCE CENTRE**

VOLUNTEER
ADMINISTRATION:

READINGS FOR THE PRACTITIONER

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Following a series of surveys concerning the needs of volunteers and volunteer groups in a large metropolitan area, the Volunteer Bureau of Greater Vancouver discovered a general deficiency or lack of administrative knowledge on the part of volunteer coordinators and administrators of volunteer programmes. This phenomenon is a common one, especially in professional or paraprofessional fields such as social work, nursing, education, and others where capable professionally trained people are advanced or placed in administrative positions. In order to overcome the deficiency, the Volunteer Bureau of Greater Vancouver joined with the Faculty of Commerce and Business Administration of the University of British Columbia in developing a training or educational programme for volunteer coordinators. The course was designed to provide a practical introduction to administrative topics essential to administrators of volunteers and voluntary agencies.

The readings selected for this volume were used in the administrative training course and were evaluated by the participants with regard to relevance and practical application in voluntary settings. The readings in this volume should be of interest to volunteer coordinators or others in administrative or supervisory capacity in an agency using volunteers and they are designed to provide those individuals with the tools and techniques of administration which are required to perform administrative work in an effective manner. Moreover, the readings would prove helpful to others interested in volunteer administration whether they be students, teachers, researchers, volunteers, or leaders of self-help groups.

Throughout the book an attempt has been made to offer administrators techniques and skills which they can apply on their own. In order to accomplish this goal an attempt has been made to select articles whose ideas and concepts can be easily transferred into use in a social service agency. The selection process reveals some distressing gaps in the available literature. Where an article could not be found which would meet the needs of our readers, we requested an expert in the field to write a selection especially for this work.

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For many people the term "administration" has a somewhat negative
connotation. Administrative activity is often associated with
"bureaucracy" and "big business". Yet, administrative activity is to
be found almost everywhere in our society. The housewife engages in
administrative activity when she plans her meals, her gardening activity,
and arranges a very complex schedule of extra curricular activities for
her children, for her husband, and for herself. As her children grow
older, she and her husband devote much time in training them to perform
household duties and in motivating them to achieve various goals. The
family finances often call for the establishment of an annual budget
which is reviewed on a periodic basis by husband and wife.

Even the most primitive tribes, particularly the nomadic ones,
depend on administrative activity for their very survival. Each adult
member of the tribe has well defined duties which have been determined
in advance in accordance with some carefully made plans handed down by
the elders of the tribe. Customs, rituals, and procedures ensure that
close control is maintained over the tribal organization.

These and other examples suggest that administrative activity must
take place whenever and wherever the need for goal directed behaviour
occurs. Voluntary activity is no exception to this principle. In fact,
it is possible that the administrative problems encountered in voluntary
organizations or organizations in which volunteers are used are somewhat
different from and at least as complex as the administrative problems
encountered in business or in government organizations. For example,
because volunteers are unpaid, it becomes necessary to rely more heavily
on nonfinancial methods of motivation.

Any organization can be thought of as a system; that is, a cluster
of interdependent, interrelated component units working together to
produce a synergistic effect. To be "synergistic", the output of the
system must be greater in value than the sum of the component units.
In this way, we can view the organization as a system of resources all

working together to produce additional value in terms of social service, useful products, etc. The organizational system, in order to derive its desired output, depends upon certain resource inputs which are acted upon, developed, changed, or expended by the administrative process. The administrative cycle involves acquiring resource inputs of suitable quality in sufficient quantity at the right time, and using, enhancing, and molding the resources in order to produce the desired output, some of which is used to acquire more resource inputs in order that the process may continue and that organizational objectives will continue to be achieved. The following diagram illustrates the variables and dimensions of the administrative process:

Resource Inputs	Administrative Process	Output
People	Planning	Social Services
Money	Organizing	Useful Products
Materials	Motivating	Intermediate Services
Managers	Controlling Coordinating	
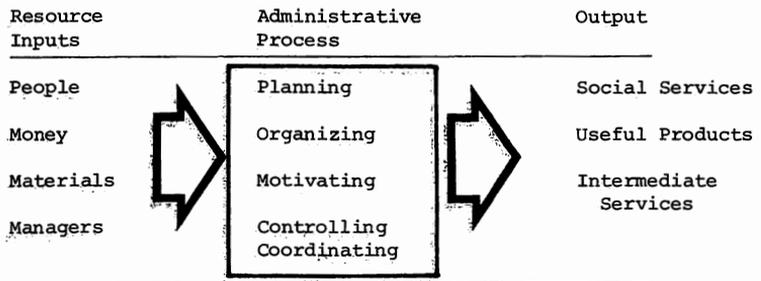
The readings selected for inclusion in the seven major sections of this book concern aspects of the administrative process, planning, organizing, motivating, controlling, and coordinating, considered to be most relevant to the needs of administrators of volunteer programmes and coordinators of voluntary activities.

Section 1 provides an overview of the volunteer, the bureau, and voluntary action centre and examines the role of the volunteer coordinator. The aim in this section is to set a stage for the remainder of the readings by introducing the reader to some of the salient characteristics of volunteers and volunteer programmes and the administrative function in a volunteer context.

In the second section, the components of the selection process are considered. A logical progression is followed from job analysis through job descriptions, manpower planning, recruiting, to the interview process

and the selection decision.

Once the volunteer has been recruited, screened, interviewed, and selected, a very necessary administrative function is to provide the new human resource with an understanding of how he or she fits into both the job and the overall organizational environment. Section 3 is devoted to this vital process - orientation and training.

The fourth section of readings is concerned with the topic of motivation. What are the goals of the user agency and the volunteer? How do we maintain the volunteer's motivation level? The second portion of this section deals with performance appraisal and rewards systems - an especially important area since monetary rewards are generally not available to the volunteer.

Publicity and the public relations process are extremely important to the voluntary agency in making its services known and appreciated in the wider community environment. In order to function smoothly and effectively, the administrator of volunteers has to maintain effective relations with the public, the community, the government, and the Board.

Central to any administrative position are the concepts of decision making, delegation, problem solving, and budgeting. Section 6 attempts to provide the coordinator with a better understanding of techniques associated with these knowledge areas. The final section has been titled "Organizational Dynamics". The articles in this section concern a number of the most important coordinating skills needed by the effective administrator. Specifically, selections on leadership, interpersonal and group relations, supervision, and communications have been chosen.

Each of the seven sections is preceded by a short introduction to the topics contained in the section. To aid the reader who would like to delve more deeply into the topics presented, additional references have been listed. It is hoped that this book of readings will provide both knowledge and "how to" skills which will help to enhance the administrative aspects of voluntarism and voluntary action.
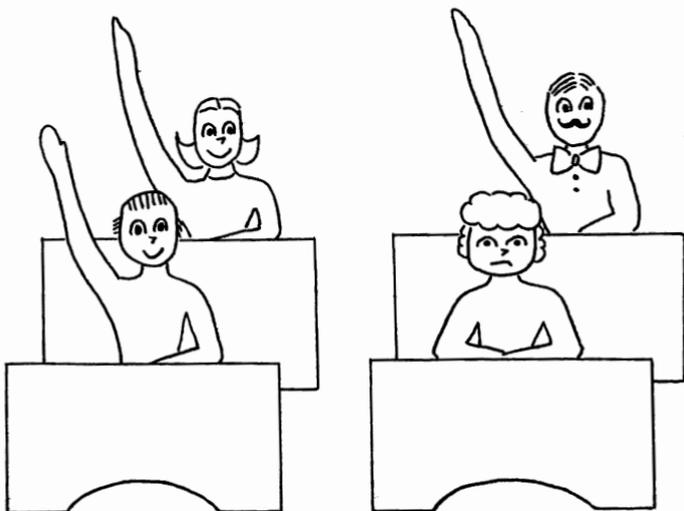
Section 1
Volunteers, the Volunteer Bureau
and the Volunteer Administrator

SECTION 1   INTRODUCTION

VOLUNTEERS, THE VOLUNTEER BUREAU, AND
THE VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATOR

Since the pioneering days, voluntarism has been an integral and
indispensable fact of the North American life style. Although at one
time such activities may not have been labelled "volunteering", giving
time and energy to do work for nonremunerative reasons and providing
services which may not have been readily available otherwise, have been
a part of the democratic way of life. Since the early days, society
has been faced with many changes and trends. A number of these have had
a very real impact in the realm of voluntarism.

The ever increasing rate of social and technological change has
produced many trends which can be identified. As the degree of
mechanization in our society increased, many of the skills and crafts
formerly performed by men were transferred to the machine. As a result,
men in large numbers became subservient to machines and dependent upon
the large factory organizations which made large scale production
possible. As a result of the changing nature of work, people have been
forced to search for personal meaning, self-actualization, and involvement
in areas other than those traditionally considered "work". The desire to
escape from machine-dependency has stimulated a much greater interest in
people-oriented work, e.g., in service industries. Fortunately, in
conjunction with mechanization and depersonalization have come shorter
working hours, three and four day work weeks, and a multitude of labour
saving devices which allow the average individual more discretionary
time in which to fulfill his needs. The average level of education has
risen rapidly throughout this century and with increased education comes
an inquisitive mind with broader interests and greater awareness of the
world and its realities. As never before rapid accurate and wide spread
communications have accentuated societal conflicts and needs for human
service. Many people today are carefully re-examining the industrial
model defined by the work ethic and are becoming less concerned with
quantity and more concerned with the quality of life. Decreasing

availability of meaningful paid activity and increasing levels of aware-
ness of the needs for human services, coupled with more discretionary
time and opportunities have resulted in an increased and renewed interest
in voluntarism. More people are now wishing to participate in voluntary
activity, more agencies are deciding to use volunteers for the first time,
and more students and teachers are becoming interested in voluntarism as
a promising field of study and research. The heightened interest in
voluntarism can be observed around us every day.

The net result of these trends, then, has been to facilitate and
perhaps even to encourage participation in voluntary activities.   In
·response to the increased participation, administrative structures have
been designec to systematize the voluntary sector. One such structure
is a volunteer bureau, or as it has been sometimes renamed, the voluntary
action centre. The volunteer bureaus sprang into existence as a stop
gap measure to meet the community's need for volunteers. Initially,
most bureaus acted as central recruiting and referral agencies. After
determining the needs of various agencies within the community, the
volunteer bureau would actively recruit individuals interested in doing
voluntary work. As it became relatively efficient in this function, the
bureau's responsibilities expanded to include the initial screening of
volunteers before referral, thereby eliminating some of the user
agency's duties. With this move, the bureau, to gain feedback on its
performance, found that it was necessary to evaluate its placements.
The volunteer bureau, as a coordinating unit began to aid in defining
the rights and the responsibilities of the parties to this partnership;
the volunteer, the agency, and the volunteer bureau. Agencies began to
demand more from the bureau, this time in terms of orientation and
training for the increased number of volunteers. In response, the
volunteer bureau, possibly in cooperation with a local educational body,
started to sponsor institutes and workshops on voluntarism. These
activities were necessary to fulfill requirements for orientation,
training and promotion of the volunteering concept. This is the stage at
which most bureaus or voluntary action centres find themselves at present.
The bureau's role is that of a service agency providing promotional,
recruitment, selection, referral, orientation, training, and evaluation

functions for users of volunteers in the community.

Recently, there has been some pressure for the bureau to take on an expanded responsibility for human resource coordination. The expanded role would entail becoming a planning body rather than a reactionary one. Specifically, the bureau would be involved with all of its previous functions plus the following: planning, coordinating, standard setting, demonstrating new practices, consulting with users of volunteers, research and development, establishing a link with the non-voluntary sector, and providing information and expertise to various user groups. The volunteer bureau would truly become a human resource centre. Enabling legislation is providing the guidance and monetary support to make this expanded role a reality.

Thus far the volunteer and the volunteer bureau have been considered - what of the agency - the organization which uses volunteers? All too often, coordination of voluntary activity within the agency has been quite weak. Many times, no one person has been designated to act as a coordinator of volunteers. For example, in a hospital, the women's auxiliary or even the nurse on the ward has been given a rather vaguely defined responsibility for voluntary activities. In other instances a paid employee may be designated part-time volunteer coordinator as a collateral duty. In the above situations the volunteer bureau has been able to play an important role although coordination is difficult when no full-time staff coordinator exists within the user agency. Even in situations in which a formal coordinator has been designated, the coordinator usually has been educated in one of the professions; nursing, education, social work, or law, and has had little, if any, formal administrative training.

Because of vaguely defined responsibilities and inappropriate or inadequate education in administration, very few volunteer coordinators, even in substantial programmes, have been recognized by the board or the chief executive in the user agency as an important part of the adminis-trative or managerial team. Fortunately, this situation seems to be changing. More and more importance is being placed on the volunteer programme and thus on the volunteer administrator. Volunteer coordinator positions have been established within government at the municipal and

state or provincial level. More formal educational opportunities are becoming available. In 1973 at Boulder, Colorado, the first student in Volunteer Administration was graduated with a Bachelor's degree. Many universities throughout the United States and Canada are now offering courses or diplomas in Volunteer Administration. The position of Volunteer Coordinator is being recognized and legitimized by agencies of all types. The coordinator is becoming a more integral part of the managerial team in the social service agency. National organizations have developed which are dedicated to the promotion of volunteering, i.e., the National Centre for Voluntary Action and the Centre for a Voluntary Society and Action.

In this section, three articles have been selected which expand on and amplify the basic thoughts contained in the Introduction. The first article by Dr. Eva Schindler-Rainman discusses in detail the societal trends affecting volunteers now and in the future and is designed to answer the question: "Are volunteers here to stay?". After having answered this question, a typology of volunteers and voluntarism is presented in an article by David Horton Smith. Smith's article should provide the reader with a broader conception of the volunteer as he defines and discusses five main categories depicting the type of activity involved and the type of individual likely to be found in that activity. A discussion of six of the functional responsibilities of the volunteer coordinator is presented in the final article. This article was chosen because it provides a brief overview of the functional areas which will be covered in the sections of this book. Together, then the three articles have been selected to cover the topics of societal trends, volunteers, volunteer programs, and the volunteer coordinator. These topics should provide a useful frame of reference for the reader as he continues his study of Volunteer Administration.

ARE VOLUNTEERS HERE TO STAY?

Eva Schindler-Rainman*

We are living in such exciting, complex and rapidly changing times
that it is difficult to answer such a question as "Are Volunteers Here
to Stay?". It is helpful to look at the trends affecting voluntaryism
today in order to gain some perspective on voluntaryism** tomorrow.
This article will discuss some assumptions that can be made about
voluntaryism, some projections for the future and an answer to the
question.

The assumption may be made that voluntaryism is changing and will
continue to change in the 70's and 80's as it has never changed before.
The word "change" raises the question "Isn't there anything to hold on
to?" The following stances can be taken: We can welcome or resist change;
we can be excited or upset by it; we can see change as a challenge to our
creativity, or as a meddler in traditions.

The second rule is that these changes in voluntaryism will affect
all organizations, agencies, and the service professions. Professional
education and practice will have to be changed and modernized. That is,
all of the people-helping professions will be or already are affected,
be they medicine, psychology, religion, education, recreation, social
work or public administration.

Thirdly, the functions of agencies and institutions are changing
and will continue to change.

The fourth assumption is that changes need to be known, dealt with,
communicated to volunteers and staff in all private and public agencies
and organizations, especially to the decision-making bodies.

Five. Functions of the volunteers will be vastly extended. Volunteers
will be working in many new and exciting places and spaces.

Six. Larger volunteer manpower pools and tools are available.
There are the young, the old, the brown, the black population, the red
population, the yellow and white populations, the poor population,
single as well as married. Vast areas of manpower and womanpower can
now be tapped. Across the United States there are many people who have
never been asked to volunteer. We need to work on providing equal
opportunity to volunteer to all people everywhere. Volunteering fills
an important need in people to give of themselves, their ideas, ideals
and resources voluntarily.

Let us now look at some selected images of the future that are
related to voluntaryism. My materials come from studies of the future,
and some thoughts based on my own experiences and reflections.

The national developments focusing on volunteers should not be
underestimated. The present administration's focus on voluntaryism is an
important one, through the new National Programs for Voluntary Action,
based in Washington D.C. There is a new Centre for a Voluntary Society
that has been set up at the Institute for Applied Behavioural Science,
National Training Laboratories in Washington, D.C. This Centre is
dedicated to doing research and developing training programs focusing on
the changes in the voluntary sector of our society. There is also a
Centre for the Study of Voluntarism at the University of Maryland in
Baltimore.

Also being planned are two national consultations. The first is
designed to involve all the national youth serving agencies to look at
trends of the present and future including the questions of societal
changes affecting them. The other consultation will be with both public
and private agencies and organizations who depend on volunteers to render
their services. Here the purpose will be to understand the changes in
the volunteer picture, and to study the implications for volunteer
recruitment, training, and on the job growth. Also included will be
the problems of referral of volunteers from one agency to another, and
the problems of "turfdom" versus collaboration.

The derivation from this particular image of the future, is that we

shall have to increase the opportunity for volunteers and directors of volunteers to leave their turf and to participate with others to develop new volunteer opportunities, and to participate in research and training. Another implication is for experienced volunteers to give of their long history of knowledge and skill, to agencies and organizations that are just beginning to utilize volunteers. Experienced volunteers have a lot to offer, and they are willing to share with others. A second image relates to the increasing interdependence of countries, groups, communities and institutions to solve the complex and large social, health, and educational problems of the vast numbers of people on this earth.

The implications are that private and public institutions will have to collaborate, which means actively working together on common interest causes and projects. Collaboration means putting cooperation into action, and it means that private and public institutions will be increasingly working together. Another implication from the interdependence thread is that professionals, paraprofessionals and volunteers will need to learn the art and skill of teammanship in order to extend services to patients and clients both in the agency setting as well as in the community. New functions will emerge, including "community mental health volunteers" or "connecters"; volunteers who connect community people to services that they do not know about. These connecters could be volunteers, paraprofessionals, and/or professionals. To build up this kind of teamwork, it will be necessary not to look at who is the volunteer, or who is the paraprofessional, or who is the professional. Rather the focus will have to be on the resources each person brings, and the best combination of these talents and skills to give the best possible service to patients and clients. There are unique resources human beings bring to any situation and titles do not describe these at all. What matters here is the willingness and abilities of three, or six or nine people to give service, and together they can do more than any one of them could do separately. It is a richer human menu from which to draw.

Another image of the future, and the present, is that there is decreasing tolerance for de-personalization. People do not want to be an IBM card number; people are searching for identity. It seems that the

identity search, the love for self, and the need to feel that one is an individual human being is a very strong one in all of us, and one that often gets violated in this mechanical age. The implication is that there will be increasing need for personal touch, for individualized treatment, the kind that the volunteer needs himself and can give to others. Whether he is a "waiting room welcomer", a "home visitor", a "crisis visitor", or a "take home volunteer". For example would it not be wonderful for people who do not get called for at hospitals to have volunteers who would help with the transition from hospital to home? Or perhaps we need visitors to the nonvisited, like the 78-year old resident of the Watts-Willoughbrook area, who decided that the children at one of the hospitals who were not visited needed visitors. She developed a corps of volunteers who weekly visited nonvisited kids.

Another thread is the increasing number of youth. The youth culture is with us. This means there are vast numbers of youth with power that youth has never had before. They are affecting the design of cars and dresses, as well as the values of the total societal structure. Many are committed to making the world a better place to live. Certainly the values of youth are much felt these days, because so many values are transmitted by the younger to the older, instead of the other way around. This is a reversal of value transmission. Therefore new volunteer opportunities must be offered and made available to youth in addition to those now extant. A recent development, for example, is "Cross Age Teaching". This means "olders" are teaching "youngers", like 6th graders are teaching 3rd and 4th graders. Also elders (grandparents) and youngers can form very meaningful alliances. They often feel close to each other. Younger/elder teams can do visiting to nursing homes, or teach English to the foreign born. The youths and the elders find that they have some-thing to offer, not only to others, but to each other. Also youth should be on decision-making bodies, locally and nationally. This is not a new thing for some agencies, and completely unheard of for many others. How-ever, if we really believe that the people who are affected by our services need to have some part in making the decisions about those services, we must translate this belief into action. And youths are clients of many systems.

Major changes in the attitudes towards work and money are also developing. Studies about the future indicate that money will be more taken for granted, and be much less of a motivation to achievement. There will be an increasing demand that work, paid and volunteer, be meaningful. This means, for some people, that work must be where the action is. And action for one, may not be action for another. The implication here is that new jobs for volunteers will need to be developed in all scenes. For example in the hospital scene and the health scene there could be "disease prevention volunteers", or volunteer health or mental health educators. Volunteers should be recruited to help in developing these jobs. We often do things for other people instead of with them, but we are slowly learning to include volunteers themselves in the discussions and planning that will affect them.

By 1975, approximately 70% of the work roles will be in the "people-helping" fields, and more people will have more time to help. Implication number one: Education for volunteer and paid work will need to change radically. This includes formal education and informal education, and on the job training. We must look at training much more in terms of its relevancy for what is needed for one to do the job now, rather than spending long hours on the history, the traditions and the rules of the road of a given agency. The question becomes: what does any person need to know to begin a job? Then, what does he need as he goes along the way? Other questions that need to be asked include: How can training become part of living? How can training make people more self assured and skilled as they go? How is training timed so that it is useful? Training by little bits and pieces is more apt to be useful. Whereas when you "pour it all in" a lot does not stick with the receiver. Also, there are more people available to volunteer, and therefore new recruitment methods are needed. In South Los Angeles we recruited, in less than one year, 700 people who had never volunteered before. We recruited in laundromats, bowling alleys, the waiting rooms of public health centres, bars, corners where people sat in the sun, and in adult education classes.

Another trend is one of anti-specialization. That is the boundaries between people helping specializations are becoming more and more blurred;

more turfdoms are being diminished. The implication is that there is a need to develop interprofessional, interdisciplinary teams and interrole teams, to improve service to clients.

Increased polarization and separation of the society continues, and communities are split into special interest groups and coalitions. These polarizations or divisions are between racial groups, between the generations, between consumer and provider, between the poor and the rich, and sometimes even between men and women. We need to find ways to bridge these gaps, and working together often helps to do so.

Therefore there is the need to develop third party skills in conflict resolution and utilization, to reach creative compromises. Volunteers can have, if they learn the skills, a very unique role as third party mediators. There is a new body of knowledge developing in this field, that can be transmitted through training. Volunteers can garner these skills, and help others reach creative compromises.

Also, we have to develop opportunities for polarized groups to work together. There are lots of people who would like to work in medical and health settings. If people work together, they get to know one another, and distances and polarizations decrease. As differences are utilized, our vast human resources are tapped. We shall not only have a richer menu, but a society that is more unified.

Are volunteers here to stay? Yes! For three important reasons.

Yes! To strengthen this democratic society, because with voluntaryism we maintain the humanness in human services, because we continue to develop openness, communications, supports and sharing between the consumer and the provider of the service. Yes, because we offer an opportunity for creative pluralism, creative acceptance, and the utilization of differences.

Yes! To meet increasing needs of more people in all parts of our geographic community, including religion, education, recreation, culture, health, the economic and political communities as well as the welfare and mass media communities.

Yes! To meet the needs of human beings to volunteer. To give of themselves, their ideas, ideals and resources. Human beings have needs to learn new skills, to give, to be recognized, to grow, to succeed, to be creative, to make decisions, to solve problems, to have fun, to meet new people, to lead and to follow. Voluntaryism offers an opportunity to meet some of these needs.

Yes, volunteers are here to stay because "we give a damn" about what happens to our fellow man. Because we care about what happens in this country and are committed to stand, to extend opportunities to give, so that others may continue to live.

TYPES OF VOLUNTEERS AND VOLUNTARISM*

David Horton Smith

Voluntarism represents a category of human activity that is so varied
it defies adequate description. The situation is not much better when we
try to classify into broad categories various related types of voluntary
activity. Yet we can only hope to deal rationally with this great variety
of activities if we can devise some shorthand ways of referring to major
sub-types of volunteers and voluntarism. This paper attempts to sketch
briefly one possible classification scheme.

The types of volunteers and voluntarism presented here do not comprise
the only possible classification scheme by any means.[1] These types simply
represent an attempt to classify volunteer activities largely in terms of
broad types of goals involved (both individual and social). Any value
the scheme may have is likely to be due to the fact that it is not only
simple and comprehensive but is very close to common sense empirical
categories that are in current use.

We shall emphasize here the various types of volunteers indicated
by our scheme, although we could as well apply the typology to the
voluntary organizations or groups involved.[2] By volunteers we mean
individuals who are engaging in an activity for primarily non-remunerative,
non-coercive reasons (though partial, subsistence remuneration or
reimbursement for out-of-pocket expenses may be involved). The focus is
on other (often idealistic) goals and various kinds of psychic benefits
and rewards, not mainly direct payment or the threat of sanctions.[3]

1. Service Volunteers are volunteers who are attempting to help
others directly (or, in some cases, themselves) in the realms of health,
welfare, housing, education, rehabilitation, religion, etc. This is
the traditional "people helping people" area of voluntarism that most
people think of when they hear the word "volunteer". There are several
major subtypes of Service Volunteers that need to be spelled out,

according to the organizational context in which they are contributing their services.

(a) Institutional program linked volunteers: This kind of Service Volunteer is serving in a volunteer program that is linked to a larger institution - a church, prison, school, hospital, welfare agency, corporation, government agency, etc. The large majority of these volunteers are white, middle class women in the 30 to 60 age range who work a few hours a week at their role. However, some volunteer programs of the present kind have been successful in involving youth (as in student volunteer programs), the aged (as in the U.S. government's Foster Grandparents Program), and men (as in the court volunteer programs and environmental cleanup campaigns). Nevertheless, relatively few lower income or deprived minority group individuals are involved in this form of volunteering.

(b) Autonomous Service group volunteers: This kind of Service Volunteer is a member of, or affiliated with, an autonomous voluntary association with direct service goals of some kind - the Red Cross, a voluntary recycling centre, Call for Action, etc. The member composition of these kinds of groups is similar to that of the previous category. Emphasis again is on helping others directly in various ways, but without direct service group linkage to and control by some existing institution.

(c) Self-help group volunteers: This special kind of Service Volunteer is becoming increasingly important in our society and elsewhere in the world (especially developing countries). Many people - especially people who are poor, discriminated against, ill, disabled, etc. - are beginning to rebel against the traditional "charity approach" implicit or explicit in the two foregoing types of service voluntarism. As a result, there have arisen increasing numbers of volunteer self-help groups, often following the lead of the well-established Alcoholics Anonymous. For instance, there are now self-help volunteer groups for drug addicts (or ex-addicts), ex-convicts, ex-mental patients, welfare recipients, divorced or widowed parents, ethnic minority groups, overweight people, the handicapped, diabetics, etc. The members of such groups are generally quite different from the usual Service Volunteer, as well as differing markedly

among various types of self-help groups themselves. These self-help group volunteers are usually representative of a problem population, but problems can strike anyone and cut across the many usual social categories (all ages, both sexes, all socioeconomic groups, etc.).

2. Public Issue/Advocacy Volunteers stand in marked contrast to most kinds of Service Volunteers. When Service Volunteers tend to focus on the problems directly for specific individuals, Public Issue/Advocacy Volunteers focus more on the social, economic, and political roots of problems for large groups of people. As such, these volunteers and groups are the principal innovators and change initiators in society as a whole. In some cases they are neutral with regard to an issue and are merely trying to raise the issue for wider public concern. More frequently, they are deeply committed to one side or the other of an issue, and eager either to bring about or resist social, economic, and political change with regard to the issue. Some major subtypes include the following:

(a) Public information volunteers: This kind of Issue Volunteer is relatively neutral about an issue or issues, being primarily interested in raising the level of public information and public concern regarding some issue(s) - war, population, the political system and politican candidates, the environment, consumer problems, civil rights, etc. Because of the relatively neutral stance taken, members of this kind of volunteer organization tend to be more highly educated, white middle class women in the middle years of life (30 - 55). The League of Women Voters is a good example.

(b) Political campaign workers: This kind of Issue Volunteer tends to work for a particular candidate, party, or issue being put to a public vote. More than other types of Issue/Advocacy Volunteers, political campaign workers play a highly cyclical volunteer role. They are extremely active every 2 or 4 years for a few months, and then largely inactive in this kind of role the rest of the time (although they may be engaging in other forms of volunteer activity in these long intervals between intensive political activity). Political campaign workers tend to run the gamut of age, ethnicity, sex and geographic distribution. They also represent a fairly broad socioeconomic status range, yet more educated and higher

status individuals tend to have <u>proportionately</u> greater participation. Naturally, they are highly involved with their issue, party or candidate when they are active.

(c)   <u>Public issue volunteers</u>: This kind of Issue Volunteer is highly committed to <u>one</u> side or viewpoint on some public issue or problem. He or she is an activist about the issue on a relatively continuing basis - not just periodically at election times. A wide range of issues can be the focus of public issue volunteers. Some voluntary organization, like Common Cause, focus on several different kinds of public issues at once, while others, like Zero Population Growth, focus more narrowly on a single kind of issue or problem. The public issue volunteer tends in general to be younger, more educated, and to have fewer "vested interests" than Service Volunteers or even the foregoing two kinds of Issue/Advocacy Volunteers. Still, public issue volunteers are mainly white, middle class in composition, with substantial participation by both men and women.

(d)   <u>Rights advocacy volunteers</u>: This is the most radically change-oriented form of voluntarism, by and large. The volunteers of this type are not only deeply committed to socio-political changes, but usually have a personal interest in the matter as it affects them. These rights advocacy volunteers are generally quite different in background from the average Issue Volunteer of the other three types noted above. Instead of being white, middle-class volunteers, with a preponderance of women, the present type of volunteer is usually a minority group member, often poor, and may be male or female, depending on the group. Black power, the Chicano movement, the welfare rights movement, women's liberation and similar "liberation" groups are examples.

3.   <u>Consummatory/Self-Expressive Volunteers</u> constitute a third major class of volunteers. Unlike the previous two broad categories, this category of volunteer does not generally appeal to altruistic motivation or ideology. Consummatory/Self-Expressive Voluntarism is usually an end in itself, rather than an attempt to do something for or to others or the society. This is the area of voluntarism that emphasizes fun, fellowship, enjoyment, and entertainment, rather than the more "serious" social and human problems that are the focus of the two prior broad categories of

volunteers. Major subtypes here include the following:

(a) Cultural/esthetics volunteers: This kind of Consummatory Volunteer is concerned primarily with music, art, dance, theatre, discussion, learning, and other "Cultural/esthetic" topics (eg., Little Theatre groups, Square Dance Clubs, Great Books Discussion Groups, Adult Education Groups, etc.). Because of the subject matter involved, cultural/esthetic volunteers tend primarily to be more educated higher socioeconomic status individuals, with a higher proportion of women than men.

(b) Social Club Members: This kind of volunteer is primarily concerned with enjoying the fellowship of similar persons, often in the context of other informal social activities such as eating, drinking, chatting, rituals, etc. Social Club Members include volunteer participants in Country Clubs, men's clubs, women's clubs, high school social clubs, fraternities and sororities, veterans' groups, ethnic clubs, etc. Although the members of a given social club are likely to be quite homogeneous in background, social club members in general (across all groups) tend to come from all walks of life and all backgrounds. As with the other kinds of voluntarism, however, social club members are proportionately more prevalent in the middle and especially the upper class.

(c) Recreational Club Members: This kind of volunteer role is primarily oriented toward some enjoyable physical recreational activity, performed as a part of a club or voluntary association. Examples of this kind of voluntarism include Little Leagues, Bowling Teams and Leagues, Raquet Clubs, Power Boat Clubs, Skating Clubs, etc. The typical volunteer is an average U.S. citizen, since there are recreational clubs that appeal to both sexes, all ages, all socioeconomic levels, all ethnic backgrounds, etc. The main kinds of people who do not tend to participate proportion- ately as much in this kind of volunteer role are the aged, the infirm, and the physically handicapped.

(d) Hobby and Games Club Members: This kind of volunteer activity, though similar to the preceding category, places less emphasis on physical recreation/outdoor activities, and more emphasis on enjoyment of indoor

games and hobby activities in an organized club context. Primary
examples include Chess Clubs, Bridge Clubs, Gardening Clubs, Dog
Breeding Clubs, Numismatic Clubs, Philatelic Clubs, etc. The members
of such voluntary organizations are primarily middle class or higher
in socioeconomic status, although they include both sexes, all ages,
all geographic areas, etc.

    4. Occupational/Economic Self-Interest Volunteers comprise a large
segment of voluntarism that is also, like the preceding category, self-
oriented rather than other-oriented (altruistic). However, instead of
seeking primarily enjoyment, the present category of volunteers are
primarily seeking to protect and enhance their occupational and/or
economic interests. In historical terms, such groups have perhaps the
most ancient roots of all areas of voluntarism, tracing their origins to
guilds and "collegia" of thousands of years ago. Some major modern day
subtypes are the following:

    (a) Professional Association Members: This kind of volunteer is
usually dedicated to maintaining the standards of his profession while at
the same time advancing the state of skill, knowledge and practice in his
field. Typical examples are the American Medical Asssociation, the
Association of Voluntary Action Scholars, the American Psychological
Association, the American Association for the Advancement of Science, etc.
Not suprisingly, the typical active member of a professional association
tends to be an upper middle or upper socioeconomic status male with a
very high level of education. With the increasing entry of women into
the professions, more and more professional associations previously
dominated by men are coming to have increasing membership, participation
and leadership from women. Low income, poorly educated, and minority
group persons tend to be relatively infrequent in this form of voluntarism
(largely based upon occupational discrimination), although the bias
against minority groups is changing gradually.

    (b) Businessmen's and Civic Association Members: This kind of
volunteer is dedicated primarily to the enhancement of his business or
commercial interests, although a local businessmen's club still often
engages in civic service activities as well as economic interest activities.

Local Chambers of Commerce, Jaycees, national trade associations, associations of business executives of various kinds, and even clubs like Rotary, Kiwanis, etc., may be given as examples of the present form of voluntarism. The typical member is a male small businessman, "retail" professional, or business executive (from a bank, industrial plant, etc.) hence favoring lower middle to upper socioeconomic status males, usually not of minority group background.

(c) Labor Union Members: This kind of volunteer may at times be only a quasi-volunteer, if membership and certain minimal participation in a given union are legally mandatory. However, for many kinds of activities (business meetings, parties, discussion sessions), union members can participate or not as they choose. In these situations union members are volunteers, as in the general case of "open shop" unionism. The typical union member is male (though female union membership rates are increasing), of modest education, and of working class socioeconomic status. Most skilled craft unions have very few, if any, minority group members. Industrial unions, however, tend to include a larger (if still disproportionately small) representation of minority group members and leaders.

5. Fund Raising Volunteers comprise a final important type of volunteer. They are distinguished from other volunteers by being largely involved in the task or process of raising money, but relatively uninvolved in more substantive activities focused around the various other goals we have considered. There are only two analytical subtypes worth distinguishing here:

(a) General Fund Raising Volunteers: This kind of volunteer plays a role in some rather general volunteer fund raising when the funds are collected for a wide variety of goals. Two prime examples here would be the United Fund Drive (or equivalent) and the United Jewish Appeal (or equivalent). Most participants are similar to members of institutional program linked or autonomous service group volunteers.

(b) Specific Fund Raising Volunteers: This kind of volunteer is involved in a fund raising effort for a more specific goal or purpose,

such as in working with the Easter Seal Society, Heart Fund, UNICEF, March of Dimes, etc. Although most participants are similar to General Fund Raising Volunteers, volunteers for a specific kind of fund raising effort can include males, youth or the aged, lower socioeconomic status persons, etc. - unlike the usual situation for General Fund Raising Volunteers.

Conclusion

When a broad view of voluntarism is taken, the major kinds of volunteers that can be identified are much more varied than usually considered under the heading of "volunteer". Some people wedded to an older and more traditional view of voluntarism, will find this broader view to be unsettling. Yet all of the foregoing kinds of volunteers can be clearly demonstrated to fit into the voluntary, independent, non-governmental, noncommerical sector of society. Hence, a full and complete picture of volunteers and voluntarism in our society cannot ignore all of the facets discussed briefly above.

When people speak of "voluntarism", they often have in mind only one subtype of the typology presented here. They say "voluntarism" but really mean only "Service oriented voluntarism", or they really mean only "Issue/Advocacy voluntarism". Although these latter two types of voluntarism are probably the most crucial types of voluntarism in terms of unique functions for society, they are not all that is worth considering in the realm of voluntarism.

References

1. See, for instance, David Horton Smith with Allon Fisher, "Toward a Comparative Theory of the Incidence-Prevalence of Voluntary Associations in Territorial Social Systems", mimeo paper. Centre for a Voluntary Society, 1971.

2. See David Horton Smith, "A Parsimonious Definition of 'Group': Toward Conceptual Clarity and Scientific Utility", Sociological Inquiry 37 (Spring 1967): 141-68; also, David Horton Smith, "Organizational Boundaries and Organizational Affiliates, "Sociology and Social Research (July 1972).

3. See David Horton Smith, et al., "Types of Voluntary Action: A Definitional Essay", in David Horton Smith et al., eds., "Voluntary Action Research: 1972 (Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books, D.C. Heath and Co., 1972.)

MANAGEMENT OF VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS*

During the last few years, many social agencies have experienced the rebirth of volunteerism as a result of the realization that: 1) professional staff, because of the increasing size of their workloads, can no longer meet the social service needs of clients; 2) staff members sometimes cannot accomplish their functions due to their image in the eyes of the client; and 3) a proven means of alleviating community problems is the utilization of people as resources.

Volunteer services should be well coordinated in order to maintain a logical consistency in the program's operation, as well as to insure that volunteer activities are in keeping with the agency's goals and objectives. Many agencies today are designating one individual as a volunteer coordinator to develop and manage a volunteer program. This paper assumes that you are the designated coordinator.

While the specific responsibilities of coordinators will vary with direction of different agencies, there are six functions which are common to all volunteer programs. These are: 1) planning, 2) recruiting, 3) screening, 4) training, 5) supervision, and 6) evaluation. As these commonalities entail specific knowledge and skills on your part, each will be examined in the following sections.

Planning

Planning is the most critical of the six functions and should be approached with a logical consistency which allows for the integration of all facets of the program. You will want to approach the task armed with a thorough knowledge of your agency's functions, policies, and the needs of its client population.

With this knowledge, you can assess the needs of the agency as they relate to volunteer services. Based on the information gleaned from such an assessment, you should then be in a position to establish meaningful priorities for volunteer utilization within the framework of the agency's goals and objectives; a realistic plan of action can then be developed which must also include measurable goals and objectives.

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The planning process is frequently carried out primarily by the designated coordinator, who may solicit suggestions and advice from others on the staff. However, the selection of a committee of six or eight people made up of representatives from administration, professional and non-professional staff, and any other group which may exist in a given organization, such as policy making or advisory boards, can be an effective tool in encouraging participation on the part of these groups in the program once it's developed.

A significant factor in any volunteer program is the support administration can render. While this support is an intangible commodity, it facilitates the agency's receptiveness to your program. Since agency administrators are in the powerful and influential positions, they frequently provide the atmosphere for the office. Whether or not it is verbally expressed, if an administrator is not behind the coordinator, staff members will feel the lack of support. If members of the staff do not feel their administration is in support of volunteer programs, its effectiveness can be seriously questioned.

As is the case with the agency's administrative staff, the professional and non-professional staff members are essential to a successful volunteer program. Their respect for you, the coordinator and their utilization of volunteers is necessary if your program is to maintain a solid foundation. One of your prime responsibilities is placing volunteers in jobs working with staff members. To prepare for the accomplishment of this task, you must develop a positive working relationship with the staff members which is based on mutual respect. If fellow staff members do not respect your judgment, they will not accept your recommendations for volunteer placements within the agency. Staff members, with their invaluable knowledge and experience, can be helpful to you because they frequently have a keener insight into the service aspects of the agency than anyone else in the agency.

A potential problem in developing volunteer programs is that professional staff members may become threatened when volunteers are assigned tasks traditionally thought to be professional in nature. An offsetting advantage in requesting assistance from the staff members is that much of

the sense of threat they may feel due to the establishment of the program can be alleviated.

During the planning stages, detailed and accurate job descriptions should be written, based on the needs of the agency. Each job should be specifically defined and should include the following: 1) an outline of responsibilities; 2) a statement of qualifications necessary to perform the task; 3) an estimate of the time required per week or per month; 4) identification, wherever possible, of the functional supervisor, including a telephone number where he or she may be reached; 5) a statement of training requirements and the time involved in such training. These job descriptions should be made available to the agency staff and administration in order to inform them of the specific roles that the volunteer will take in the agency, as well as to enlist their support for various volunteer responsibilities.

Armed with a working knowledge of his agency, realistic goals and objectives, support of the agency's administration and staff, and well-written job descriptions, you will then be prepared to begin recruiting volunteers.

Recruiting

The best volunteer programs are based on quality, not quantity. Keeping that statement in mind, plan a campaign aimed at recruiting a small number of volunteers and using them to demonstrate the advantages of a volunteer program to any who may be resistant to the idea. If your staff and volunteers are both satisfied with their experiences, the staff will sell other staff on the benefits of the program, and the volunteers can be effective recruiters of new volunteers from among their friends and associates. Beginning with a small corps of volunteers will also allow for changes in the program plan as they become needed.

Based on written job descriptions, your recruiting campaign can be directed at those groups in the community whose members are most likely to have the interest in and skills for the jobs needed. There are a number of methods of recruiting volunteers which should be considered. Among these are the use of friends, agency staff members and presently working

volunteers to recruit new volunteers from among their friends and associates; speeches to community groups within the community; and, of course, the mass media, including newspaper, radio and television. Which of these methods you select will be largely determined by your needs assessment.

Perhaps the most frequently utilized method of recruiting volunteers is the mass media. While this method can elicit responses from a number of people, it has a few striking disadvantages. One of these is the fact that the number of people who do respond is often too great for you to handle by yourself. This can result in good, potential volunteers being lost to your program because they are not interviewed and placed within a reasonable period of time. In the larger view, this can result in a poor public relations image of your program in the community, and greatly increased difficulties in recruiting volunteers at a later date.

Another disadvantage is that those who do respond, while being sincere in their desire to help, may not be qualified to fill the position. Both of these disadvantages can be alleviated if publicity is explicit in reference to the jobs which need filling. This should serve to reduce the number of obviously unsuitable applicants. You may also need to devise a system that allows for the preliminary screening of all those who apply. Telephone screening is an excellent tool for screening out those who are obviously unsuitable for the job in question. It may be necessary to utilize staff members or volunteers to assist with such a preliminary screening. Those who do sound appropriate, based on the telephone conversation, can be then scheduled for personal interviews at a mutually convenient time.

As your program develops and you define needs for additional volunteers, two sources for recruiting potential volunteers are the staff members and active volunteers in your agency. This is perhaps the most efficient method of recruitment. Staff members and active volunteers are aware of the needs of the agency, as well as the criteria used in accepting an applicant for volunteer service. Therefore, when the need is expressed to them, they frequently will refer those candidates they feel will function will within the framework of the agency's volunteer program.

Screening

Screening volunteer applicants is both an art and a skill. It is the process through which you will determine the acceptability of the volunteer. You must sort out information you have obtained and make the decision whether or not to utilize the applicant, as a volunteer wishing to volunteer who may come from a varied background. This requires the ability to communicate with all levels of the socio-economic spectrum and to use adequate interviewing techniques, as there will be a variety of backgrounds.

An interview is the major component in the screening process. You or whoever assists with the screening should have the ability to interview comfortably and relevantly. The applicant should be placed at ease and questions asked should pertain to the issue at hand - that being the specific task for which he has applied.

The screening process consists of two facets: the review of the application form and the screening interview. Taken together, they can · provide you with the information needed to make an accurate determination of the applicant's acceptability. Information from the applicant's application can be reviewed privately prior to the interview in many cases. The application then serves as a point of reference from which both the applicant and the coordinator can proceed. The interview follows as an expansion of the information gleaned from the application form. When used appropriately, the utilization of both facets can greatly enhance the effectiveness of the screening phase.

The application form should be a vehicle to provide the applicant the opportunity to adequately indicate his desire to serve as a volunteer. Highly informative answers can usually be obtained from general, but job-relevant questions on the application form. The following are some examples: 1) "Why do you want to be a volunteer?" There are as many answers to this question as there are applicants; however, each response should indicate basic motivational factors, such as does the applicant have a genuine desire to help others; does he think this will be a door to paid employment by the agency; does he wish to "dispose" of excess leisure time, etc.; 2) "What types of volunteer service would you be willing to provide?" A question

such as this not only enables the applicant to express his abilities and preferences, but also allows you to effect a desirable placement as rapidly as possible; and 3) "What has been your previous volunteer experience?" The answers to this question provide the information which may open the interview. It enables you to gain additional data related to the applicant's background. This question can also serve as reference material if you feel the need to investigate the applicant's previous volunteer experiences.

While there may be certain volunteer service jobs which do not require an interview, it is essential when the prospective volunteer may be working directly with staff members and/or clients. As mentioned above, the screening interview should be an expansion of the information stated on the application form. The interview schedule should be designed in such a way that you can find out as much as possible about the applicant. This will enable you to match a volunteer with a task compatible with his skills, desires, and personality. The screening process will demand a great deal of you in that an interview can bring out many things not usually visible to an untrained person, and you must be prepared to see those things and weigh them accordingly.

You will want to explore with the applicant the answers given to the question on motivation. In this way, you will be able to determine if the applicant was accurate in his appraisal of the factors which led him to volunteer. You will want to determine his goals and objectives; while the applicant will freely render your agency a service, there should be a return to the volunteer; it may be intellectual, emotional, or financial. By establishing a goal for himself, the volunteer may be better able to cope with the pressures he may encounter during the course of his service. This will then enhance his effectiveness to the agency as well. Also, having an understanding of the motivational factors involved will help you to sustain the volunteer's enthusiasm.

Motivation, however, is not the only item to explore. In interviewing the applicant, attempt to gain insight into additional areas which are unique to the individual. Is the applicant qualified to perform the task? An informal review of his credentials will tell you a great deal about the

applicant's range of knowledge as it pertains to the assigned task. As you conduct the interview, you can ask questions which will give you a clear understanding of the applicant's abilities, while not appearing to test the applicant.

Can the applicant exercise good judgment when the need arises? While the real crisis situation will provide the most valid answer, the use of relevant, hypothetical situations is an excellent means of assessing this in an interview. Finding out how an applicant might handle an unexpected situation can give you a fairly adequate idea of the applicant's ability in this area.

Is the applicant willing to cooperate with the agency? Unfortunately, there are individuals who volunteer because they feel the system is wrong. As a volunteer, they are compelled to re-vamp or undermine the program in order to meet their own standards, which state that no agency can do the job of helping people if it is suffering under the burden of bureaucracy. While being true to one's own beliefs is commendable, it would not serve your agency well if such an individual were to accomplish his mission. Through a free, informal conversation, you can assess the applicant's attitude and can proceed on the basis of the information you gain.

One of the burdens under which some coordinators labor is that if an individual has applied, he must be given a volunteer job. This is neither sound management or conscientious coordination. During the course of screening, you will encounter some individuals who are not acceptable for one reason or another. When this occurs, you whould know exactly why this is so, and should be prepared to share your decision with the applicant, and if possible, have a list of possible alternatives for him.

If unanswered questions still linger regarding the applicant following the interview, the orientation and training sessions may provide the additional insight needed.

Orientation and Training

There is an important distinction between orientation and training for volunteers. An orientation provides general information which all volunteers

in the agency should know. Training, on the other hand, is more specifically
designed to provide the practical information for the volunteer in performing
his assigned task.

In developing an orientation program, you will need to determine what
it is that all volunteers should know. The function of the agency and its
various parts, as well as the needs of the clients, are good orientation
subjects. You will want to make the volunteer as knowledgeable as possible
about the agency if he is to be considered an integral part of it.

It is during the orientation that you can explain the expectations
that the agency has of its volunteers, as well as what the volunteers can
expect of the agency. The tone of the volunteer's experience with the agency
is established at this time. It is then your responsibility to nurture the
volunteer's enthusiasm in order to provide for a truly meaningful experience
by the volunteer.

The use of audio-visual aids in orientation and training, as they
frequently are more productive and interesting than a lecture. They can be
of invaluable assistance to you in communicating the facts or concepts that
you wish the volunteers to learn.

Where volunteers are working directly with clients of a social service
agency, Doctor Arthur Combs' taped speech, "A New Light on the Helping
Profession," is highly recommended. In a presentation made to teachers,
counselors, and social workers, Dr. Combs makes clear distinction between
good and poor helping people. The tape lends itself to considerable
discussion for which you should prepare yourself.

It is during these discussions that you can receive the answers to
those questions about the applicant which remained following the screening
process, as well as helping to reinforce the points made by the tape.

One question which should be discussed in the process of planning for
the volunteer orientation program is at what point in the process the
orientation would occur. In some agencies where the supply of volunteers
frequently exceeds the demand, the orientation to the agency is given
prospective volunteers before the screening process begins. In this way,

the orientation serves as a self-screening mechanism, giving the prospective
volunteer who does not feel that his talents or interests are in line with
the agency's needs an opportunity to screen himself out before an interview
is scheduled, thus saving you and him valuable time.

If the orientation is held following the interview, it becomes the
first step in the process of helping the volunteer become an integral part
of the agency. In this situation, the format may differ somewhat from that
which may be used in the situation above. In either case, however, use of
staff members to present various parts of the agency is advisable. Again,
this helps staff become a part of the volunteer program, as well as
providing the new volunteer with a chance to learn as much about his new
employer as possible.

Training, as stated above, should be specifically geared to the job
the volunteer will perform. Wherever possible, enlist staff members in the
training phase of the program. They can add insight and dimension to the
job with which you may be unfamiliar. Staff members, by participating in
training, can also assure themselves that the volunteers they may be
working beside are aware of the responsibilities of the position.

Another facet of any training component in a volunteer program is the
training of staff of the agency. This has been discussed in a roundabout
way throughout the planning process, but there are several factors which
need to be clearly spelled out before a staff member begins to work with or
utilize a volunteer. Among the questions that you and the planners will
need to answer are the following: 1) who will provide the functional super-
vision of the volunteer? If someone other than you is to provide super-
vision, expectations of this person's role also need to be clearly defined
for everyone in the agency. If the volunteer is working directly with the
clients of the agency, to whom does he report his progress? To whom does
he go with problems? 2) If the volunteer is working as a part of a team as
described above, what is your role in relation to the volunteer once he has
been assigned to a job? Who makes the decision to terminate a volunteer in
a particular task? To change or increase his job responsibilities? To
terminate him from the program entirely? Who bears primary responsibility
for his training?

All of these and many other questions should be clearly and thought-
fully spelled out with each member of the staff, as well as with the
volunteers.

A team approach wherein the staff, the volunteers and you are equal
partners promises the best chance of success for a program. With this
method, the staff member requesting the volunteer or otherwise deemed most
appropriate by you and the administration, provides the day-by-day super-
vision of the volunteer. It is this person to whom the volunteer reports
successes and problems with his job. The supervisor, in turn, keeps you
abreast of the progress and provides you with a regular evaluation of the
volunteer's efforts. You and the supervisor work out training needs
together, and in most cases, you take primary responsibility for provision
of the training involving whoever within the agency can most efficiently
provide each facet of the training.

If problems arise which the supervisor is not capable of handling with
the volunteer, you again become involved to assist in working out a solution
which best meets the needs of all concerned.

The process described above may vary somewhat from one program to
another, but in general accomplishes the goal of integration of the program
and the individual volunteers into the agency in the most efficient manner.

The training for staff of the agency then, should hinge on teaching
staff how to provide the necessary supervision for the volunteers. In most
agencies, professional staff are heavily task oriented, rather than super-
vision oriented. Frequently, they have had neither the opportunity nor the
training for supervision and may even be resistant to the idea of becoming
a supervisor. The ways in which this resistance can be overcome and the
necessary skills provided, are the subject of another paper and will not be
dealt with in any greater detail here.

When you have oriented and trained the volunteers and the staff, you
are then faced with the on-going responsibility of sustaining the volunteer's
interest and providing constructive feedback to him about the work he is
doing.

Supervision and Maintenance

On the assumption that supervision may be the responsibility of the
coordinator, or of another staff person, the term "supervisor" will be
used henceforth to refer to either of the above. The term "coordinator"
will continue to refer to you, the program manager.

Supervision of volunteers carries a two-fold responsibility. The
supervisor must maintain an on-going evaluation of the services which
individual volunteers provide to the agency and its clients, as well as
assisting the volunteers in achieving their own goals. Continually
evaluating the services of the volunteers, the supervisor can assess the
quality of his work, alleviate problem areas as they arise, and provide
the necessary feedback to you and other agency personnel when it is
requested. By maintaining a realistic awareness of the volunteers' progress,
the supervisor can more easily assess the need for change; likewise, you,
the coordinator with adequate information, can make intelligent assessments
of the need for change in the overall program.

When a volunteer has been given an assignment, he, as well as the
agency, has a right to be made aware of his effectiveness. The supervisor
should develop a system of on-going conferences with the volunteer to
discuss his services. If the volunteer is performing well, a regularly
scheduled conference can provide an opportunity for the supervisor to
render positive reinforcement. As will be discussed later, this is a key
factor in sustaining a volunteer on the job, and in the larger scope, in
sustaining the entire program. If the volunteer is not meeting the agency's
expectations, he should be told in a professional manner. The coordinator,
for the most part, will become aware of the volunteer's shortcomings through
the supervisory staff. A discussion involving all members of the team
should then be held, focused on the suggestion of alternatives for the
volunteer to assist him in rectifying the situation.

Of course, certain problems can arise during the course of a
volunteer's service. Again, through conferences with the volunteer, the
supervisor is in a position to alleviate these before they get out of hand.
Even if the problem is minimal, such a lack of transportation to the job, or

a dislike for a co-worker, the situation should be remedied as quickly as possible. A loss of interest by the volunteer can often be brought about by a very minute situation. Other problems may be more serious, but each should be dealt with as it comes up, no matter how small. Problems which cannot be alleviated by the above methods, may require conference involving you, as well as the supervisor and volunteer.

Agency personnel should be kept abreast of the progress of the volunteer program. Where volunteers are working with professionals, the staff members will undoubtedly be interested in their own progress, as well as the volunteer's. A conscientious professional person will want to do all he can do to provide the best atmosphere for the volunteer. Both the positive and negative points of the volunteer-staff relationship should be discussed. By providing feedback to the staff members, you are not only supporting them, but sustaining the teamwork atmosphere that must exist when professionals and volunteers are working together.

A stagnant volunteer program is as effective as a non-existent volunteer program. You and the supervisor should be prepared to implement changes whenever necessary to maintain an active program. If you have taken the necessary steps to keep abreast of the volunteer's activities, the need for change will be obvious. When it becomes apparent that a change is necessary, staff awareness of the program status will simplify the change process.

It has been said that volunteers are good for nothing. They give freely of their time, their skills, and often, their entire beings to be of service. Whether they admit it or not, however, they are seeking a return for their investment as a volunteer. It is the responsibility of the entire agency to assist the volunteer in realizing the return. As mentioned above, a regularly scheduled conference can provide an opportunity to achieve this. During the conference, the supervisor can provide the volunteer with the sense of accomplishment and the need to be needed which are often the trademarks of a volunteer. Both of these needs can be fulfilled if the supervisor is sensitive to them.

By making himself available to volunteers, the supervisor may find

himself in the role of confidant for some of them. Therefore, the supervisor should prepare himself to handle the personal problems of the volunteer. He is often perceived by the volunteer as being the only available person who is capable of maintaining objective perspective of the problem he is dealing with at the time. During the entire supervision phase, the supervisor should maintain a strong sense of empathy. He should be prepared to share the volunteer's experiences, good and bad. Empathy and an understanding of the volunteer's needs can double the volunteer's joys and halve his sorrows. You and the supervisor will find that the volunteer is far more effective if he is at peace with himself and with the job he is performing.

One of the most difficult tasks faced by the agency is termination of a volunteer who is not meeting the agency's expectations. There are no simple solutions to this problem. Again, a team effort should be utilized in the decision-making process, although you will probably be responsible for the final decision. Two items should be universal in this process: honesty and the definition of alternatives for the volunteer. If you are concerned about the volunteer's personal growth and development, to minimize or cloud the issue could be very detrimental to the volunteer.

When termination from the present job becomes necessary, alternatives should be suggested for the volunteer's consideration. If there is another task within the agency which he can be placed in, this offer should be made. If termination from the entire program is necessary, but there is another agency where he might be able to work as a volunteer, he should be made aware of this. This may help the volunteer to accept your decision and still maintain a positive attitude toward future volunteer service.

Supervision is an on-going process in a program, and how effectively it is carried out will be a determining factor in the turn-over rate of volunteers in the program, as well as in the program's effectiveness in helping to meet the agency's goals and objectives. You are in an enviable position in this area. You serve the agency's client population in that volunteer services are provided for the client's benefit. You serve the agency staff in taking some of their burdensome work from their shoulders. And you serve the volunteers by assisting them in meeting their needs.

Maintenance

As in all other service positions, some paperwork will be necessary
in the form of files and records for documentation purposes which ultimately
lead to evaluation of the program. The coordinator should design a filing
system to keep records pertinent to all volunteers. Included in each file
should be the application form which the volunteer completed, monthly
reports, and a chronological log of the contacts with the volunteer.
The chronological log can be used as a reference tool to assess the
volunteer's growth and progress in the program. Such an assessment would
be particularly pertinent to meeting on-going training needs for the
volunteers. It also would be pertinent if you should be asked for such a
record in the event of a problem or a request for a reference for the
volunteer.

You should develop a reporting system for the volunteer on which they
can report monthly the hours spent in volunteer service, the progress of
their service, and can indicate areas of concern. This system can be used
to supplement the regular conferences, as well as to provide valuable
figures for later evaluation.

Numbers are often used by funding resources in determining the
effectiveness of the program. By maintaining a record of hours spent by
volunteers, the coordinator can justify the fulfillment of the agency's
needs through volunteer services. This becomes an effective tool in an
area where it may be extremely difficult otherwise to evaluate in writing
the true merit of a volunteer program to the clients, staff and volunteers
of the agency.

This type of record keeping can also serve as the basis for public
recognition of the volunteers. Although most volunteers may deny any desire
for community recognition, such can be a very effective means of rewarding
outstanding volunteers, as well as an efficient public relations tool for
the overall program. Recognition of this type, however, should be based
on some identifiable selection process, lest it become meaningless.
Recording of hours served, as well as anecdotal notes about the activities
of the volunteers, can serve this purpose.

It is important that an accurate record be kept of all benefactors. When an individual or group contributes something material to the program, they may wish to claim it for tax purposes. If this is the case, you must be prepared to substantiate a claim if requested to do so.

Do not, however, allow record keeping to stifle the volunteer in his service to the agency. Just as stringent rules and regulations can have a constricting effect; detailed forms can quickly alienate a volunteer from a task at hand. Make forms easy to complete, and no more time consuming than necessary, and keep in mind that the primary interest of your volunteer is in serving the client's or the agency's needs, not in completing the forms.

Evaluation

The evaluation process in a volunteer program can be divided into two parts: evaluation of the individual volunteers, which has been discussed in relation to supervision and maintenance of the program; and evaluation of the overall program.

Program evaluation should be an on-going process to insure the vitality of the program. The evaluation should be hinged on a regular and continuing assessment of the agency's needs as related to its goals and objectives. New jobs which volunteers can fill will become apparent over a period of time and some tasks will no longer be necessary. The background, interests and skills of the volunteers may change as the programs become more sophisticated, or a different type of volunteer may need to be recruited as the clients' and agency's needs change. In either case, training needs for volunteers and staff may also change. An effective program involves all staff and volunteers in the evaluation process, keeps abreast of changes in the agency, and is prepared to meet the challenge.

Conclusion

The volunteer movement today is a truly exciting concept which is publicized on television and in the newspapers. Volunteers have become a viable component in the agencies staffed formerly only by professional individuals. You are an integral part of this movement. Your mission is

wo-fold: to assist the agency in meeting its goals and objectives in serving its clients, and to assist the community in becoming involved in the agency as volunteers in a meaningful way. Although the job at times may be difficult and frustrating, by developing and maintaining an efficiently run volunteer program, you can gain a good deal of satisfaction from this service to the agency and to the community.

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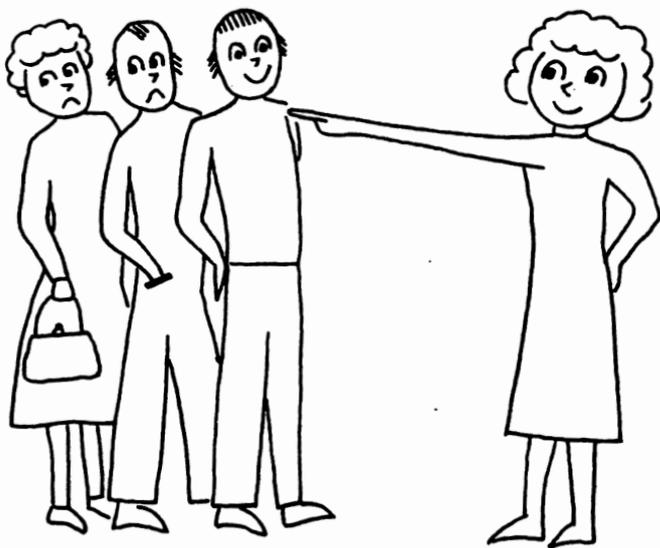
Section 2
The Selection Process

SECTION 2   INTRODUCTION

THE SELECTION PROCESS

Having made a decision to use the aid and expertise of volunteers in the agency's program either for the first time or in a position recently vacated, it becomes necessary to carefully consider the tasks the volunteer will perform, in other words, to analyze the job. Job analysis means defining the job and discovering what behaviors are required on the part of the volunteer to successfully perform the job. The information must then be presented in a behavioral manner. Job analysis is a method designed to determine: what are the features of the job? how does this set of tasks meet the organizational goals? what specific employee behaviors are demanded by the job? and what qualifications can be considered necessary, as inferred from the behavioral demands? By various methods of studying the volunteer position these questions can be answered. Some of the methods or techniques which can be used are direct observation, on-the-job experience (if it is not a new position, have the volunteer or staff member now doing the tasks define them), meetings with staff, questionnaires or checklists, or critical incidents provided by staff and volunteers. If your program is new, it might be wise to consult an agency already using volunteers in similar ways and gather job information from that source. Once all the information has been compiled, it must be written in a meaningful form for use by the people involved in recruitment and selection.

A RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION PROCESS FOR VOLUNTEERS

Recruitment:
Sources and
methods ▶ The Application Form:
Weighted or plain ▶ Interview:
Screening or ▶ Placement
In-Depth
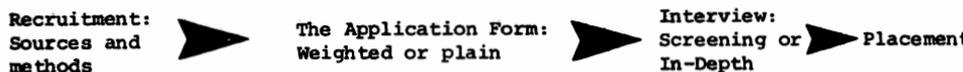
On the basis of the requirements defined, the recruiter will begin to seek out the individuals needed. Various methods can be used, ranging from requesting present staff and volunteers to suggest likely candidates to blanket advertising through the news media. The recruiter will usually

select his source and his method depending on the number of volunteers required and the qualifications desired. For instance, it would be unreasonable to advertise over the radio for two social work case aides when a telephone call to the Dean of the local School of Social Work would result in qualified personnel. As potential volunteers are found, information must be obtained from them to aid in both future contact and the final selection decision. One method usually used on initial contact is the application form. This form contains data which is relevant to the voluntary nature of the job and the selection decision. A variation of the application is the weighted application blank which takes into account the successful and unsuccessful performance of previous volunteers in that type of work to predict the success or failure of future volunteers. This technique gives values or weights to the items on the application; therefore, by summing the weights, a recruiter receives from the form one more predictive measure to aid in the selection decision. It is important to note that no volunteer should be rejected on the basis of his application as this procedure is designed only as an information getting device to prepare the recruiter for the interview.

It is the author's view that employment and psychological testing are beyond the scope of this book and are possibly invalid for use with volunteers. Moreover, in the case that psychological stability is a key factor in placing a volunteer and a psychological test or test battery is to be used, it is imperative that a qualified person is available to interpret and explain the results to the volunteer. Decisions based on this data should not be made lightly!

The next step in the selection process is the interview. Some agencies may wish to use a two-step process beginning with an initial screening interview, possibly at the time of application, and followed by an in-depth interview designed to gain more detailed information. The interview is basically a communications process with a purposed exchange of information between the potential volunteer and the agency's representative. It is here that the interviewer has the opportunity to appraise the qualifications, motivation, and interest of the volunteer while, at the same time, the volunteer has a chance to seek answers to his questions

about the work, the agency, and the program. The interview may be handled by one person or a board comprised of representatives from other volunteers and the staff of the agency. It may be free flowing or designed to create tension and stress in the candidate. The interviewer should choose his method and atmosphere carefully to match the requirements of the job and the interviewee. It is at this point in the selection process that a decision is usually made to place the volunteer, reject him, or refer him to another program.

The selection and the recruitment process are necessary in order to match the needs, qualities, and desires of the volunteer with the psychological and situational variables associated with the volunteer position. If this procedure is completed efficiently, many problems may be avoided in the future.

Several articles have been selected or specifically written for this section to give the reader a better understanding of and ability to use the techniques of job analysis, recruitment and selection. Huberman, an industrial psychologist, begins by relating to us some serious faults and biases inherent in the selection process. Coinner, drawing on 27 years of experience in volunteer recruitment and placement, discusses a variety of sources of volunteers in communities and suggests alternative methods of recruiting them. The final three articles in the section concern themselves with aspects of the selection interview process and present many useful guidelines.

SOME THOUGHTS ON PERSONNEL SELECTION, AND THE SELECTION INTERVIEW*

John Huberman

All administrators of volunteer programs want to know how to make
the best use of the interview material. In other words: what do we look
for in the interviewee? What kind of questions do we ask? How do we
evaluate what we hear and what we observe?

While these are entirely legitimate questions, I must prepare you
for a disappointment: neither I, nor anyone else could supply the relevant
answers for your particular setting. The best we can hope to achieve is
to start setting up a framework within which these questions might become
answerable in perhaps 1 - 2 years from now. Even the framework may have to
change as you go along.

The selection interview may be categorized as just one particular tool
which may - or may not - be part of the selection procedure. One can also
add that in many cases the interview has proven not only not helpful in
predicting future performance, but has actually reduced the reliability of
predictions based on other sources. For instance, if you want to predict
success at first year university level, you will be more often correct if
you consider only average grade-level during last two years of high-school
without interviewing the student, than if you predict his success knowing
his high school grades and having interviewed him. On the other hand,
interview results of management candidates under certain conditions have
demonstrably contributed to the goodness of the prediction of their success
or failure. I am mentioning these facts to emphasize that there is no
magic set of questions which an interviewer should ask an applicant and
expect that if he has the proper technique, prediction of success or failure
will be easy. Things are just not that simple. Neither can we assume that
the interview will be the crucial technique which leads to better prediction.

Some Crucial Considerations

Before saying anything more about the interview, let me make some
*Written especially for this collection

- hopefully relevant - observations about the selection process in general. After all, as we have said, the interview is only one part of the selection process.

Regarding the selection process, let us first realize that selection is only a meaningful concept if there are more applicants than positions to be filled. Does this situation always prevail in recruiting volunteers?

Second, whatever the refinement of one or more selection devices, the more applicants we have to choose from, the more likely any of these devices is to be successful (everything else being equal).

Thus, we have learned one lesson. If we have very few applicants, then the first step we should take is to attempt to increase their number, rather than to work on the refinement of our selection instruments. The latter may be more costly and difficult than obtaining more applicants. Or it may not.

Third, how many applicants are actually "successful" now? (We will later discuss the difficulty of establishing criteria of "success" in a given setting.) If we review our files and find that, say 85 or 90 per cent of our volunteers are now "successful", one may see that no practical selection device, however refined, is likely to increase the percentage appreciably. On the other hand, if only 35 - 40% are now "successful" then we should certainly spend some time and effort on sharpening our selection tools. In other words, if most applicants are able to do the job for which they apply and in fact carry it out satisfactorily, then why worry about selection by interview, or by other means?!

Let us examine what has just been said in somewhat greater detail. If you review your files, you may find that most applicants for one or two particular assignments tend to be all, or practically all satisfactory, whereas the success ratio is low for another type of assignment. If such is the case, then obviously one should concentrate one's effort on finding the answers to improved selection methods for the "hard" assignment, and forget worrying about the one where nearly everyone works out well now. I would expect that this condition actually prevails to a remarkable degree in volunteer settings. For example, it would be surprising if clerical

volunteers for a once-a-week assignment did not tend to be highly "successful" - after all only people skilled in typing would apply, and there must be some motivation for their applications. When it comes to caring for disturbed children, one would conversely expect to find less success. But only a statistical review of actual files could provide the real answer.

Fourth, whatever selection procedure, or combination of procedures we use, we will always obtain a certain proportion of false positives and false negatives. False positives are the ones whom we accept when we shouldn't, because they will later turn out to be non-successful. False negatives are the ones we reject wrongly, because if we had accepted them, they would succeed. Now false negatives and false positives do not necessarily, or even usually, represent the same "loss". For higher level positions in any organization, a "false positive" may cause a great deal of uproar and distress. In industry the appointment of the wrong president may bankrupt the company; at the universities, he may provoke unnecessary student riots, or may be unable to deal with them firmly if they occur. Among Air Force personnel in peacetime, or in astronaut selection, the acceptance of the "wrong" person can lead to his death and the destruction of millions of dollars worth of equipment. Under any of these conditions it is obviously much wiser to err on the side of caution, that is, reject anyone about whom we have the least amount of doubt. This creates (potentially) a sizeable number of "false negatives", but the cost of these would seem to be less than that of accepting even one false positive.

If on the other hand the position is such that a "failure" can cause only minimal trouble and the unsuccessful person can also be relatively easily replaced, then too much effort put into the selection effort would seem quite misplaced.

In deciding which way to go, it is very useful to attempt to put dollar values on the cost of 1) obtaining applicants and placing them, and 2) also on the cost of "failure". Again, these ratios may be different for various jobs and agencies. However, only if we have this information, as well as the present success/failure ratio do we really possess rational data upon which to base the decision to concentrate more or less on selection, in

which agency, or in which particular occupation for which we process volunteers.

So much, then, for general considerations regarding selection. In what has been said so far, the word "success" and "failure" were frequently used, as if this would be a simple and obvious concept. But is it?

What do we mean by Success and Failure?

At the extremes, the concept is well defined. If someone offers her services, carries them out to everyone's satisfaction for 20 years, never misses an appointment except when desperately sick - well, few would argue that this is not a "successful" volunteer. Obversely, if a person offers to do two hours of typing Saturday morning and fails to show up without preliminary warning, or some very good excuse afterwards, we might reasonably designate her as a "failure". But probably most cases are not that extreme and this is where the difficulty enters. What can we, and whould we, reasonably expect of volunteers to categorize them as "successful"? This is really a very thorny question but one with which you must come to grips, preferably before you start worrying about refining selection procedures. A useful start can be made through the appointment of a committee "to establish criteria for success vs. failure in selection". Unless such criteria are established you will be minus a yardstick with which to measure the success or failure of your own efforts at "better selection". This suggestion is made in full cognizance of the inherent difficulties.   In industry, the criterion can often be established without too much difficulty. On the production floor of a relatively simple industry, "success" might be reasonably defined as staying with the industry for at least two years at not more than say, three absences per year, and not getting involved in disciplinary procedures or dismissal for inability to perform the job. All these are relatively simple, clearcut criteria. They will vary from industry to industry, position to position, but not too much difficulty will be experienced in setting them up, simply because industry is a full-time occupation for most people in it.

It seems to me that volunteer recruiters have a much more difficult problem, if for no other reason than because they are recruiting people

largely for part-time work. If a person has full-time work, one expects him or her to set up a schedule of living to conform to the expectations of the job, and most people do it, or they are obvious "failures" as far as their employer is concerned.

When one considers a "regular" volunteer job, say 9-11 every Saturday morning for three months, it is again not too difficult to set up acceptable standards of attendance, and so we have something measurable.

But what about the volunteers who are "on call"? After all, nobody can be expected to sit at home waiting to be called in perhaps once a week, or whenever the agency needs him. If they are not at home when called, or if they are at home but inform us that they have made other plans, do we rate them as a "failure"?

I don't pretend to know how adequate standards should be set up for part-time volunteers. I am bringing it up here in the hope that a reason-able solution can be found. Perhaps it may be necessary also to establish different criteria of "success" or "failure" for different volunteer occupations, though this approach would introduce further complications into the goal-setting process.

What may be suggested, however, is that before one expends a great deal of effort to "improve" selection procedures, one should establish a set of standards so that at any time one can know how close he is to achieving them. The early semanticist Wendell Johnson pointed to the danger inherent in chasing undefined, or ill-defined goals such as vague notions of "success". He suggested that many neurotic conditions have their roots in the feelings of inadequacy and impotence which necessarily crop up when we have no yardstick with which to measure our progress toward a goal - it is like trying to chase a rainbow which recedes the more you are running in its direction.

Well - let's take a great leap forward and assume that we have set ourselves realistic goals so we will then know whether (and to what extent) more sophisticated selection procedures pay off. What next?

The Job Description

The first step in establishing a selection procedure would be that of preparing a job description. If there is already at least one person doing the particular work for which we want to obtain new volunteers, a good method consists in asking the present incumbent to keep track for one or two days of all the things he does and to list them, including the time which each activity tends to take. This initial list of activities should then be checked out with the agency supervisor and the necessary corrections and/or additions made. As a minimum, the job description should indicate the hours of work, frequency of required attendance, the principal elements of the work itself (that is: typing, answering telephone, meeting people or not, contact with adults and/or children, need for car, etc.). If there is no present incumbent, an interview with the supervisor of the agency becomes necessary.

The Job Specification

Only after the job description is completed do we go on to the next step: specification of personal attributes of the future volunteer. This list should include specific skills which seem required, such as typing, driving, entertaining children, ability to mix with certain groups, age and education (if these factors are deemed relevant), appearance, pleasant telephone voice, etc. Note that while some of these attributes (such as typing skill for a typist job) are not open to question, others may be less relevant to the proper performance of the work than you, or the agency supervisor, may think. Many businesses today set quite unreasonable minimum standards of education for a large variety of jobs. Obviously, the more stringent the specifications, the more difficult it will be to fill the vacancy. Hence it is a good idea to consult the files rather than to apply guesswork in setting up the specifications. In other words: if the agency supervisor specifies a high school diploma as a minimum standard, it is quite appropriate to ask what this judgment is based on. Did he have a person in this job who "failed" because of inadequate education? And conversely: has there never been someone performing this job satisfactorily who had less that grade 12?

The Application Blank

The next step consists of developing suitable application forms - out of respect for the applicants who are after all not "applying" but offering their services free of charge, we had better call them "Biographical Summary" forms. Perhaps you need only one form to cover all positions, or it may be advisable to develop two or more, one perhaps for clerical tasks and one for other positions which involve dealing with people.

These forms should be developed from the specification lists; in other words, they should contain questions regarding the areas where skills or personal attributes are required.

In industry, we usually also ask for business references, and at times, for character references on these forms. It is up to you to decide whether in the volunteer setting this is not asking for too much - it may well be. Still: any time I have made an error in hiring (and I have made some real errors, in spite of Rorschach tests and other sophisticated selection instruments), I usually would have avoided it had I called one more previous employer and asked him some simple questions. If any volunteer handles money, a reference check is a must.

The next step in the proper industrial hiring procedure consists of asking the applicant to fill in the Biographical Summary form and then sending him away with the advice that he will be contacted by 'phone for an interview if and when an opening occurs, or is imminent. The purpose here is to give the personnel officer time to look over the application form carefully, decide whether the person seems potentially qualified and if so, check out his references. Again, you have to decide whether this might be too much of an imposition on a volunteer's time and patience. (By the way: if data from either the biographical summary, or from reference sources disqualify the person, he should be sent a note thanking him for his application but informing him that his qualifications do not appear consistent with the demands of the jobs. It is not fair to keep people hanging in mid-air, expecting us to call them when we have no intention of doing so.)

The Interview and the Weighted Application Blank

The next step in the screening procedure would now be the interview. I mentioned at the beginning of the paper, however, that quite a number of companies either have no interview at all with their prospective employees, or use it minimally - just to look the person over and see whether they have some major physical defect, and perhaps to give the employee whatever information he may desire about the company. Instead of relying on the interview for prediction of success, they have developed weighted application blanks and use these to decide whether to hire or not. Let me tell you how this system works. It can be made to work only where there is a reasonable turn-over and quite a number of similar jobs in the company.

The first step is to establish a criterion of success and failure. Let us say that "staying on the job for a year with no disciplinary incidents during this period" is decided upon as the criterion of success.

The company now develops a fairly extensive application form; for a period of perhaps two years they hire everyone who is not obviously unsuitable, and simply lock up the biographical summaries. At the end of the two year period the summaries are separated into two piles: those of hirees who by now are known to be "successes" and those who have turned out "failures". Now each item on the biographical summaries is checked to determine if there are significant differences between the group averages. For instance, it may be found that 80% of the "successes" were married, but only 50% of the "failures". So, as a first approximation, one would attach 8 points to being married, but only 5 points for not being married. Let's say that another difference emerges in regard to education level. Say that we find that 70% of the success cases had grade 12 or more education, but only 40% of the "failures" had achieved that educational level. So we give 7 points to grade 12 and over education, and 4 points to lesser schooling. Items where no significant differences occur are simply dropped. By this procedure the successful group tends to accumulate a larger number of points than the "failure" group. From this comparison, then, is developed a formula where various items of the biographical summary form are translated into weights, the

weights are simply added up and if the total exceeds a certain "cutting point", the individual is deemed to belong to the "success" group and hired; if it is below the cutting point, he is rejected.

Two remarks are in order. The development of weights is somewhat more complicated than here indicated but essentially the procedure is the same. The second remark refers to the "validation procedure" for the formula which has been developed. Initially, it was stated that after the two year period, all applications are put into two piles and the differences among items examined. In fact, only roughly half of each pile would be used to develop the weighting formula, and then the formula would be applied to the remaining halves of the piles to check whether the weighted application blank procedure predicts reasonably accurately the actual successes and failures of those in the second halves of the piles. Lastly, some statistical procedures called "significance tests" are applied to make doubly sure that we are not dealing simply with chance phenomena.

Years ago the development of a weighted application blank required a good deal of statistical work and some pretty tedious calculations. Today a computer can do the work in probably less than a minute. A computer can deal with as many as 80 items and "try them out" - that is, decide which should be part of the final formula, and with what weight. All that is needed is to punch the items in a coded form onto IBM cards and shove the lot into the computer!

We will now turn to the interview. Hopefully, before the interview we have looked over the application form and noted any points which are omitted. Regardless of how carefully an application form is constructed, you will find that at least one in three will not be filled out completely. The first purpose of the interview is then to obtain the data which should be on the application form.

The second purpose is to obtain information believed to be relevant to "success" but about which, for one reason or another, no question was asked on the application form.

Third, we may notice some information on the form which casts doubt that the applicant would be satisfied with the job; for instance, we may notice that he or she lives very far from the location of the agency. So we would ask whether this presents any problems. Or the applicant may have indicated that she has small children. How are they going to be looked after while she is at the agency?

Next one might ask why the applicant is interested in working with the particular agency that he or she has picked. If we note that (according to our best information about the particular agency) the conditions are different from the expectation of the prospective volunteer, we would want to bring this fact to the applicant's attention.

If the volunteer has previous volunteering experiences, we may well ask which of these was enjoyed most and why; and which she liked least, and why. This information may help us to predict whether the volunteer will find work in the present setting congenial or not.

If there is any chance that the job may develop into a permanent, paid one, we should also enquire whether in such case the applicant would be interested in being considered. If such is the case, more elaborate review of all previous employment is advisable. In regard to each, we would typically ask minimally the following questions:

1. How did you feel about this position?
2. What if anything did you particularly like about it?
3. What did you dislike about it?
4. What led to your leaving it?
5. Why did you leave just then?

Usually, one will find a pattern emerging - a pattern of likes and dislikes, and a pattern of reaction. Once such a pattern is discovered, the best prediction is that it will carry on relatively unchanged. Things are really as simple as this: If I notice that a person's average job tenure was 2 years, I would predict (and be very nearly correct) that his next job tenure will be 2 years - approximately - regardless of what he tells me about the reasons for the length of tenures, unless the termination of employment was completely beyond his control (for instance

if several companies he worked for uniformly suspended operations). It
is suggested that, while we continue to ask the questions which were
listed earlier, the answers should normally be given less weight in
predicting the future behavior of the applicant than the data derived
simply from a review of the biographical summary form. Our predictions
based on these "facts" will at times turn out wrong, but they are likely
to be right more often than if we base our predictions on the reasons
supplied by the interviewee. Still, we should try somehow to integrate
the factual and the "verbal" information - after all, both come from the
same person and, if we dig carefully enough, we should be able, in most
cases, to form a picture which is not contradictory. And of course, when
we deal with paid, hopefully permanent positions, we must not forget to
check with previous employers.

All this implies that a lot of homework needs to be done before one
can meaningfully decide on selection policy and the best methods.

We can now summarize the major points which have been mentioned.
1. What to look for in the selection process depends on:
   a) the type of position to be filled, based on job description
   b) knowledge of reasons for "failures" in the past
   c) availability of definite criteria for "success" and "failure"

2. Whether to invest time and money in attempts at improving the
   selection process depends on:
   a) present success/failure ratio; if there are few failures
      now, why worry?
   b) availability (or the potential to make available) surplus
      applicants - the larger the pool, the longer selection takes
      but the better chance there is of finding the best applicant.
   c) assumed "loss" involved in accepting "false positives" - more
      serious the assumed loss, or damage, or nuisance of making
      the wrong selection, the more refined the selection pro-
      cedures should be. If the loss is minimal - again: why worry?

3. The interview is only one, and not necessarily the most
    "potent" selection device. Much can be said in favor of
    developing weighted application forms, and carrying out
    reference checks regarding attendance habits, reliability,
    ability of the applicant to get along with peers and superiors,
    etc.

4. In the interview (and from the application form) we attempt
    to discover recurring behavior patterns. Once such patterns
    have been discovered, the best prediction is that they will be
    maintained. (The prediction will fail at times because some
    drastic changes may have occurred in the applicant's way of life
    (e.g. marriage, divorce, etc.) but it will be more often right
    than wrong.) Actual behaviors (e.g. short employment periods)
    are to be focussed on, but how the applicant explains them should
    normally be given much less weight in formulating our predictions.

5. We also use the interview to fill in gaps in the application form
    and to clarify any doubts about the suitability of the applicant
    for the position, and vice-versa. A simple device has been found
    to be very effective is to hand the job description to the
    applicant, ask her to read it over and tell us whether it sounds
    attractive.

Consideration and application of these selection principles can do
much to assure a suitable and well qualified supply of volunteers for your
program.

MEANS AND SOURCES FOR RECRUITING VOLUNTEERS*

Jacqueline Coinner

When planning for the recruitment of volunteers, the name of the game
is 'imagination'. We must be willing to try new methods and approaches
for finding and interesting people in the jobs that need to be done. To
do this, we must change, experiment and take risks.

Too often we think of the tried and true resources of volunteers such
as clubs, church groups and women 'in the home'. In the past, most of our
recruits were obtained from these sources, and interestingly enough, this
is the group that the general public continues to view as doing most of the
volunteer work. But not any more. Today we find that the demand for
people's leisure or free time is highly competitive. There are many, many
things that people can do that are interesting, challenging, and that will
bring them together with people in social and learning situations. More-
over, today's cost inflation has sent many of those 'in the home', as well
as many retired people back to work. These facts, plus the fantastic
development in the opportunities and variety of volunteer jobs, have created
greater competition for volunteers. This leads us into the new sources and
resources of volunteers and that's really great, as volunteering or citizen
participation - call it what you like - is really for everybody. Everyone
is a potential volunteer and will volunteer in some way. All we need to do
is to ask them.

Determining your Requirements

In planning recruitment we must first determine goals or objectives.
Thought and discussion must take place prior to the involvement of volunteers.
Observe and talk with those involved in your community service program
concerning ways in which volunteers will contribute. Solicit opinions on
the most desirable personality characteristics of the people that are
needed. Talk to the clients or patients, the board, committee members and
the staff. By doing this, you will learn a great deal about attitudes and
feelings concerning volunteers. Your enthusiasm and positive approach will

*Written especially for this collection

help set the tone of the volunteer program. You will also be discovering where and how volunteers can become involved and how they can improve services for people. From the information gathered write the volunteer **job** descriptions. Have a clear idea of what you expect of people before you start to plan recruitment. One must also keep in mind that the job descriptions will need to be re-assessed by all concerned when the volunteer has been in the job for a month or so.

Developing a Recruiting Plan

When you know what you need, start planning. When it comes to planning two heads are better than one and three or four are even better. Form a small task force committee, one that is going to be action oriented. Its job will be to create a recruitment plan and to carry it out. Recruiting these resource people is good experience and will give you an idea of the skills and interests that are close at hand. Staff and volunteers working together in a community program must learn to share and form a partnership of service. You will be working with all concerned to interpret and establish this partnership in orientation and training sessions. What better way to understand how to share than by working with a small committee. When you are coordinating a volunteer program you are in fact running a personnel office. It is impossible to have all the skills needed to do the job. Start connecting with your community resources and recruit people with the skills needed to help get the job done.

A recruitment committee might include people with some of the following skills and experience: volunteers who know the service, someone with writing or public relations experience, a member of the staff - preferably one who is a member of the union (if you're unionized), a member of the board, a student counsellor or teacher from your local school, community college, or university, a working person who knows about flexible hours and the short work week, someone from a retirement group and so on. There are many possibilities. When you ask people to join this committee tell them why you especially need them and for how long you'll need them. By doing this you are giving them an understanding of the job to be done and a time commitment. When the committee is ready to go, plan an orientation and an information sharing meeting. At this meeting set out objectives which are

clear and easy to understand. Help the group plan recruitment and set
the tasks that each person will do prior to the next meeting. The
committee should appoint a chairman and this appointment could be for
six months or a year. Be optimistic and enthusiastic in your work with
the group - this will arouse a sense of obligation and interest in the
job to be done.

Now that you have a clear understanding of the when, where, what
and why of your volunteer program and have the resources to help with the
recruitment of the volunteers, it's time to consider sources of volunteers
and how to attract and interest the people you need. Recruiting should be
a process rather than a problem; approach it with an open mind and with
enthusiasm.

The Recruiting Process

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┌──────────────┐     ┌──────────────┐     ┌──────────────┐     ┌──────────────┐
│ Determine Job│ ──▶ │ Identify     │ ──▶ │ Develop      │ ──▶ │ Introduction,│
│ Requirements │     │ Sources of   │     │ Recruiting   │     │ Orientation, │
│              │     │ Volunteers   │     │ Strategy     │     │ Training     │
└──────────────┘     └──────────────┘     └──────────────┘     └──────────────┘
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A Satisfied,
Productive Volunteer
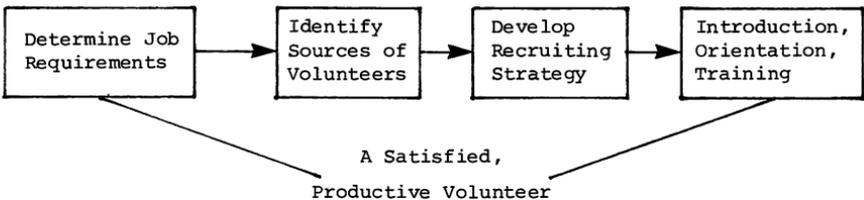
Flexible and Creative Approaches

There are changes taking place in business and industry which offer
new resources and opportunities for recruitment. Short work weeks and
flexible working hours are giving people larger packages of free time.
We are really missing the boat if we do not reach this new resource and
tell people of community service volunteer needs. People volunteer to
learn and grow, to add some variety and a new dimension to their lives,
and to feel a part of and to improve their community. What better
opportunity for variety from a repetitious office or assembly-line job
than helping with a recreation program, tutoring or visiting someone who
can't get out. With flexible working hours people can be available when
needed for after-school programs with kids or for institutional programs.
For the jobs that must be done mornings or early afternoons consider
approaching people on short work weeks and shift workers. Be flexible,

adapt the volunteer program to those who are working rotating shifts. People know their work schedules a month in advance and are willing to make a commitment on that basis. Some firms will release staff for community work. They recognize that they are going to have a happier employee and will be making another positive investment in the community. Contact and make an appointment to see the personnel director and the general manager. Talk with them about the community service you represent and your volunteer needs. Request a story in the company newsletter and space on the staff bulletin board. Leave lists of volunteer opportunities, application forms and brochures with the company representatives. Open up easy lines of communication, so that they will know how to put interested staff in touch with your organization. Many large companies have appointed a community service coordinator whose job is to research community volunteer needs and have this information available for employee groups or individuals.

Ask to speak with the union or labour representatives in the firm and supply them with similar information and channels of communication. Up-date and review this information seasonally and as your volunteer needs change. Many unions are establishing community service departments and are interested in community problems and needs. The training received in labour organizations prepares people for action and advocacy roles in the community.

Organized groups are a resource with unlimited possibilities. Service clubs, lodges, church groups, pensioners, students, and professional groups will work together on a cause or encourage their members to work individually to meet community needs. Keep in mind that quite often people will seek variety in their volunteer jobs and therefore do not want to be confined to the type of work for which they have been trained or educated. A practicing or retired teacher may or may not wish to tutor or work with children; a postman may prefer a sit-down job; a bus driver may choose something physically active. A retired gentleman might choose to work with a floor hockey team as it was a sport he enjoyed when he was young. Try not to "slot" people when considering potentially new areas of recruitment.

Low income groups are organizing themselves in advocacy volunteer roles for better housing and improved training opportunities. They are realizing that things can be changed and are increasingly unwilling to

accept things the way they are. They are becoming involved with decision making in their communities and are willing to make a commitment to a volunteer job. Many of them, as present or past recipients of services, will question "why" things are done a certain way and will bring a fresh outlook into many services. Out-of-pocket expenses such as bus fare, lunch, coffee or baby-sitting expenses, must often be provided to enable this group and other limited income groups to volunteer.

Students are not a new resource of volunteers, but they require a new approach when you are planning for their recruitment. Only a few years ago we organized spring recruitment drives for teen summer volunteers. At that time, students were willing to give large blocks of time to summer volunteer jobs, and a few still do. Over the past few years an increasing number of younger students have been able to find paying jobs. Now we find ourselves competing for some of their limited leisure time. Many schools have citizenship and community recreation classes with student volunteer service as part of the course content. Some have class time allocated to volunteer work. A contact with the community recreation teachers and school counsellors will help you to get started. Student volunteers are enthusiastic, reliable and eager to learn. Many schools have future teachers and nurses clubs and members are looking for opportunities to get practical experience.

Community colleges and universities can be amazingly fruitful resource areas for the recruitment of community service workers. How to make contact and where to start may present a problem. Pick up the phone and talk to some student counsellors. Tell them about your organization and your volunteer needs. Ask them to help you with recruitment and to suggest contact people in courses or faculties related to your area of community service. Many instructors will encourage students to get out and get some practical experience along with the theory they are required to learn.

In many instances, volunteer activity may be designed into course requirements through group projects or field work. The Vancouver Volunteer Bureau's development of a Coordinators' Training Program, its evaluation and a supporting readings book were all prepared by two commerce classes at

the University of British Columbia as class projects. We feel that this is
a good example of 'connecting' with the resources that our community holds.
University and college students are usually available from October through
April. Their study schedules present some re-organization problems for you;
however, they are worth any minor inconvenience and are reliable and
dedicated workers. Student information centres and campus newspapers will
also publicize your volunteer needs.

The retired people in a community should be one of the important new
resources of volunteers. They are interested in doing for and with others,
rather than just having things done for them. Community service is one way
retirees can continue to contribute and offer their years of experience and
knowledge. They are becoming organized and have their own newspapers and
retirement clubs. Your recruitment program and the job opportunities you
offer should be as well developed for the retired as for any other age
group. If volunteering has been part of the pattern of one's life, it's
easy to stay involved. But people who have not been volunteers before
retiring do not automatically feel the urge to start. Occasionally you
will find it difficult to convince them of how much they have to give.
They may be tuning out or turning off. If so, this is a real loss to
their community and a challenge to your recruitment committee.

An increasing number of businesses, labour organizations and adult
education contres are developing planned retirement programs. Through
your business contacts, make enquiries in your community about these
programs. Then approach the organizations and request permission for a
speaker from your agency to be a part of the program. Community service
is a good alternative for the newly retired when considering creative use
of leisure time.

Many of the homebound institutionalized and the disabled are potential
volunteers. It requires a certain amount of ingenuity to work out the
logistics of bringing them to the job or taking the job to them. If they
have a telephone they can be part of the telephone tree and keep in touch
with others who are homebound, they can dispatch and coordinate drivers, or
keep membership or volunteer files up to date. A disabled person coming
back into an institution to do a volunteer job can help overcome the "you

don't know what it's like" problems of rehabilitation. The unique contributions of those who in real life have experienced the problems and situations that they are now helping with constitute one of the most valuable volunteer services. Many of those who have been through drug addiction, alcoholism, jail, probation, divorce, psychiatric treatment, bankruptcy, mastectomy, cancer treatment or whatever, are willing to help those who are in the middle of these problems.

Today people are mobile in their paying jobs and are also looking for variety and advancement in their community service work. Be aware of other volunteer programs in your community and get to know the people who are doing the organizing. Learn to share resource information and volunteers with them. Refer potential volunteers when they are not needed or not interested in the jobs you have to offer. Also share the experienced volunteers who have given you months and years of service, but are ready for a change. Better they remain productive in a new setting than become lost to the volunteer community. If your community has a Volunteer Bureau or Action Centre, you can count on them for support and information. They will have an overview of the volunteer community that will be helpful. Register your volunteer jobs with them and you can count on them to supplement the work you and the recruitment committee are doing.

When thinking of potential sources of volunteers we usually think of individuals or groups. Couples are becoming increasingly evident on the volunteer scene. Young couples and older couples are interested in doing community work together. In the middle age group you'll find families visiting other families with nursing and boarding home programs. Why not suggest that people work as a team? Volunteers quite often are paired-up in museums and art gallery docent programs or in recreation and coaching activities. We will turn more people 'on' to volunteering by suggesting jobs that can be done by couples, families and teams and advertising these in the community. It will encourage those who have thought about it but have been too shy to try it on their own. It has unlimited recruitment possibilities.

We still live in an age in which people think of volunteering as a "female, white-collar" task. We talk about equal opportunity in volunteer

work, but are quite narrow when we are planning recruitment and developing volunteer jobs. Why don't more men volunteer? Why don't we plan for recruitment of the hard-hat trades, truck drivers, firemen, policemen, or dock workers? They are hard to reach, but they can be reached through personnel offices and labour organizations and are more likely to respond to personal recruitment than to the usual publicity methods. We will have to go to them. Many of them do not see themselves working as volunteers for we have never gone after them (in a well-planned systematic way). It will take effort and time to change our recruitment habits and people's attitudes towards who does the volunteer work in the community.

In 1963, 35.6% of the Canadian population were members of the work force. By 1973, 42.9% were working and this percentage will continue to climb. We must go to the market place and compete for some portion of people's leisure time. Careful and creative attention to all phases of the recruiting process can do much to enhance our effectiveness in obtaining appropriate numbers of volunteers who are prepared to contribute their unique talents and skills in voluntarism.

A HARD LOOK AT THE SELECTION INTERVIEW*

Vernon R. Taylor

The interview is by far the most commonly used selection device. It is also the most expensive generally used. Some ten or fifteen million Americans are interviewed for jobs each year, and the cost is beyond calculation. It includes not only the immediate costs but such intangibles as often negative impact on the employers' public image and the cost of poor hiring decisions resulting from the interviews.

The interview is typically the only means of selection in private industry. We in the public service have prided ourselves that we use a variety of selection methods, usually in combination, and therefore are able to do a better job of selection than private industry. This may have been the case historically, but some of us have been distressed at the recent tendency to rely entirely on interviews when the labor supply gets short, when a list is urgently needed, or when influential groups say they dislike taking written tests. We need to examine the value of this instrument on which we are tending to rely so heavily, and which will so greatly influence the quality of our work force in the future.

The reliance on interviewing and the huge outlay of time and money expended on it suggest that the employment interview must be a proven and critical part of our government and industrial complex. We know that the major cost of most products and services is the cost of labor. We know that on many jobs a good worker will produce five times as much as do some other workers. We know of the millions and billions of dollars that go into the design of such prosaic things as fabrics, highways, and filing systems. Surely we must have proven the value of the interview, which is used to select nearly all of the employees who design and produce these things. This must be true at least in public employment, where procedures and expenditures are subject to review by everyone in the community. This is not the case.

There has been little research. What research has been conducted

suggests that most employment interviews are largely a waste of time.
There is very little evidence that any interviewer can do much better than
chance in predicting which of several likely applicants would be more
successful at a particular job.

For some reason we all seem to feel that we can make accurate pre-
dictions of this kind, but the scant evidence says that we cannot. We
have only our belief to defend our interviewing.

What are the Facts?

Let us look at the facts. They have been summarized by Eugene C.
Mayfield in Personnel Psychology, Volume 17, No. 3, Autumn, 1964. He
reviewed the research reports published on employment interviewing since
1915 to see what generalizations could be made. He made two generalizations
that were made by previous investigators:

1. The reliability of interview ratings in general is low. The
   reliability of the kinds of interviews most commonly conducted is
   "extremely low." When applicants are interviewed separately by
   different interviewers, there is very little agreement among their
   evaluations. This is true even when they obtain the same
   information.
2. The validity of interviews is usually low, even when the reli-
   ability is acceptable. By definition this means that interviews
   are seldom successful in predicting job performance. He even
   found that when valid written tests were given prior to the
   interview and the interviewer knew the results, his predictions
   were generally no better than those made by the test alone, and
   frequently worse.

If Mayfield had stopped here, this would have been only another "So
what?" report. He did not. After noting that the research was sparse,
often taken from a field other than employment, and seldom verified by
other researchers, he went on to identify factors that were present when
some evidence of validity was found. He found research support for the
following:

1. When interviews are unstructured: (a) The interviewers do more

talking than do the interviewees; (b) The interviewers make their decisions early in the interview, with minimum information; (c) The interviewers get biographical data adequately but fail particularly to understand the applicants' attitude; (d) The reliability is almost never satisfactory.

2. When the interviews are structured, these tendencies are reversed: the applicants do more talking, the decisions are made after more information has been obtained, more is learned about attitudes and other nonbiographical factors, and reliability tends to be higher.

3. When panel interviews are used, all interviewers get the same information, they usually get more information, and validity is higher than when single interviewers are used.

4. There are differing techniques of interviewing, some better than others. The technique used affects the outcome of an interview. The techniques can be taught.

5. The interview tends to be a search for unfavorable information, and the final evaluation is more closely related to unfavorable information obtained than to favorable information obtained.

Those of us who have attempted to validate our own interviews have found very little that is inconsistent with Mayfield's findings. The few cases of really significant validity known to the writer have all been in promotional examinations, when the interviewers were furnished with reports from supervisors about the applicants' past job performance. Mayfield did not specifically relate this kind of information to interview validity, but did comment that the interviews in one experiment in which voluminous information was furnished were "quite valid in predicting success."

Another viewpoint is of interest in this connection. Although most government jurisdictions use interviews extensively, the U.S. Civil Service Commission is an exception. The reasons have been explained by Dr. Albert Maslow, Chief, Personnel Measurement Research and Development Center. On the basis of his experience, he regards an interview almost solely as a means of obtaining and recording or verifying information about an applicant (and providing information to him). Once that information has been recorded, he feels that it can be better evaluated through an objective review of the interview record, in relation to other appraisal data, by

another person rather than by an interviewer whose judgments will be influenced by his personal feelings and biases. He seems to be saying that factually reported observations and information can lead to valid predictions, but the predictions are most valid when the emotions and attitudes of interviewers are not directly interposed in the interview situation.

The idea that facts make the difference has been stated most clearly by professional recruiters (headhunters) in describing their methods. According to them the important thing in selecting executives is to find men with past records that indicate that they have done the kind of thing that the prospective employer wants done. Among these prospects they seek the one whose "chemical reaction" with his prospective employer is good. By "chemical reaction" they mean finding a common background and common views as judged in an interview, so the employer will have confidence in the applicant. The recruiters judge competence on the basis of the record and use an interview to provide for a choice from among equally qualified prospects. The interview provides an opportunity for the employer to learn which prospect most resembles himself in background, ideas, motivation, etc., and will therefore be most pleasing to him.

What Should we do About it?

Certain very sound admonitions about interviewing have been repeated time and again in the literature. Their value can hardly be questioned.

1. An interviewer must know the duties of the job he is trying to fill. More important, he must know what specific aptitudes, knowledge, skills, or other attributes are needed to perform these tasks. The best applicant may be one who has the aptitudes and abilities to learn and who is motivated to succeed, rather than one with a year of similar experience. The interviewer must be able to zero in on the critical requirements rather than only make global or mechanical judgments.

2. See that the applicant is made welcome and is treated with dignity by everyone he meets. Interview him in privacy and in comfortable surroundings, without interruptions.

3. Interviewers tend to be concerned with the questions they have in mind and do not give the applicant enough opportunity to talk or

to ask questions. Unsolicited remarks by the applicant are sometimes the most valuable information obtained in an interview. They are generally made in response to an open end question such as "Tell me about . . . ."

4. If a job offer may be made during the interview or at a later time without further contact with the applicant, the interviewer must give information in addition to obtaining information. What is the job really like? What are the working conditions, the disadvantages, the further prospects? Why is the job vacant? Without this information the applicant may become only a turnover statistic.

5. An applicant is entitled to fair play over the outcome of the interview. He is entitled to know what his chances are if they have already been determined. It is unfair to let him leave an interview thinking he has been successful if an adverse decision has already been made or is likely to be made. Any serious questions the interviewer has about the applicant's qualifications can be discussed in a constructive and friendly manner.

In addition to these common admonitions, we must add the others which are dictated by research but which have seldom been stated as clearly as by Mayfield:

6. Interviews should be structured. Structuring results in higher reliability and validity by obtaining more information from applicants as well as more uniform information. There are two common types of structure.

The first requires that interviewers ask certain prepared questions of each applicant. This is a common method in personnel systems developed by consulting firms for use in a wide variety of industries or government jurisdictions. An interpretation and method of evaluation is usually given for each kind of answer to each question. This method results in good reliability because uniform information is obtained, and the information is uniformly evaluated. This advantage can be gained by a relatively unskilled interviewer, although the interview tends to be mechanical and stilted. In addition, this produces a tendency to use leading questions - questions to which the desired answers are apparent, with a resulting loss of validity.

The same information might often be obtained by questionnaire.

The other common method of structuring requires that the interviewers themselves answer certain questions about each applicant without prescribing how they shall obtain the information. This usually involves use of a factor rating scale on which the interviewers check the degree to which each applicant possesses predetermined abilities and traits. Sometimes a specialized rating scale is developed for a given job or class of jobs. More often a single generalized set of factors is developed. When the latter is done, the interviewers usually need a statement of the factors critical to the job in question to aid in evaluating and weighting the information obtained.

This method results in a more informal and friendly interview, it utilizes open end questions which produce more and better information, and it tends to keep the interviewer quiet and the applicant talking. The additional information obtained results in a more valid evaluation if the interviewer is sufficiently skilled. It obviously requires a higher degree of skill than does a set of prepared questions.

One problem encountered in using a factor rating sheet is the occasional interviewer who does not feel that his interviewing needs the improvement afforded by this kind of structuring. He conducts an unstructured interview and makes a global evaluation. Then he meets the requirements by checking factors so as to justify his rating. His interview was subject to the weaknesses of any other unstructured interview.

7. Interviews should be conducted by a panel whenever possible. Experience indicates that a panel of three interviewers is most effective. When three interviewers work together as a team they assist each other in getting the facts and in following up leads, getting more complete information than would any one of them. Their post-interview discussions of applicant behavior and qualifications result in better clarification of the standards, better interpretation of the information obtained, the intrusion of fewer biases, and more valid evaluation than could be achieved by one of them alone.

8. Interviewers should be trained. It is clear that there are
    different methods of questioning and of evaluating the resulting
    information. Some of these methods are better than others, and
    some of them are appropriate to one situation but not to another.
    None of these techniques are known and practiced intuitively. If
    the learning if left to chance, who knows what techniques will be
    learned? What employer can afford to leave this to chance?

How this training should be conducted cannot be covered here. How-
ever, the need for it can be demonstrated easily: record your next few
interviews on tape and play the tapes back. Do the same for interviews
conducted by others in your own organization. Your own comments as you
listen to the playbacks will be the best evidence of the need for training.

9. The interview tends to be a search for negative information, and
    that is its chief value. Any experienced interviewer will recall
    the certainty with which many applicants can be eliminated from
    the competition. On the other hand when several apparently
    qualified people are identified, it is much more difficult to rank
    them in order of merit, even in the minds of the interviewers.
    This is illustrated in panel interviews by the unanimity with
    which many applicants are rejected and the differences in opinion
    as to which of the qualified applicants are the best prospects.

The logical application of this principle is that if a comprehensive
written or performance test can be used to measure the required traits
there is no good reason for combining interview ratings with the test
scores. The interview should result only in pass or fail ratings.

This conclusion is a generalization and must be treated as such. It
becomes less true as dependable information about applicants' past perfor-
mance is available to the interviewers, but this is seldom the case in open
competitive selection. The generalization may not hold when the only real
job requirement is a willingness to work, as is the case in some unskilled
jobs. It is often not true when the applicants represent a wide range of
education, reading ability, or ethnic groups, and the tests are therefore
invalid. In recruiting for a class in such short supply that almost all
applicants must be hired, an interview as the entire examination is

consistent with this principle, since its effect is then only to pass or fail. These exceptions, however, do not justify many of the practices that are common today.

What else Should be Done?

The interview is here to stay. It is defended for all the wrong reasons, chiefly because everyone cherishes the belief that, contrary to the general rule, he himself is a peculiarly good judge of character. The real reason we must live with it is that we cannot live without it. It is almost impossible to fill a vacant position without some personal contact with the applicants, and that contact becomes some sort of interview. Instead of fighting it we should join it and make it more effective.

We can do much toward improving our interviews if we apply the knowledge we now have, much of which is summarized above. The most conspicuous and damaging failure at this time is the lack of training. There are few college courses in interviewing, and these are of dubious value. Few governmental or industrial organizations provide in-service training in interviewing. It appears that interviewing has not been recognized as a skill.

Mayfield and others have pointed out the need for a great deal of research. Why do we wait for someone else to do it? We who, by interview, continually make and break careers and make hiring decisions which can make or break major organizations should accept some responsibility. If we cannot carry on simple validation studies of differing techniques, we can at least interest the academic community in doing it for us.

Investigation of the kinds of factors described above is important, but is not the only kind. Whole new vistas might be opened up. One of these is the interpretation of nonverbal communication. Albert Mehrabian, in the September, 1968 issue of Psychology Today, points out that nonverbal communication discloses emotions, feelings, and preferences when words do not or when the words are to the contrary. He lists vocal but nonverbal media such as tones, stresses, inflections, and pauses in speech. In addition there are physical acts such as facial expressions, gestures, or bodily rigidity that say more than do the words spoken.

Margaret G. Herman, in a research bulletin issued in draft form by the Educational Testing Service (RB-68-9), has gone much farther. She has summarized the body of research in this field in a manner similar to Mayfield's summary. She finds evidence that people have stable or habitual kinds of behavior patterns which, if interpreted correctly, may tell a great deal about them. In addition, there are transient or changing behaviors that express strong feelings about what is being discussed at the moment and about the person with whom it is being discussed, without ever being put into words. A few of these that have been at least tentatively identified by research are:

1. Talking speed and the rate of eye blinking increase with an increase of stress and anxiety.

2. The voice becomes louder and higher pitched when the speaker is angry or fearful.

3. A lower pitched voice and a lounging bodily attitude indicate an unmobilized body, which is associated with indifference.

4. There is a significant change in voice intensity with a lie response as compared to preceeding responses.

5. The verbal content of responses to questions on one subject can be analyzed and compared with typical responses to other subjects. A person who sees only one side of a given problem, or discusses it in conventional terms or platitudes may have a similarly closed mind to most problems. One who typically examines and considers all aspects of a problem may demonstrate that trait in a sample problem posed in an interview.

The interpretation of such behavior, once stated, may seem to be self-evident, almost platitudinous. Recognition and utilization of them may be part of the conscious or unconscious art of all good interviewers, but so far they are little more than observations. How much talking speed is required to yield a measure of anxiety, and how does self-confidence relate to talking speed? What else in addition to a lie is frequently associated with a change in voice intensity? If stereotyped responses are made to familiar problems, would they also be made to new and unique situations?

We do not have good answers to any of these questions. If we could answer them with assurance, consider how much more we could learn about an applicant in an interview of the same length. And note that use of principles, such as these (if they are truly principles) could be taught to interviewers.

In Summary

The evidence shows that:

1. Most interviews contribute very little to good selection.
2. We have information now that would enable us to do a much better job of interviewing if we would only use it.
3. If interviewing were subjected to the research expended on far less important things, it might take its place with written and performance testing as a reliable and valid selection instrument.

PREPARING FOR THE PERSONNEL INTERVIEW*

Alec J. Lee

It is the polished, disciplined pianist whom we see performing a Mozart piano concerto flawlessly. We, the audience, observe only the concert. We rarely consider the amount of tireless effort and practice that went into the concert - until we try to play such a piece ourselves.

So it is with the interview. We generally consider the interview to be only the face-to-face interaction itself. It is when we do it ourselves that we realize the vast amount of preparation and forethought that must be carried out before we even meet the interviewee.

It is the aspect of preparing for the personnel interview which forms the focus of this paper.

To begin, the interview must be placed in its proper context, as follows:

General Purpose   ⎤
Specific Objectives   ⎥   Preparatory
Questions   ⎥   Stage
Organization   ⎦

Interview

Interpretation   ⎤   Post-Interview
Evaluation   ⎦   Stage
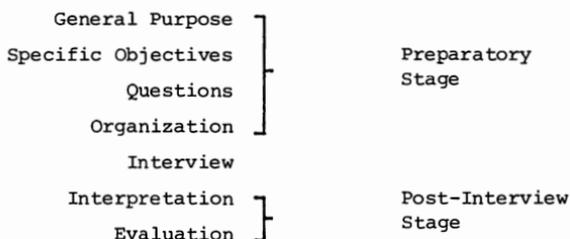
The interview process should be seen as a sequence of steps, some preceding and some following the interview itself. Each step is dependent on those before it, except, of course, for the General Purpose, the starting point.

General Purpose

This is where we begin, answering the question - why am I interviewing? There are a wide range of general purposes, depending upon the setting. However, for the personnel selection setting the general purpose is quite

*Used with permission of author

standard - to adequately and efficiently fill a particular position.

Very often we start interviewing with only the general purpose in mind. In this situation, it is usually only a person with a wealth of experience or with unusual ability (and sometimes luck) who performs well. Generally, we need to specify objectives.

Specific Objectives

Objectives within the personnel selection interview are examined from essentially two points of view: (1) information-gathering, and (2) information-giving.

Information-gathering objectives define for us the precise kinds of information that we must obtain to meet the purpose for which the interview is to be held. It is from these kinds of objectives that our questions are formed. Information-giving objectives, on the other hand, define for us the precise kinds of information which must be provided to the interviewee.

Information-gathering objectives

For most jobs (voluntary or non-voluntary) information-gathering objectives may be broken down into two basic groups: those relating to skills and knowledge and those relating to personality. Essentially, to be suitable for any position, an employee must have the necessary skills and knowledge, and must be able to get along with his fellow employees and his supervisor.

Usually, the determination of skill and knowledge requirements may be made by consulting the job description, and/or by having discussions with other relevant persons in the organization. Essentially, the question that is being answered here is - what must a person know and be able to do to perform the job adequately? Examples of skill-related and knowledge-related objectives include:

- must be able to type 45 w.p.m.
- must understand the situations and conditions
   facing elderly people.

- must be able to speak French fluently.
- must be able to write detailed research reports.

The determination of personality-related objectives may be made by filling in the blanks to such statements as - "My office would function best with someone who is _____", "I want someone who is _____" and "I don't want someone who is _____". The importance of adequately identifying these personality-related objectives cannot be overestimated. You and your present staff have to live with the person you hire. While the new volunteer of employee may have all the technical skills and knowledge, his/her inability to get along with present employees eventually will result in a dysfunctional work unit. Examples of these personality-related objectives include:

- must have an even disposition
- must not be too aggressive
- must be able to cope with stress
- must be honest

Once all the information-gathering objectives have been identified, the next step is to determine how to measure them. How do we determine whether or not the applicant possesses the relevant attributes? A variety of methods exists, a major one being the interview.[1]

After we have decided which information may be obtained in an interview, we then set out to determine what approaches and techniques to use. Some information may best be determined by asking questions. The presence of some characteristics may best be surmised by observing the interviewee's mode of dress or manner. The existence of still other attributes may be ascertained by listening to tone of voice or clarity of verbal expression.

However, we should always be careful when choosing an approach by asking ourselves - does this approach really tell us what we think it tells us? Very often, information about the interviewee may be interpreted in many ways. For example, does a shaky hand mean timidity, temporary nervousness or a physical quirk? Does a short answer to one

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[1]Other methods include tests (e.g. typing tests, clerical tests, personality tests, etc.) reference checks, medicals, etc.

of your questions mean an ability to be concise or an inability to
elaborate? The validity of your approaches and your interpretations, then,
should be carefully examined. Discussing these matters with some fellow
interviewers would likely be of much value.

In summary, then, this step in preparing for an interview enables
us to (a) state what it is that an applicant must have in order to be
successful on the job, and (b) determine whether or not the interviewee
possesses the relevant attributes. Once we have reached this stage, the
decision regarding whom to hire and whom to reject becomes much easier.
The interview, as a consequence, does not become a hit-or-miss situation,
as is so often the case.

One other payoff of careful preparation is that the interviewer
usually becomes more at ease and self-assured since he has a very good
idea of what to look for and what to do once information is obtained.

Information-giving objectives

Usually in a personnel selection interview, there are pieces of
information which we should tell each applicant. Such things as pay,
hours of work, location of work, a brief job description, a brief descrip-
tion of the organization, etc., are generally told to all interviewees.
Those who appear to be most likely candidates for the job are often given
even more detailed information.

It is important to remember that the information which an inter-
viewer gives a candidate profoundly influences the candidate's perception
of the job. Information which is too inflated will build unrealistic
expectations. Information which is too negative will turn applicants away.

Investing sufficient time in identifying what information to give
the applicant will greatly enhance the likelihood of a successful inter-
view. It will result in the interviewee having the impression of the job
and the organization which the interviewer wants him to have, rather than
the impression which the interviewer gives by accident. Also, by thoroughly
considering these information needs beforehand, the interviewer will be
sure that all relevant information is communicated to all interviewees.

Question Formulation

We now have the information-gathering objectives of our interview formulated and we wish to bring our efforts to a practical level. Questions help us to obtain the specific elements of information which we stated in our objectives.

Questions serve two functions:
(1) to obtain information;
(2) to assist the interviewer in his job of motivating the the interviewee to communicate freely.

Both of these functions must be kept in mind when framing questions. Not only do we want the interviewee to answer questions, we also would like the interviewee to _want_ to answer questions.

Several considerations should be kept in mind when formulating questions. These are as follows:
(1) The vocabulary used in the questions should be understandable to both parties. It should not, however, be condescending, patronizing or clumsy.
(2) Questions should be worded so that their effect on the interviewer-interviewee relationship is one of supportiveness and acceptance rather than antagonism or rejection.
(3) The content and substance of the interview, and the interviewer-interviewee relationship which has been developed, establish a context within which certain questions appear to the interviewee to be appropriate, relevant and nonthreatening. Questions outside this context appear at best irrelevant, and possibly threatening. If questions must be asked which at face value apprear irrelevant, then it is up to the interviewer to place them in their context, i.e. to explain why they are not irrelevant.
(4) The interviewee should not be asked questions that require a degree of expertise which he or she does not possess.
(5) Some questions request information that is beyond the interviewee's psychological capacity to communicate. For example, the question "How did you come to be as modest as you are?" will likely be

difficult for the interviewee to answer since it demands a level of objectivity about himself, his motivations and his relationships with others which most people do not possess.

(6) Generally, in the personnel selection setting, no question should confront the interviewee with the necessity of giving a socially unacceptable response; that is, a statement which he feels is inappropriate for someone of his position or situation, or which he perceives may embarrass him in front of the interviewer.

(7) Questions should not be worded so that they are leading. A leading question is one which makes it easier or more tempting for the respondent to give one answer than another. These may be a result of using emotionally loaded words or by associating one of the alternative answers with a goal so desirable that it can hardly be denied. Examples of leading questions with emotionally charged words are, "Did you maliciously strike this innocent child?" or "Did you finally spank the little devil?". The first question would more often than not result in a 'no' response while the second would likely evoke a 'yes' response.

An example of associating one of the alternative responses with a goal so desirable that it can hardly be denied is the question, "Do you favour or oppose higher taxes to prepare for the dangers of war?".

These are obvious examples, but the majority of leading questions are much more subtle. If you do not want a loaded answer, the aim in phrasing the question should be either to give no indication of possible responses, or if that is not feasible, to indicate the possible responses in such a way that the alternatives are balanced.

(8) Basically, questions should be limited to a single idea or a single reference. Questions with multiple ideas or references tend to confuse the interviewee.

(9) Questions should be so arranged that they follow a logical sequence. Questions should not jump around from topic to topic. Rather, they should flow from coverage of one topic to coverage

of the next.

(10) Opening questions should not be hard to answer and should not touch on the more important or possible embarrassing areas.

One point must be stressed - the interviewer who prepares himself with a carefully developed set of questions is more likely to communicate accurately to the interviewee and obtain the information he requires, than the interviewer who does not.

Probes

Often when we ask questions designed to meet our objectives, we find that we receive an incomplete answer or, in some cases, no answer at all. When this occurs, we usually need to probe deeper. A probe refers to a question, a statement or a gesture designed to elicit more fully the information already asked for by the initial question.

The techniques of probing may be broken down into five basic types:

(a) Brief assenting comments - such comments as 'yes', 'I see', 'uh huh', and so on. They tell the interviewee that the interviewer is listening and wants to hear more.

(b) Well-timed Pauses - Very often, an inexperienced interviewer will become uncomfortable whenever there is even a slight pause in the interview. The result is that he is likely to break in prematurely with unnecessary comments and/or questions. An experienced interviewer, however, will consciously permit a pause to occur knowing that the interviewee will elaborate rather than let the silence continue.

(c) Simple requests for more information - These types of probes involve such generally neutral comments as:

- what do you mean?
- tell me more about it
- anything else?
- what do you have in mind?

(d) Summaries - These are brief summaries of what the interviewee has just said. Summary statements serve two functions: they allow the interviewer to test whether or not he understands

what the interviewee has said, and they act as cues for the
interviewee to provide further elaboration.

(e) Gestures - A nod of the head, an encouraging look, and other
forms of body language generally motivate the interviewee to
add further remarks to his response.

Probing forms an integral part of the personnel selection interview.
It informs the interviewee that the interviewer in interested in all that
is being said. Furthermore, it allows the practiced interviewer, using a
variety of probing methods, to obtain full information from the interviewee.

Organization

Once we have specified objectives and formulated questions we then
make sure that our interview is properly organized, such that it flows
logically and enables us to obtain and give all the information which we
deem necessary.

The interviewer will find it valuable to develop a basic interview
guide. This is essentially a checklist of all the necessary questions to
ask and major items of information to obtain and provide throughout the
interview. These questions and items are ordered in the sequence in which
they will appear during the interview.

The interview guide serves as an important aid to the interviewer.
By reviewing it just prior to the interview, the interviewer is put in the
proper frame of mind. By using it as a reference during the interview, it
provides order to an encounter which might otherwise have been rambling and
lacking in direction.

The Interview[1]

There are several other miscellaneous things that the interviewer can
do preparatory to the interview. A list of these may serve as a useful
guide.

(1) Allow adequate time, not only for the interview itself, but also
for the pre-interview phase (reviewing all pertinent information)
and the post-interview phase (reflection and decision).

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[1]This paper looks at the preparatory stages to interviewing. It does not
deal with the actual mechanics & dynamics of the interview situation. Other
sources such as Richard Fear's The Evaluation Interview (2nd Ed., New York:
McGraw-Hill, 1973) examine this aspect.

(2) Make sure that the interviewee's application form and other relevant pieces of information have been thoroughly read before the interview.

(3) Review the interview guide before the interview.

(4) Establish as comfortable a setting as you can. This would include providing ashtrays (if permissible), coat hangers, comfortable chairs, and a private location. The lengths the interviewer goes to welcoming the interviewee is a reflection of the concern which the organization holds for its potential employees.

(5) Avoid interruptions - There is very little which is more damaging to an interviewer-interviewee relationship than a constant stream of visitors and telephone calls. Even one interruption can break an important train of thought. It is wise to hold telephone calls and inform colleagues that an interview will be in progress.

The importance of these miscellaneous concerns cannot be overstated. The interviewer who takes them into consideration goes a long way toward ensuring the success of his interview.

Interpretation and Evaluation

After we have finished our interview we enter two more basic stages - Interpretation and Evaluation.

When interpreting, we are really attributing meaning to the interviewee's words and actions. As discussed earlier in this paper, what an interviewee may say or do can often be interpreted in several ways. With this in mind, then, we need to determine whether those interpretations made during and after the interview are reasonably accurate. The more valid are our interpretations, the more realistic will be our selection decisions.

Once we have tabulated and interpreted our information we are in a position to evaluate the effectiveness of our efforts. Essentially, we are evaluating three factors - the interview, the interviewee, and the prediction.

(a) The Interview - Here we are really determining how well we met the objectives of the interview. Did we gather all the information

we felt was necessary? Did we give the interviewee all the information we intended to provide? Our interview guide plays an important role here. Since it is, in essence, a written statement of our interview objectives, we can use it to compare what we actually accomplished with what the guide states we planned to accomplish.

(b) The Interviewee - At this stage we are evaluating the interviewee's suitability for the job. We are making the basic personnel interview decision - to hire or to reject. This decision is made considerably easier due to the work carried out preparatory to the interview. Our task is facilitated since we determined before the interview what the successful candidate should be like. Principally, then, we compare each applicant with the predetermined standard.

(c) The Prediction - Our decision to hire or reject is basically a prediction. When we hire someone we are predicting that he will perform adequately in our organization. When we reject someone we are predicting that he will not perform adequately in our organization. We need to critically evaluate our prediction of an interviewee's future performance by comparing it with that person's actual performance some time later. This, of course, is difficult to do with those interviewees whom we rejected. Likely as not, we will never see them again. However, for those we hired (i.e. those whom we predicted would perform adequately in the job) we are able to examine their performance and determine whether or not it correlates with our prediction. If the person is performing well, we are in a position to say that our interview was reasonably valid and useful. If performance is inadequate, we need to examine reasons why. Perhaps there was something faulty with our interview. We may have gathered the wrong information. Our interpretations could have been erroneous. Furthermore, we may have misjudged the extent to which the interviewee would adapt to the organization's environment. Certainly the causes of poor performance may stem from sources other than the interview. However, it is incumbent on the interviewer to assess the extent to which the fault may lie in

his actions and predictions.

Summary

To say that adequate preparation is essential for successful interviewing is indeed an understatement. The time we take in planning our informational objectives, our questions and our interview structure should be considered as an investment.

As with the concert pianist who carefully practices, the performance of the prepared interviewer will be more polished and professional, our approach more organized, our manner more confident.

GUIDELINES FOR INTERVIEWERS*

Introduction

Interviewing persons who are interested in doing volunteer work is essential in operating an effective and well run referral agency. Through personal contact the interviewer is able to find out more about a volunteer's capabilities and talents. For this reason all prospective volunteers are asked to come to the office for an interview.

Very often people are not sure of what type of volunteer work they would like to do. They are interested in becoming "involved" yet they are confused as to what is available and where they can get the most satisfaction. In essence, we are counselling volunteers in finding the area where they will best fit in.

"Guidelines for Interviewers" is presented as an outline to all interviewers. If the interviewers follow the guidelines, they can help the volunteer be placed most effectively.

There are two preliminary steps for all new interviewers. First, it is important that the interviewer become familiar with the different job categories which are listed in the catalogue book. Secondly, new interviewers should spend time looking through each folder to become acquainted with the individual job assignments.

Purpose

Interviewing is a conversation between two persons in which:

1. The interviewer wants to learn as much as possible about the person's skills, aptitudes and interests for effective referral.
2. The interviewee wants to know what volunteer opportunities are available for which he/she is qualified and which will meet his/her personal goals in volunteering.

*Prepared by Voluntary Action Center of New York City, March, 1972. Used with permission.

Before the Interview:

A. Instructions to the Receptionist

1. Since the prospective volunteer has usually booked an
    appointment in advance, it is important that he/she be
    made to feel both welcome and expected.

2. If a name does not appear in the appointment book, the
    receptionist should still greet the volunteer as if he/she
    were expected. Merely add the name into the appointment
    book after the volunteer has left.

3. The receptionist should greet the volunteer, invite him/her
    to sit down, give the volunteer an application card to fill
    out and supplementary booklets.

4. The receptionist should explain that once the card is filled
    out, one of the interviewers will discuss with him/her the
    different volunteer opportunities available.

5. After the card is completed, the receptionist should escort
    the volunteer to an available interviewer.

B. Instructions to the Interviewer

1. The interviewer should invite the prospective volunteer to
    sit down.

2. The interviewer should introduce himself to the volunteer.

3. The interviewer should quickly examine the application card
    and note:
    a. Any sections left blank since it is the interviewer's
        job to complete the form during the interview.
    b. Hours available for volunteering and borough desired
        since this information will directly affect the
        referral.
    c. Information provided on the card since this will
        help with initial questioning.

Opening the Interview:

In order to make the interviewee feel comfortable and at ease, the

opening of the interview is of primary importance. It is sometimes a
good idea to directly state the purpose of the interview. (see page 1.)
It is also important to use "OPEN" rather than "CLOSED" questions. (NOTE:
"OPEN" questions cannot be answered with either yes or no. Instead, they
require an explanation. "OPEN" questions begin with "HOW", "WHAT", "WHY".
"CLOSED" questions, on the other hand, can be answered with either "YES" or
"NO". In addition, you might:

1. Ask the interviewee to describe his/her employed job; nature of
the work, areas of primary responsibility.

2. Inquire about previous volunteer experience; nature of the work,
satisfactions gained, desire to do more of the same.

3. Find out how the volunteer came to hear about this office.

4. Express interest in what decided the person to volunteer at this
particular time.

5. Get the volunteer to talk a bit about a hobby or special interest
which has been indicated on the card. Finding out "HOW" a
volunteer got interested in a certain hobby is often a good open
question.

Getting the Necessary Information:

Before making any specific referrals, probe for further information
keeping the following in mind:

1. Hobbies and skills in specific areas such as sewing, dramatics,
sports, etc., might encourage the volunteer to want to teach the
hobby or skill to someone else.

2. Ideas about the kind of person with whom the volunteer wishes to
work can be useful. Inquiries about why the volunteer wants to
work with children, aged, or handicapped can provide valuable
clues about interests and skills as well as personal qualities.

3. Questioning about areas of need in the city which may appeal to
the volunteer's interest can also be useful.

4. Personality traits are important in an effective referral. The
interviewer should note:

   a. ease in communicating, since this is important for volunteer
   positions relating to the general public.

b. ease in relating to and working with people. This is
   difficult, but clues can be obtained by:
   1. noting relationship to you and anyone in the office
      with whom interviewee comes in contact.
   2. asking if interviewee wants to work directly with
      people or would rather have a desk job.
   3. observing general manner of the interviewee. Is he/
      she outgoing? Are there any obvious mannerisms which
      are annoying?
   4. being sensitive to derogatory comments about groups
      of people.

c. Attitudes:
   1. are comments usually positive or negative?
   2. is there evidence of real interest in and enthusiasm
      for a volunteer assignment?

d. emotional reactions especially when discussing jobs that
   involve sensitive areas. For example, working with
   emotionally disturbed youngsters or adults requires a calm
   stable personality. (NOTE: if you are uncertain about a
   prospective volunteer, it is a good procedure to ask the
   individual: "Why do you want to work in this area?" If
   you still feel that this person should not be placed in such
   a sensitive area try to suggest other alternatives. If this
   does not work it is best to say that this office must do
   some research in finding a suitable spot. Be sure to report
   this to your supervisor.

5. "other activities" are important because they yield information
   about the person's interests. Many people belong to clubs or
   other organizations that could possibly be called upon to do a
   special group project. It is best not to mention this to the
   person being interviewed since some will feel that they are
   committing their group or club. Instead, merely ask the person
   being interviewed if they belong to any neighborhood associations,
   business clubs, lodges, etc.

Making the Referral:

Using the information obtained so far in the interview and from the application card:

1. Begin to suggest possible areas for referral.
2. Study the code book for appropriate code number.
3. Extract folders from the file.
4. Examine file contents giving particular attention to:
   a. borough where volunteering is to be done and the volunteer's interest.
   b. job requirement in relation to the volunteer's skills and interests.
5. Review job orders with volunteer, lining up assignments of particular interest to volunteer.
6. Telephone agency which has placed job order; inform person about the volunteer available; introduce agency coordinator and volunteer via phone; request that they set up an appointment for an interview.
7. If agency cannot be reached by phone, give volunteer a card with agency name, address, telephone number and person to contact.
8. Generally, it is best to make no more than 2 referrals.

Closing the Interview:

Before the prospective volunteer leaves:

1. The interviewer should write on a card his/her name and telephone number and the referral made with necessary information.
2. Tell interviewee to call if there is any problem experienced in reaching the agency.
3. Impress upon the volunteer the importance of letting us know the outcome of the interview with the agency.
4. Encourage interviewee to get in touch with us again if volunteer assignment is unsatisfactory.
5. If the assignment is temporary, as the volunteer to check back with us for another assignment.
6. Ask the volunteer to tell anyone else who might be interested in volunteering to call this office.

7. Express appreciation for interviewee's time and interest in offering service to the city.

Follow-Up:

What happens after the interview is concluded is a vital part of the interviewing process. Notes must be made immediately while the interview is fresh in the interviewer's mind. After the person has left:

1. Fill in any information which you have received during the interview which was not filled out by the applicant.

2. Write briefly in the appropriate spaces on the back of the card pertinent comments about the interviewee from your personal observation. You might think of such areas as:
    a. personal attributes - both strengths and weaknesses.
    b. impression of interviewee's sincerity of interest.
    c. field of greatest interest in volunteering.
    d. special facts which could affect a volunteer assignment.
    e. referral(s) made and any appointment which was arranged.

3. Be sure to fill in the date and your name. Do this on both the front and back of the card.

4. Give special attention to the box in the lower right hand corner marked "ABCD". This box provides ethnic information about the volunteer. It is valuable for statistical information; for evaluation of the office's effectiveness in reaching all segments of the New York City Community; and for special projects which may arise.

    A stands for black.
    B stands for Puerto Rican.
    C stands for Oriental.
    D stands for other non-white.

    None of the letters are circled if the volunteer is white.

5. Fill out a yellow contact card to be sent to the agencies to whom the prospective volunteer had been referred. Mark "sent card" in referral section.

6. The lower back of the card marked "future contacts" is used when a volunteer calls and wants another referral. Always mark the date first and then enter the new information.

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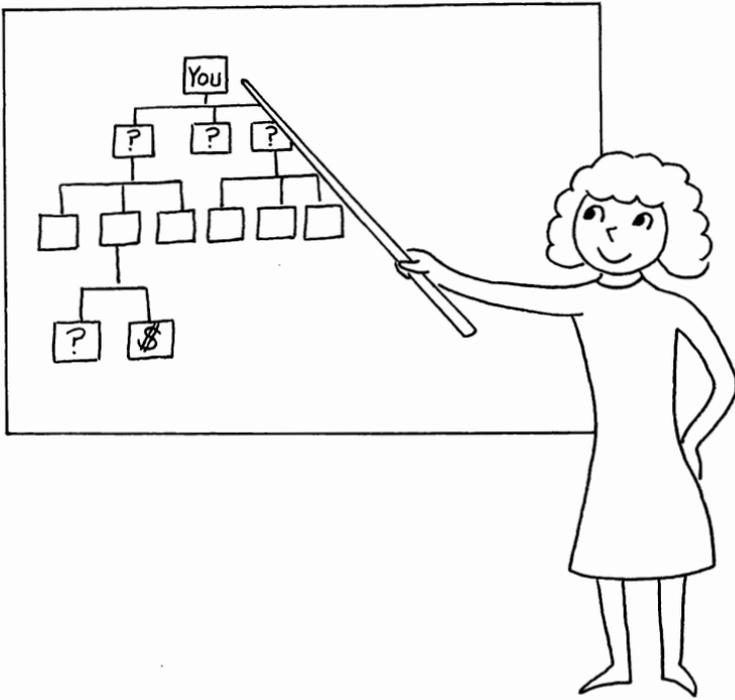
Section 3
Orientation and Training

SECTION 3   INTRODUCTION

ORIENTATION AND TRAINING

Orientation is a means of allowing the volunteer to become aware
of the agency, the department and the job in which he/she is to be
involved. Orientation actually begins during the interview, because it
is at this point that initial impressions are formed and information
about the program is conveyed to the volunteer. Knowledge about the
role the volunteer will play in the organization helps to put him/her
at ease in an unfamiliar environment.

An orientation program should be specifically designed to meet the
needs of the agency and to fit its particular situation. Information
might be included on the agency's and the volunteer program's objective
and goals both historically and at present. The relationship of the
agency to other agencies and services in the outside community should be
discussed. Orientation must also include the job itself and its part in
the program. It is useful to begin with a detailed discussion of the
expectations of the volunteer and how he/she feels the agency can con-
tribute to meet those expectations. Conversely, it is important to
explain the expectations of the program regarding the volunteer's
contributions. A two-directional discussion of this nature facilitates
honest and open two-way, rather than traditional one-way, communication.
If a job description exists, a discussion could centre around the reality
of this statement. The orientation process would not be complete without
familiarizing the new volunteer with the physical layout of the building
itself; the washrooms, cafeteria, first aid station, and exits and
entrances. Orientation should make the volunteer feel at home while at
the same time providing the information necessary to allow him/her to
function effectively within a new environment.

The communication of ideas in orientation, as in any other exchange
situation, may be handled by many different methods depending on the points
to be stressed and the physical and psychological constraints or the
presentation. Orientation could be accomplished on a one to one basis,

e.g., the volunteer and volunteer coordinator, or it could be handled in
a group setting. The presentation method must fit the subject matter and
the number of people involved. For example, a lecture would be most
efficient in providing large numbers of volunteer canvassers with infor-
mation about the techniques of canvassing and with details of the campaign.
A small group discussion would be a better way to orient new volunteers to
working with the elderly.

In many cases if the program and the use of volunteers is new to an
agency, or if a volunteer is being used for the first time to do a partic-
ular job, it may be necessary and important that the staff are oriented to
the idea of working with volunteers. This orientation may take a somewhat
different form than volunteer orientation as it is designed to reduce
resistance, tension, and a feeling of threat. The objectives may best be
achieved by involving staff in the initial planning and, in fact, throughout
the planning process. Guest speakers, tours, and observation visits could
be arranged in order to allow staff to truly understand the utility of
volunteers. This is a vital step in the introduction of volunteers into an
agency and the overall success of the program may depend on it.

In a general way, orientation prepares the individual for the new
position in the agency but before the volunteer can actually step in and
do the job, specific training may be required. In a majority of cases,
this may take the form of learning by doing, or on-the-job instruction with
the help of a member of the staff or another volunteer, but in other cases
skill training may be needed. Skill training can range from instruction in
machine operations to sensitivity sessions designed to prepare the volunteer
for the people-helping role. Training, unlike orientation, is not a one-
shot procedure to be given when the volunteer joins the program but rather
it is continuous process to aid the individual in developing competence and
also in building on areas of strength to increase his/her overall effective-
ness and satisfaction.

For the above reason, the volunteer administrator may have to spend
time determining future and present training needs of volunteers in the
program. This can be accomplished by examining performance reports,
through discussions with volunteers and staff, or possibly by means of a

questionnaire designed to identify training needs. Once the needs have been identified the administrator must decide whether training should be handled internally or whether volunteers should be sent to outside courses, institutes or workshops. If the decision is made to design a program to be run internally, the administrator must consider the following variables:

a. the content - objectives
b. the method of presentation
c. the equipment and other aids needed
d. the instructor(s)
e. the specific assignments
f. the handout materials
g. how long it will run
h. where it will be held
i. who will attend
j. how will it be evaluated

Once all of these variables have been considered - checked and re-checked - then the major task remaining is to carry out the training and then to evaluate the results.

This section deals with one of the most important functions of the volunteer administrator - the continuing education of his all-important human resources, the volunteers and the staff. The first article, set in a hospital environment, suggests that orientation should cover the hospital, the department and the job itself. Author Nancy MacBain highlights some ways in which this can be accomplished

The second article, by Moore, begins the selections on training by outlining the training function and then expands on that theme by offering a description and evaluation of various training methods, aids and techniques. The next article deals with a specific approach - in-service training.

Wolfe's article stresses the importance of evaluating training and

describes some techniques of evaluation. The final article describes a training program for volunteer administrators.

ORIENTING THE NEW VOLUNTEER*

Nancy MacBain

Any director of volunteers surely must remember the apprehension, discomfort, and out-of-place feeling of being new on the job. If her institution had a good orientation program, someone helped her through the maze of newness, not only for the first day, but perhaps for the first week or even month. This concern on the part of her employer made her feel welcome. She soon had a sense of belonging.

The new volunteer needs to feel welcome perhaps even more than the new employee. Most new volunteers have never performed in-hospital volunteer service. They want to know not only that they are welcome but also that what they have to offer will be accepted. A well structured orientation program can acknowledge the worth of the volunteer's contributions and signify the administration's acceptance of the volunteer as an integral part of the hospital family. At the same time, such an orientation also conveys that the administration expects the volunteer program to maintain the same general standards set for other hospital departments and is willing to assist it in doing so.

A good orientation program shows concern for the needs and the interests of the individual volunteer. It helps the volunteer find the way in which he or she can best participate in the hospital community.

What should a director of volunteers include in orientation? It should cover three basic areas: the hospital, the volunteer department, and the assigned area.

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The Hospital

Let's look first at the hospital. A short explanation of the hospital's role in the community, different types of hospitals, and, perhaps, rules and regulations governing their operation is a good base on which to build further discussion.

This might be followed by specific facts about the hospital: type, size, services, educational programs, and the budget and financing. The volunteer should be given an explanation of the reasons for rising hospital costs and of the ways Medicare and other third-party payers affect hospital budgets. Answers to pertinent questions can be skillfully woven into a good orientation program.

It is important to remember that a volunteer may be called upon to interpret - indeed, defend - the hospital's actions to her neighbors. She deserves a forthright, factual explanation of policies and programs to prepare her for this role.

An explanation of the hospital's organizational chart will enable a volunteer to associate herself with a department and establish her relationship within the organization. A comment to the effect that members of the board of trustees are volunteers can reassure the most frightened newcomer.

Ethics and etiquette, hospital style, must be presented. Volunteers come from differing cultural backgrounds, and their approaches to patient, staff, and visitors may vary greatly.

The orientation program should stress the importance of courtesy and of maintaining a "caring" attitude. High standards of performance do not require that compassion and empathy be eliminated.

Orientation to the hospital also should include a discussion of the wide range of jobs that must be filled if a modern hospital is to function properly.

The Volunteer Department

Now, let us consider what the orientation program might include about the volunteer department.

Perhaps first there should be some mention of the values of hospital volunteering. Primarily, volunteers provide extension of services that might not otherwise be available. In addition, every volunteer department has volunteers doing at least one job previously done by an employee, or waiting to be done by an employee - not because the hospital is exploiting the volunteer or saving money, but because a salaried person simply is not available. No administrator would choose to have certain jobs done by different persons each day if he could find the right ones to do them five days a week. But in the meantime, it is better to have them done by volunteers than not at all.

Other values of volunteering that should be stressed include service to the community, personal fulfillment, and educational opportunities.

Volunteer rules and regulations should be explained, as should policies regarding training, probationary periods, hours of service, uniforms, recognition, assignment areas, opportunities for advancement, lunches, parking, vacations, and leaves of absence. When possible, this information should be given during a discussion period when the new volunteer can ask questions about the policies and the reasons behind them. Of course, this approach requires the director of volunteers to know the reasons behind the policies. If she cannot explain a policy, maybe it is out of date and needs revision.

Legal aspects of volunteer service regarding the volunteer's responsibilities to the patient and the institution, and the hospital's responsibilities to the patient and the volunteers should be included in the orientation program. For example, the volunteer should know whether she is covered by insurance and what provisions are made if she is injured on duty.

The new volunteer should understand the importance of active participation in the total volunteer program. She should be encouraged

to ask questions and make suggestions, both about current services and those that are contemplated. Her fresh outlook, based on ideas formulated in her community and not yet influenced by her hospital experiences, can prove invaluable.

The director of volunteers should make sure each new volunteer fully understands the organizational chart of the volunteer department. Is there a chairman? How is she selected? What is the volunteer service committee? Are the members elected or appointed and by whom? Do they adequately represent all segments of the volunteer corps? Are there a service chairman and a scheduling chairman? What are the duties of each? Can the new volunteer aspire to these jobs? What are the qualifications?

Other questions for which answers must be provided include the following: Does the volunteer department have working relationships with other hospital or community organizations, such as auxiliaries, American Red Cross, Junior League, American Cancer Society, or religious groups? What exactly do these relationships involve? Do these groups staff any services that are then closed to other volunteers?

If there is an auxiliary, are all volunteers welcome to its membership? What the bylaws say and what customs dictate are often widely divergent. The person giving the information must be sure of her ground in this matter, or she stands to lose a volunteer and perhaps antagonize an entire group.

The Assigned Area

The third area to be covered in orientation is the volunteer's assigned area. Here again, the orientation should include information on staff organization. The volunteer should know to whom she is responsible. She should also know the department's relationship to other hospital departments. This is particularly important for some of the specialty and newer departments. It is easy for the volunteer who is making beds and serving meals to see what is being accomplished for the patient. It is more difficult for the one who is answering the phone, typing, and making appointments in the inhalation therapy department.

Some information on the psychology of the sick is helpful. If the volunteer is to prove valuable in spending time with the patients, then she must be alert to reactions that can be expected in those confined to the hospital.

The volunteer assigned to a specialty area, such as rehabilitation, extended care, pediatrics, or outpatient, should be familiar with some of the special needs of such patients. This part of orientation should be provided by someone who is sympathetic and understanding of these needs and will give an unprejudiced view.

For a volunteer serving in a program outside the hospital, orientation is doubly important. The volunteer may be serving in a minimally supervised situation and must have the knowledge on which to base future decisions. She must understand the community in which she is to serve and know which of its desires and needs the hospital can fulfill.

The volunteer serving in a newly established program in her own community must learn to differentiate between her hopes for her community and the hospital's ability to fulfill the community's needs. A good orientation will give this volunteer the information with which to interpret to her own group the scope and limitations of the program.

Some explanations of human behavioral patterns, with emphasis on actions under stress, can be helpful. Volunteers will be working not only with inpatients, but also with patients' relatives, visitors, outpatients, and staff. Complete understanding of departmental policies relating to families and visitors is important if the volunteer is to assist in implementing the policies.

The Initial Interview

The next aspects to consider are when and where orientation should occur. Certainly the interview is a time when much of the aforementioned information will be discussed. Because this will probably be the volunteer director's first formal effort at orientation, sufficient time should be allotted for the interview and an area provided that will ensure privacy. Effort should be made to create a relaxed, pleasant atmosphere that will

encourage easy exchange of information and will be comfortable to pros-
pective volunteers of all types. A retired businessman will not feel
comfortable at an interview if he first has to wend his way through a
large group of chatting women sewing layettes. A member of a low income
group might feel ill at ease if fur coats are in evidence in the dressing
area or volunteers are busy selling tickets in the lounge.

If the director of volunteers has a formal group orientation program,
or if she joins the personnel department in theirs - and I hope this is
done - surroundings can do much to set the tone of the program. At
Abington Memorial Hospital, we have found that a cup of coffee in our
newly decorated cafeteria and a few minutes' casual conversation can
ensure a relaxed atmosphere for the program. A new member of the hospital
family is much more likely to join a discussion in this setting than in a
classroom program.

The director of volunteers can use the lunch hour occasionally by
gathering a group and inviting a staff member to talk about his department.
Or she can use the opportunity to discuss establishment of a new service
or a change in policy. Lunch meetings with new volunteers can be a good
way not only to impart information but also to learn the reactions of a
newcomer. Sometimes an orientation program has to be tailored to a
particular volunteer and in such a case, short, relaxed meetings over
lunch or coffee can often reinforce the person's feeling of belonging.

Affiliated and community organizations often provide the initial, or
part of the continuing, orientation for volunteers. For instance, the
American Red Cross includes lectures on psychology of the sick and on
hospital ethics in their program for hospital volunteers. Most auxiliaries
offer continuing education on hospital services and programs. It is
important, however, not to base further orientation on such programs unless
they are available to all volunteers.

Last, but far from least, is the question of how to orient new
volunteers.

Orientation implies communication, which can be oral, written, or

illustrated. Most important is that it be clear and simple. The director of volunteers may find she will want to utilize all methods of communication to reinforce the most important points. Orientation could begin with information mailed to a prospective volunteer before she enters the hospital for an interview. Probably all directors of volunteers use the proven methods of handbooks, job descriptions, and group meetings.

If the directory of volunteer services bears in mind that each contact an individual has with the hospital is an opportunity to educate, then perhaps she will become more innovative in using such visual aids in the following:

- Posters in hospital departments that reach the potential volunteer and in the volunteer department to emphasize special policies, new services, or changes in programs
- Displays in hospital waiting rooms of new equipment, new techniques and planned expansion
- Flip charts that can be used with a group or by an individual (These might prove particularly valuable with volunteers who need additional help in understanding the hospital or have a language difficulty.)
- Films, tape recordings, and slides - all proven educational tools that are available if the director of volunteer services will just look through catalogs and use a bit of imagination in adapting them to her needs.

Staff Members

Use of staff members in both the initial and continuing orientation is important, particularly where new or specialized programs are described and discussed. If the hospital has a training director, he should be involved in orientation planning for the volunteers.

Hospital tours are an integral part of an orientation program and should be supplemented by maps. Joint orientation tours for employees and volunteers can be conducted by experienced volunteers, providing opportunities for both new groups to become further acquainted with the volunteer services department.

Other volunteers can be utilized in orientation, but the director of volunteers must first be sure they are well informed. Volunteers also can be encouraged to spend a day in another department as a matter of education, even though they might not be interested in serving in that area. This could be particularly useful in cooperating departments: physical therapy, for instance. Volunteers serving on nursing units might spend a profitable day in x-ray, and volunteers in the recovery room should be aware of the problems of the volunteer in the surgical lounge.

As hospitals become more and more complex and as directors of volunteers are called upon to train and assign people to more complicated programs, they will look for ways to retain volunteers. Because orientation and continuing education of the volunteers not only can help maintain their interest, but also can contribute to the public's understanding of the hospital, time and money invested in an imaginative and productive orientation program for employees and volunteers need no further justification.

A COMPARISON OF TRAINING TECHNIQUES*

Larry F. Moore

Since the days of the little red school house, much progress has
been made in developing teaching techniques to supplement or replace
the traditional lecture method of instruction. All of us at one time or
another have been bored out of our wits by a dull, droning preacher or
teacher who seemed to continue for an endless eon of time. In such a
situation, we can all recall how our thoughts wandered to other topics
or how, perhaps, we just tended to go to sleep.

Happily, today, there are available a number of exciting new teaching
techniques and devices with which an instructor can develop an interesting
and content-laden training course particularly suited to his training
needs. Like all tools, various training techniques have unique strengths
and weaknesses and these are very different from technique to technique.
In a recent study comparing the ratings of training directors on effective-
ness of alternative training methods, no technique examined seemed to be
rated high on all training objectives. (Carroll, Paine, and Ivancevich, 1972).

Therefore, it is very important that leaders of training programmes
for volunteers or other groups be familiar with the relative strong points
and limitations of the major training techniques which are available to us.
The purpose of this paper is to highlight and compare a number of these
established and successful techniques.

Designing a training course and choosing the appropriate training
techniques is not an arbitrary process and does not take place in isolation.
The development of a training course is very much a function of (1) the
trainees and their characteristics and (2) the training objectives to be
accomplished. Quite often trainees, as a group, will have some common
characteristics. For example, they all may be approximately the same age,
or the same sex, or they may possess similar educational backgrounds.
The level of complexity of a training course for a group of professional
people may be necessarily much higher than that which is required for

*Written especially for this collection.

a group of unskilled or partially skilled persons. Groups of individuals
used to exercising their own initiative in solving problems and in dis-
cussing their viewpoints with others may progress much more quickly and
with less frustration when a participatory training method is used while
groups which have been subjected to a high degree of structuring in their
previous work or educational experiences may find a highly participatory
training technique confusing and frustrating. Different trainee groups,
then, require different methods of training.

Almost all training courses will be designed to accomplish more than
one training objective and even when only one training objective has been
specified, other unspecified objectives will be reached. For example,
a group of people may be brought together for a training programme designed
to develop hospital service volunteers. In addition to learning how to be
a good hospital service volunteer, the trainees, because they have been
brought together, will have a considerable opportunity to interact with
one another and to share attitudes about voluntarism. Thus, in addition
to the training objective, some attitudinal change will also take place.
Figure 1 presents a generalized model of the training function and clearly
points out the interactive and feedback nature of the numerous components
of a training programme.

Figure 1

Generalized Model of the Training Function
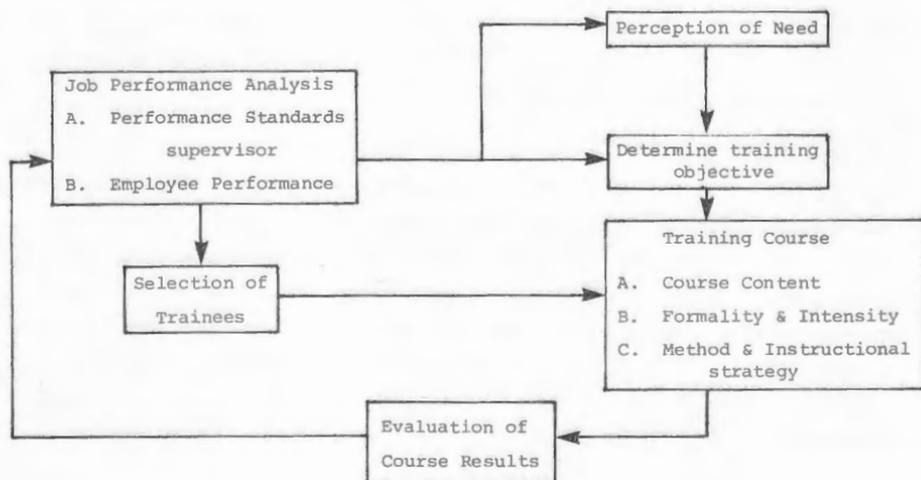
As indicated in Figure 1, the choice of method and instructional strategy follows the specification of course content and the determination of the type and intensity of training which will be presented.

Course Content

No matter what the course content happens to be; whether we have a course on some subject in rehabilitation therapy, or jam-making, our course content may be categorized into one or more of five major categories:

- a. knowledge acquisition and retention
- b. problem solving skills
- c. interpersonal skills
- d. attitude change
- e. psychomotor skills

These five categories are not necessarily independent; in other words, the training programme may be designed to enable the trainees to acquire knowledge and to use that knowledge in a practical way through problem solving. In this situation, part of the necessary learning in the course might be based on lecture input and parts might be based on the development of problem solving skill through the use of a well chosen case.

Formality and Intensity

The most formalized courses are those which are permanent in nature and which lead to granting of a certificate, diploma, degree or other formal recognition. Generally, these kinds of courses are presented under the auspices of a community educational series, a university or some other teaching institution. The more formal the course is to be, the more constraints the instructor is likely to face in course development. The structure of an informal course, on the other hand, offers a great deal of scope for the instructor to exercise his creativity and imagination. Here again, however, one finds advantages and disadvantages. There may be many advantages associated with the development of a formal course leading to some form of certification.

Intensity refers to the frequency of exposure to course content and the amount of time during which the trainee is to be exposed. For example,

the instructor may wish to consider a two-day long weekend seminar as an alternative to six one-hour evening training sessions. Knowledge acquisition and retention are certainly affected by course intensity and the development of interpersonal skills may be quite different under situations of differing intensities even though the actual time of course contact is identical. Moreover, several of the training techniques which are available to instructors require rather intense exposures for maximum effectiveness. For example, sensitivity training may require several days.

Method and Instructional Strategy

Table 1 presents a comparison of training techniques in very brief summary form. For each method, the major characteristics of the method are enumerated and the primary teaching objective is indicated. Probably the main reasons why the lecture method has been and continues to be the most popular method of instruction are that the lecture provides the novice instructor with almost total control over his subject and over the classroom at all times. Only the course material predesignated by the instructor or presentation is covered, therefore the instructor does not have to deal with unanticipated and possibly embarrassing questions. Furthermore, the lecture method does not require any special tools, gimmicks or equipment. In contrast, some of the other teaching techniques are very costly and difficult to obtain (films) and require specialized equipment (games, videotape, or teaching machines). A major problem facing the instructor concerns the acquisition of suitable information concerning the availability of some of the newer techniques.

The public school system in any medium sized or major city generally has an audiovisual instruction centre operated by a specialist in training techniques and this person typically maintains catalogues of materials describing the wide variety of teaching aids available on most topics. Films may be ordered in advance either from local sources or from agencies from metropolitan areas. Municipal or university libraries contain programmed texts on a wide variety of topics.

For specialized purposes, the instructor may decide to write a case or an incident for his own use. Some of the most effective cases

are developed by the instructor himself or by students in previous classes through communication of their own experiences.

Training Techniques and Motivation

Several of the training techniques we have considered are tremendously powerful in arousing the attention and interest of trainees. In a well constructed role play, some trainees have been known to become so involved with their roles that it has been difficult for them to extract themselves and return to the original course content under consideration. Cases sometimes produce similar results if a particularly relevant discussion develops. Because of the competitive aspect built in to business games, trainees' attention sometimes becomes focussed on the competitive environment to the extent that learning actually suffers.

One study compared the amount of learning which took place in matched small groups which were exposed to identical content using the case method or using a problem oriented series of business games. Overall learning, as measured by the composite evaluation based on fact mastery, explicitness of concept, general and structural learning, and logical reasoning ability, was better achieved through use of the case method (Moore, 1967). But when the trainees were questioned concerning their motivation, they were much more positively inclined towards the problem oriented series of games, as indicated in Table 2.

Table 2

Comments Concerning Motivation:

Case Method vs. Problem Oriented Game

Comment Category	Game Groups		Case Groups	
	First Questionnaire	Final Questionnaire	First Questionnaire	Final Questionnaire
Positive	37	32	13	13
Negative	0	5	23	15

The results of this study suggest an aspect of selecting training techniques which seems to have been largely overlooked by most instructors -

Table 1

A Comparison of Training Techniques

Method	Characteristics	Primary Objective
Lecture	a. one-way communication b. speedy c. orderly exact coverage d. total instructor control e. no deviation from subject	fact mastery of preselected material
Lecture-discussion (discussion follows lecture or is permitted throughout)	a. one-way, two-way b. orderly coverage c. controlled deviation from lecture d. high instructor control e. slower than lecture f. questions and disagreements encouraged	fact mastery of preselected plus additional material; development of logical reasoning ability and critical attitude; control of individual involvement
Demonstration with narrative (usually followed by student replication)	a. one-way, two-way b. orderly coverage c. physical performance d. high instructor control e. errors immediately seen and corrected f. can be adjusted to learning speed of student g. follow-up desirable	master of physical tasks or routine mental-visual techniques establishment of good superior-subordinate or peer working relationships
Cases (decision-making, illustrative, group analysis)	a. multiway communication b. built around situational setting c. medium to low instructor control d. forces explicit definition of problems and issues e. slow f. questions, disagreement emotional involvement	logical reasoning ability and critical attitude; explicit definition of problems; recognition of areas of information gap; development of individual and group decision-making ability; development of perception and empathy; communication of ideas to others

Table 1 (continued)

A Comparison of Training Techniques

Method	Characteristics	Primary Objective
Role play (students as actors in a sequence of activity; followed by discussion)	a. miltiway communication; partially controlled b. realism depends on skill of actors c. low instructor control d. encourages emotional involvement in the situational setting e. slow	development of perception and empathy
Incident process (one incident or limited information is introduced – the participants use questions to uncover additional relevant information)	a. two-way communication b. partially controlled c. questioning attitude d. slow e. new and not yet widely used	teaches importance of and difficulty of obtaining additional information; teaches orderly logical decision-making
In-basket (memos, letters and reports are presented the student in sequence – student takes required action)	a. two-way written communication b. high situational control c. written requests for information may or may not be allowed d. slow	decision-making with incomplete information; orderly and logical approach to many types of managerial problems
Sensitivity training (leaderless group discussion; participants are stripped of identity and title)	a. multi-way communication b. very high and potentially volatile emotional c. demands a highly skilled monitor-trainer d. side effects are unpredictable	development of self and other awareness; heightening of perception and empathy

Table 1 (continued)

A Comparison of Training Techniques

Method	Characteristics	Primary Objective
Games (situational model in which sequential decision-making is required)	a. one-way or multi-way sequential decisions b. prior period determination of present variables c. feedback d. fast e. high student involvement	mastery of decision techniques; experience developed synthetically
Films and videotape presentation	a. one-way communication unless followed by discussion b. high initial audience appeal c. audio-visual sensory perception d. high degree of action e. versatile f. requires equipment and trained operator g. capable of high degree of refinement in presentation	multi-purpose; main advantages are audio-visual communication features and switching of instructional burden to the film; videotape offers quick replay for feedback and reinforcement. Possibl cost savings through volume use
Programmed instruction (teaching machines or programmed texts)	a. speed is adjusted to that of student b. errors are immediately explained c. subject matter highly controlled d. limited two-way communication e. availability may be somewhat limited	fact mastery of subject matter

the relation of interest and motivation to learning. Perhaps more important than the degree of interest per se is the pattern of motivation produced by a high degree of interest. Motivation, it will be remembered, is directional in nature, i.e., motivation is goal oriented. Therefore, in order to be effective, the training technique which is chosen must (1) stimulate the interst of the trainee and (2) motivate the trainee to acquire or achieve the desired concept or skill specified for learning. A highly interesting training technique or gimmick, if oriented in a direction away from the specified learning objective, can actually be detrimental to learning effectiveness.

In conclusion, it is apparent to us that the person who wishes to conduct a successful training programme for volunteers has available a wide choice of teaching techniques. If possible, the most effective programmes make use of a combination of more than one technique in order to maintain a state of interest arousal during the entire training course. The instructor should be watching his class for cues to help indicate when a change of pace is necessary and when a new teaching technique might be appropriate. On the other hand, informal, participatory training sessions, if too non-directive, may not accomplish very much from a learning standpoint. Finally, for instructors, as in many other areas of activity, experience seems to be a very good teacher.

References:

Carroll, S.J. Jr., Paine, F.T. and Ivancevich, J.J., "The Relative Effectiveness of Training Methods - Expert Opinion and Research", Personnel Psychology, 1972, 25 (3), 495-510.

Moore, L.F., "Business Games vs. Cases as Tools of Learning", Training and Development Journal, 1967, 21 (10), 13-23.

In-Service Training for Volunteer Group Leaders*

Anne K. Stenzel

Many community organizations working with volunteer group leaders find it difficult to operate leader development programs beyond the pre-service aspects of leadership training. This is not necessarily based on the assumption that a lay leader "is trained" after completing a more or less extensive group leadership course. Rather local and national organizations face such practical difficulties as insufficient staff for individual or group supervision and lack of interest and participation in advanced training courses. The serious turnover in leadership is often due to lack of ongoing help once the basic leadership training is completed; on the other hand it makes the planning of advanced training in groups more difficult because of the diversified training needs of the smaller number of leaders who would be potential participants. One of several objectives of a recent research study was to determine the effect of a guided self-help program on the job understanding of volunteer group leaders; it is proposed that similar individual self-directed activity could be used in in-service training programs of community organizations.

The Research Project

The subjects of the research were volunteer trainers of adult group leaders in the Girl Scout organization.

Approach

Seventy-five volunteer trainers and 500 of their trainees in twelve local Girl Scout councils in the wider San Francisco Bay area participated in the study. The councils had been divided by Girl Scout National Staff members into two groups with approximately the same number of volunteer trainers and the same proportion of strong and weak training programs, based on judgment other than that of the researcher. Questionnaires were administered to all trainers. The trainers in the experimental group of councils received a self-help program called "My Continuous Learning Plan" to use for a period of approximately 4-5 months at the end of which a final questionnaire was administered to trainers in both council groupings.

*Reprinted with permission from Adult Leadership, June, 1965, 57-58,75.

The questionnaires were designed to test the evaluative judgment of the trainers. The respondents were asked to comment on the effectiveness of hypothetical trainers in handling a number of training situations. Scoring was done according to standards established in a pretest of the questionnaire by a jury of local and national trainers of Girl Scout leaders.[1] Those trainers who participated in the experimental "Continuous Learning Plan" project showed a considerably greater change in score (+15.22%) than did the control group (+0.66%).

Design of the Continuous Learning Plan Program

The program was set up in four steps.

Step 1 consisted of some leading questions which the trainer was to use in looking critically at the student comment forms from her last course.[2] These had been collected in sealed envelopes and sent by the trainer to the council office; they were now returned and made available to the trainer who had not seen them before.

Step 2 asked for an overall look at her trainer's job, successes, disappointments, ambitions, and for one or two specific ways in which she could strengthen her training ability. The goal or goals were to be written down on a "Progress Report form."

Step 3 suggested various ways in which ideas could be picked up and how to jot down periodically what had been learned and by what method (formal or informal, group or individual, planned or incidental).

Step 4 was set up as the final report form and mailed only at the end of the program. It asked the trainer to evaluate her progress and to indicate in which area she thought she should strengthen her training ability next year.

Findings

Reactions of the Trainers

Individual learning goals included: more effective ways of teaching certain topics (the structure of the local Girl Scout organization, the

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[1]For details on the construction of the questionnaire based on an adaptation of the critical incident technique, see Anne K. Stenzel, "A Study of Girl Scout Leadership Training - Non Professional Leaders of Adults as Continuous Learners", Unpublished Dissertation, University of California, Berkeley, June 1963.

importance of planning with rather than only for girls; song leading);
better use of methods and techniques (audio-visual aids, discussion
leadership skill with less talking herself); human relations skills
(working with a co-trainer, trying more participation of the trainees
in planning and managing the course) and such specifics as "do better
planning and organizing before the course"; "talk slower."

There was a great deal of variation in the notations under the
column headings of "what I did" and "what I learned" and the frequency
with which entries were made; some had four or five, some nine or ten,
one had fourteen entries. The methods of "occasions" of learning
included:

- trying out a new technique;
- observing chairmen and presiding officers at various meetings, Girl
  Scout and other;
- watching another trainer;
- watching herself in teaching;
- taking an extension course;
- taking an advanced Girl Scout trainers' course;
- meeting or talking with troop leaders;
- exchanging ideas informally with other trainers;
- reading;
- conferring with a staff member.

The items learned were classified as follows:

- more understanding of a topic (Girl Scout Council structure, leader-
  ship problems of mother whose daughter is a troop member; long term
  program planning in the troop);
- a good technique for handling a topic ("using a gimmick like a
  wishing well to demonstrate how to solicit ideas from group members";
  an easy self learning project to keep early arrivals occupied);
- more understanding of trainees' needs, expectations, and reactions
  ("saw why there was a lag of interest at a given point"; "realized
  that everyone absorbs a different phase of the training; many of
  them are looking for something that is not included in the course").
- new or reinforced ideas about the working of groups (a new method for
  dividing into subgroups, for getting more group participation, for

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[2] This aspect of the research project is described in Anne K. Stenzel:
"Guidelines for Evaluating Leadership Training in Community Organizations",
Adult Leadership, Vol. 13, No. 8, 1965, p. 254.

getting discussion back on the track);

- realization of how people learn ("had to work hard to hold their
interest when I had to use the lecture method"; "discussions in a
large group need summarizing frequently, but not too often"; "used
more participation techniques which made the class really come into
their own"; "am reading about how adults learn").

In summary, the participants felt that their training practice in the
area stated as their goal for the period was improving.

Among the evidence given that there was improvement were comments
such as these: "I can think of more questions in a discussion group and
draw out more people." "It is clearer to me, therefore I feel that I am
explaining it more understandably." "If I keep on studying, I think I'll
eventually be the trainer I would like to be; I am thinking more con-
sciously of myself as a trainer, not just of helping leaders enjoy
Scouting." "I feel more at ease, more relaxed about people and the
course." "After I set my goal I really tried new ways and think the last
class was much better."

Half the trainers thought they should continue on with their same
goals; the others have new goals ("I think I should be a little less
flexible, do more of what I think new leaders need"; and "try to cover
content in just enough depth so leaders will want to go on learning on
their own") or said their goals will depend on the council's training
emphases and their own assignments.

Implications for Planning In-Service Training Programs

Learning as Viewed by Participants in the Experimental Program

The respondents thought they had gained something in strengthening
their own training ability, in spite of the short time of the continuous
learning plan program. The following points can be made in support of
their opinion and are categorized according to Sworder's principles of
effective learning by adults.[3]

- It was voluntary learning. The program had been interpreted all
along as a help to participating trainers, not as a favor to the researcher,

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[3]Stanley E. Sworder, "Handbook for Teachers of Adults", California
State Department of Education Bulletin, Vol. 20, No. 4 (May, 1951), p. 5

the university, or the Girl Scout organization. The trainers say they are eager to try out new ideas ("can't try this out until next spring, but I have high hopes....")

- It was based on felt needs ("I liked this evaluation; we can improve our shortcomings if we know them"; "writing things down and thinking about them inevitably leads to learning").

- It was a very specific and concrete program for the individual, based on each person's individual goals ("after setting down my goals I started to really work toward them").

- It related past experiences and current situations through the emphasis on transfer of learning implied in the plan. (One trainer comments about the instructor in a bird watching course she attended: "Her alertness to sounds and sights around and still being always conscious of each student in her class taught me much on how to teach my leaders").

- The participants are learning-conscious and enjoyed it ("I find that every day there is something new and interesting to be learned and the nice part of it is to be able to share this learning with others in my training").

From Evaluative Judgment to Actual Practice?

The trainer-learners who participated in the experimental in-service training program noted what they think is evidence of improved practice acquired through this learning experience. This touches on the general concern of all leadership trainers: What are the chances for practical application of the training experience to the trainer-learner's own group situation after the termination of a training program?

Two important factors often working against practical application of the learning in a more formal leadership training program were absent here: (1) drastic differences between the group setting of the training and home situation and (2) the varying expectations and abilities of participants in group training. Instead, the training was concerned with the educational implications of the ongoing leadership (not in an artificial setting) and the expectations were self-chosen, not imposed by a set curriculum or adjusted to those of co-students.

Possible Adaptations and Uses of the Continuous Learning Plan Scheme

Leaders and trainers of leaders in community organizations with a commitment to individualized and creative leadership rather than a leadership "type" conforming to definite program goals and patterns could include some similar self learning in their leadership training program with variations on each of the four steps described.

Step 1. Important is the practical help given to trainers in not just collecting student reactions, but in studying these comments as the basis for evaluating the training program and the trainer's performance. Organizations requiring reports on each training event from the instructor could attach a brief "Instructor's Guide" with any student comment or reaction forms or check lists; the guide could consist just of a few leading questions or a work sheet for tabulating, summarizing, and assessing the students' opinions about the training. The suggested questions could be varied with different programs and with changing objectives for the total program.

Step 2. Here supervisors can be very helpful because it is not easy to look objectively at one's own shortcomings and abilities and particularly to decide on one or more specific, practical, and achievable goals for improving one's performance. Guidance could be given in individual or group conferences, through correspondence, or on the telephone.

Step 3. Instead of providing only an outline, specific ways for formal and informal leadership education could be suggested, available both in the agency or in the community at large - courses, educational broadcasts, conferences or institutes held by other organizations or educational institutions, publications, etc. I suggest that there will be more follow-up if learning opportunities are not just promoted in a general way, but that a specific training event, article in a periodical, or TV program should be pointed out which touches upon the person's area of interest and need as identified in Step 2. Steps 2 and 3 could be handled in one personal contact between supervisor or coordinator and the individual leader.

Step 4, of course, would not consist of a final report as in the research project, but could be a progress report, a periodical summary, an opportunity to give encouragement and support, to show appreciation, to arrive at an honest appraisal, and to plan for continuous education and development. "One of the major goals of any individual, particularly of leaders, is to learn how to learn. If leaders can learn from failures, frustrations, disappointments, achievements and despairs, they will have found a major dimension of leadership."[4]

[4] Gordon L Lippitt, "Elements of Leadership Growth" in Leadership in Action, National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, Washington, D.C., 1961.

EVALUATING THE TRAINING EFFORT*

Joseph Wolfe

Training directors have at their disposal a technique that can help them increase their effectiveness and impact within the organization. This technique, known as the experimental program evaluation, can radically alter the profile and effectiveness of the training function.

The corporate training, by utilizing this new technique, can place himself squarely in the center of organizational development - but to do so he must understand and apply rigorous evaluation techniques to his training and development programs.

Classical Experimental Ideal

After a number of pioneering studies in the 1950's, the characteristics of reliable and rigorous evaluative research design have been firmly established. In evaluating a management development program, that evaluation's ideal methodology would have all the earmarks of the classic laboratory experiment. It would have the quantified, accurate and objective measurement of change from the "before" training state to the "after," the strict identification and isolation of cause and effect, the use of statistically equivalent experimental and control groups which have been subjected to the same before and after measures, and at a minimum, a specification of the instantaneous and short-run effects of the training effort. Diagramatically, the evaluation would look like:

$$E_1 \ T \ E_2$$
$$C_1 \quad C_2$$

where the experimental group (E_1) and the control group (C_1) are statistically the same and E_2 and C_2 are those same groups at the end of the training program with only the experimental group receiving the treatment or training (T). In this logically foolproof design, any differences between E_2 and C_2 must be attributed to the training given

and to no other source.[1,2]

Review of Past Studies

The evaluation procedure just noted is the ideal and theoretical absolute and serves as the model for training program evaluations. If the training director is to improve upon his efforts and performance, he must implement as rigorous an evaluation scheme as possible.

Reviewing a convenience sample of 21 of the better known and publicly available studies that have attempted a rigorous evaluation of training program effectiveness, it is apparent that they often fail to include many of the crucial elements needed to accomplish a valid and reliable evaluation.[3] The sample also illustrates what has been done for it is upon past efforts that today's training director makes his own progress.

Table 1 illustrates that the (1) use of controls of some type, and (2) an attempt to gauge on-the-job behavior change, has become almost standard procedure. Once past these two points, however, all sorts of methodological varieties crop up. Ideally there should be a random assignment of members to the experimental and the control group; if this cannot be accomplished, a control group should be established that has been matched to the experimental group in every relevant and distinguishable aspect.

Whatever the method for creating the control, its statistical equivalency or "sameness" to the experimental group must be determined. In our convenience sample, only two studies featured random assignment while another seven had attempted to match a control to the trained group; it could not be determined if equivalency had been obtained in every case.

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[1] The Solomon four-group design extends the diagram to measure and control the effects of any contamination brought about by testing the control and experimental groups in their "before" state. Solomon suggests adding an E3 and C3 with a treatment applied to E3. See Richard L. Solomon, "An Extension of Control Group Design," Psychological Bulletin, Vol. 46, No. 2 (March 1949).

[2] A placebo applied to the control group would put into relief the real effects of the training versus the effects of the act of training. As Edward A. Suchman concludes though, the use of placebos in any application other than in clinical and drug evaluation studies is largely hypothetical. See the Discussion in his Evaluative Research: Principles and Practice in

Table 1

Evaluation Study Characteristics

Characteristic Study	Control	Type of Control		Measurement		Standardized and Validated Instruments	Tests of Program Inputs	Focus of Evaluation			
								Short-Term Effects		Long-Term Effects	
		Random Assignment	Matched or Equivalency	Before Training	After Training			Reaction	Learning	Behavioral Change	Operational Performance
Osterberg and Lindbom (1953)	No	–	–	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
Blocker (1955)	No	–	–	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Fleishman, Harris and Burtt (1955)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Barthol and Zeigler (1956)	No	–	–	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No
Buchanan (1957)	No	–	–	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No
Goodacre (1957)	Yes	Yes	–	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
Massey (1957)	Yes	–	Yes	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	No	Yes
Moon and Hariton (1958)	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Sorenson (1958)	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Buchanan and Brunstetter (1959)	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Stroud (1959)	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	Yes/No[1]	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
Mahoney, Jerdee and Korman (1960)	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes	No	No
Miles (1960)	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	No
House and Tosi (1963)	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	Yes	No
Carron (1964)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No
Moffie, Calhoun and O'Brien (1964)	Yes	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No
Miles (1965)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Thorley (1969)	No	–	–	No	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Baum, Sorensen and Place (1970)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	Yes	No
Hayes and Williams (1971)	No	–	–	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes	No	No
Roy and Dolke (1971)	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	No	No

[1] Test consisted of Fleishman <u>Leadership Opinion Questionnaire</u> and case studies

Must Know "Before" State

In measuring the amount of change brought about, it is necessary to know the trainee's state before the training has begun - and it is best if the measurement is made with an instrument of proven accuracy. In our sample, eight of 21 of the evaluations used no before measurements, and of those evaluations that did perform a pre-training measurement, about two-thirds of them used standardized and validated test instruments. When conducting a training program, it is also useful to know which of the program's inputs or materials were the most effective. Here the concern is more with how the change was brought about rather than the how much?[4]

It might be interesting to the training director to know that after 30 hours of exposure to a comprehensive human relations program, 80 per cent of the trainee's attitude change could be attributed to an outstandingly good 20-minute BNA training film; or perhaps all the time and effort spent to create six original in-house case studies were completely wasted after it was discovered that the case method is an ineffective way of teaching management principles. In any event, only four of 21 evaluations attempted to determine which training inputs were the most productive.

Test Four Areas

It was noted earlier that most of the evaluations focused their attention on some type of behavioral change on the job. In evaluating a training program, the evaluator can and should test for (1) a reaction

Public Service and Social Action Programs, New York, Russell Sage Foundation 1967, pp. 96-100.

[3]While not an exhaustive compilation, the studies reviewed represent some of the more ambitious evaluations performed and described in the literature over the past 20 years. Entrance into the sample was also determined by a desire to demonstrate the chronological development that has occurred in evaluative research.

[4]This question (How?) can be answered within the context of the evaluation if it has been asked early enough during the formulation stage of the evaluative study.

from at least the trainee,[5] (2) the amount of learning or attitude change
that went on, (3) a difference in the way the trainee behaves once he
returns from the training experience, and (4) an improvement in the
working unit's operating performance.[6]

These tests also delineate the necessary parts of the successful
training process. To train, the student must first be jarred or upset.
After the trainee is jogged, he can be taught something. After he is
taught something, the trainer can look for some outward manifestation of
an internal mental change. This change in behavior or different way of
acting also demonstrates that the student is practicing on the material
and is less likely to lose the skill through a lack of use.

The Ultimate Test

Purely academic educators must be satisfied with achieving the first
three elements. But, because this is training, the ultimate test of
effectiveness must be met - namely an improvement in an indicator of
operational performance. Typical operating indicators are higher profits,
lower absenteeism, a higher return on assets controlled by the unit, or
lower labor costs. The only reason the trainer wants a reaction is so
that he can impart material, and the only reason he wants to impart
material is to get the manager to behave differently.

The trainer must not be content with behavior change only, for change
must be translated into something meaningful to the organization. Behavior
change without operational improvement is a barren adventure. However
barren this adventure, most of the evaluations surveyed looked for a
change in the manager's behavior without looking for the organizationally
meaningful operating improvement. The evaluations also failed to system-
atically[7] determine reactions or the amount of learning that actually

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[5] Other relevant reactions would be the trainer's reaction and an
outside auditor's appraisal of classroom procedure.

[6] This reaction, learning, behavioral change, and operational per-
formance schema is only a slight modification of Donald L. Kirkpatrick,
"Techniques for Evaluating Training Programs," Journal of the American
Society of Training Directors, Part I, Vol. 13, No. 11 (November 1959).

[7] The word systematically is used here, for trainees are reacting
whether their reactions are recorded or not. The trainer is also very much
aware of student reactions from the classroom experience. What is stressed
here is the systematic codification of reaction so some type of analysis

took place. Many studies jumped to some external indicator of reaction and learning by attaching themselves to behavior change as if behavior change proved that the trainee learned and reacted in the fashion desired by the trainer.[8]

Some Emulation Attempted

Although none of the studies completely fulfilled the requirements of the experimental ideal, in more recent years the evaluators have at least attempted to emulate the laboratory experimental model. In constructing their more rigorous evaluations, they have been aided by the development of valid paper and pencil tests, and where these have been absent, they have better theory from which they can construct their own test instruments.

From the array of evaluations surveyed, the most rigorous ones were those conducted by Miles (1960 and 1965), Goodacre (1957), Fleishman, Harris and Burtt (1955), Baum, Sorensen and Place (1970), and Roy and Dolke (1971). As a group, they featured before and after measures on both control and experimental groups, and many used standardized measuring devices. Almost all attempted to measure the trainee's degree of on-the-job behavior change. The most comprehensive evaluation was performed by Fleishman, Harris and Burtt as they measured the trainee's reaction, learning and behavior change.

Evaluations and the Trainer

The published evaluations demonstrate what has been done and how complete and incomplete the science of evaluation is at this time. It is heartening to see the continuing improvement in evaluation methodology and theory - especially within the last 10 years.

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can be performed.

[8]Many would say that a behavior change is prima facie evidence that learning has occurred but actually the trainee may be acting differently because he has been singled out for training rather than actually being trained. This training effect is especially hard to separate out from the training process and has been mentioned in footnote 2.

It is unfortunate, however, that few of the evaluations were
performed by those in charge of the training function. Too often the
evaluations were performed by academicians and consultants on a sporadic
basis rather than on a continuing basis; too often evaluation expertise
was imported for the occasion.

This does not bode well for the training director for it is his
present and future credibility that is at stake. The line operations of
the firm have a profit and loss or budgetary system that keeps tabs on
their effectiveness. Because an effectiveness system for the training
department does not exist, it is up to the training director to create a
viable one or be forced to accept arbitrary budgetary decisions from top
management.[9]

No Justification in "Crunch"

Too often, when a budget crunch is imminent, the training director
cannot justify, in benefits to the organization, monies spent on training.
Under these circumstances, top management is probably justified when it
cuts back in the "soft" personnel and training areas when "hard" and
tangible profits can be seen emanating from plant and equipment expen-
ditures. Faced with this situation, the harassed training director can
only appeal to top-management's concern for the long-run, or "prove"
training results with hastily assembled and conceptually weak post hoc
evaluations.

The training director's situation was put into relief at a seminar
recently conducted by the author. With attendees a cross-section of all
industries in an urban area, one had to conclude that none of the directors
were doing anything meaningful to evaluate their training efforts. While
there was full agreement over the need to evaluate the effectiveness of
their training programs, there was disagreement over the focus of the
evaluation and the methods to be used. They also doubted their own ability
to mount a meaningful evaluation project and they doubted also anyone else's
ability to do so. Ultimately they doubted that any results from the type
of evaluation that could be performed would be worth the time or expense.

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[9] In responding to a questionnaire that asked members of the American
Society for Training and Development to rank the importance of their activities,
no specific reference was made to creating evaluation systems. Instead they
ranked the conducting and leading of conferences of first importance and the
designing and development of training programs of next importance. See Myron
Roomkin, "Who Are ASTD Members?" Training and Development Journal, Vol. 25,

Evaluations Not Meaningful

This does not mean they were not performing any evaluations - it just meant that they were not performing meaningful ones. Most firms asked for the participant's reaction to the particular program.[10] One was using a consultant to conduct a procedural analysis of its programmed learning materials. Another firm had performed an uncontrolled substantive evaluation of two programs conducted for them by the American Management Assn.[11]

On a gradient of sophistication, all firms were using what would be termed a common-sense evaluation, a few were employing systematic evaluation in the form of reaction questionnaires, while none were using any form of experimental evaluation as outlined in this article.

A Positive Approach

The question "can evaluations be made?" is no longer the central one, for as demonstrated, some type of evaluation can be made. The question now is: "How can more meaningful evaluations be made?" In one way or another, for better or for worse, the firm's training function is being evaluated - the point now is to make evaluations systematic, objective, and productive. The experimental ideal and its rationale have been outlined and the evaluator's progress and deficiencies have been noted. It is now up to those in control to implement and improve upon training evaluations within their organizations.

The reasons given for not attempting to evaluate are numerous: it costs too much, it is impossible to establish controls, measuring devices are not available, the staff is not qualified, the statistical work is too

No. 5 (May 1971), p. 35.

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[10]This conforms to the results of the Cantalanello and Kirkpatrick study which found that 77 per cent of the 154 companies surveyed measured trainees' reactions to their training programs; little else was measured. See Ralph F. Cantalanello and Donald L. Kirkpatrick, "Evaluating Training Programs - the State of the Art," Training and Development Journal, Vol. 22, No. 5 (May 1968).

[11]A procedural evaluation concerns itself with the quality of the training program's inputs while a substantive evaluation looks to the training program's results or impact.

cumbersome and complicated, it is impossible to determine the relationship between training and results, too many variables are operating at the same time, the evaluation results are too theoretical and do not prove anything, ad infinitum.

These problems can be solved by an ingenious, vigorous and aggressive training director. As part of a total training project, the costs of evaluation are minor. Also, because those evaluations that are conducted are done on a piecemeal basis, there is little synergism or few economies of scale. Many of the other excuses can be accommodated through careful planning. As stated by Goodacre, "the design for the experimental evaluation, including criteria, controls, and statistics, should be developed as an integral part of the training program, not as an afterthought."[12]

While the training program is being formulated, the objectives of the program should be clearly stated, the most practical methods for accomplishing the objectives should be chosen, and success criteria should be selected which can be measured and are meaningful to both the operating supervisor and top management. At this time the realities of what can be accomplished with the in-house evaluation expertise will also be put into relief.

Ingenuity Needed

Rather than being humiliated into apathy and defeat, the trainer can either reach outside the organization for expert advice, or thoroughly "go to school" on the literature and make applications and adjustments using other evaluations as models.[13] Whatever the course of action chosen, ingenuity and resourcefulness will have to be employed to carry the project to its end; the problems of experimental evaluation in the real world are difficult but they are not insurmountable.

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[12] Daniel M. Goodacre, "The Experimental Evaluation of Management Training: Principles and Practice," Personnel, Vol. 33, No. 6 (May 1957) p. 535.

[13] Outside consultants should be used in an advisory capacity only, however, tempting it is to let them perform the evaluation. If consultants are used, use them for advice only, understand completely why they make the judgments they do based upon what training and evaluation theory, and require that they leave behind them their tools so you can use and re-work them again in future evaluations of your own.

For example, the author solved the problem of control in one evaluation study by publicizing the program intensively throughout the organization, thus creating an oversubscription to the program. As the course was designed to accommodate 20 participants and 41 signed up for it, a random assignment of persons into the experimental and control groups created two almost equally-sized groups with statistically identical characteristics.[14]

In the area of measuring devices, the author, rather than using a standard paper and pencil test, had to contruct a focused interview schedule to determine the effects of a ghetto management training program. In this case, the task was to determine the reactions, learning and behavior changes of potential black entrepreneurs. The lack of a standard test was not a great hardship for the focused interview technique is especially appropriate in unstructured and unique situations. This evaluation was more exploratory in nature and was a necessary first step so that more rigorous program evaluations could be made in the future.

An Evaluation-Centered Strategy

Although the study and application of evaluation methodology can be pursued as a science unto itself for its own virtues, evaluations can also serve as a means to the end of organizational effectiveness. The training department can make itself a pivotal factor in achieving organizational effectiveness if it can design and implement programs that insure that the firm's manpower development programs conform to the firm's need for organizational growth and effectiveness.

As gathered from the seminar, training directors have handicapped themselves by not being able to improve their effectiveness objectively. Quite often the training director's clout within the organization has depended upon the good will of top management. While there is no denying that many executive decisions must be made on faith alone, top management's faith can be tested only so many times. Rather than relying on faith, it is proposed that the training director rely less on exortation and more on

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[14]The evaluator, in this example, had to wrestle with the moral issue of depriving training to the 21 control group members who asked for training and probably needed it. In the short-run this must be done so the training all individuals in the firm receive will be better. Also once an individual has served as a control, there is no reason he cannot be offered a similar course at a later date.

on positive, results-oriented action. What is proposed is the system as depicted in Chart 1 where evaluations play a central and action-oriented role.

Chart 1

An Evaluation-Centered Training System
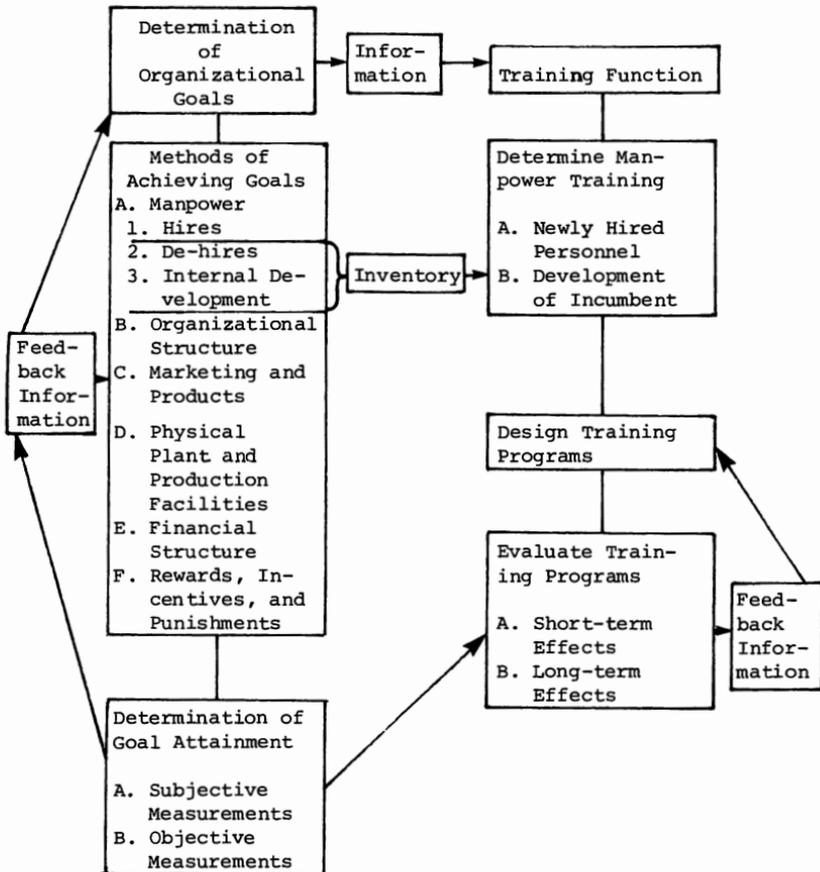
Goals Identified

In this system, top or central management informs the training director of its overall organizational goals. The training director then determines the training needs. This training needs inventory must include not only those already held within the organization, but also those who are brought in from the outside.

. After inventorying and determining training needs, the trainer must construct a series of training programs that hopefully will correct any deficiencies that have been discovered. When constructing the programs, the training director must build in effectiveness evaluations so he will be able to monitor and correct his own performance. After conducting a number of programs, major revisions can be made if necessary, and training results, both internal and external to the training department are reported back to top management. Within his department, the trainer can measure the short-term effects of his programs in the classroom; to measure the long-term effects, the trainer must look outside his department for on-the-job behavior change and operational results.

Risks Involved

This strategy, which should heighten the training department's profile, is not without risks. The strategy requires the training director to cast himself into an aggressive and opportunistic mold - a mold that is foreign to many trainers. The strategy also requires the training director to ready himself for a number of short-run defeats and confidence shattering experiences - an anachronistic result of many training evaluations is that the more rigorous the research design becomes, the more likely the experiment will prove that the training is failing to accomplish its purpose.

But these risks must be taken for the ultimate viability of the organization's training function. As the training department begins to acquire greater sophistication and evaluations become part and parcel of training efforts, the results of the evaluations will begin to manifest themselves throughout the organization. As these results are felt in

higher and higher places, the department's credibility will increase thus making it easier to mount even more adventuresome and meaningful program evaluations.

Conclusion

Trainers need not proceed blindly regarding the effectiveness of their training programs. The experimental program evaluation can do much to discover the degree to which training and results are actually being brought about. This does not mean that there is not much work to do until evaluations become a science. At least the theory and methodology of program evaluation is known; enough pioneering studies have been conducted to crystallize what must be done to accomplish a worthwhile evaluation. More and more of the reported studies contain controls and are using before and after measurements with standardized tests. Most of the evaluations tend not to be very comprehensive though - they often focus on only one or two aspects or effects of the training process.

If used properly, a training system, that includes consistent and comprehensively applied audits and evaluations, can do much to make the training department a more effective operating unit within the organization. The evaluations can provide the training director more solid information with which he can audit and correct his own performance. Also, if the evaluations are focused more on the long-term effects of the training, the trainer can more directly and concretely gauge and demonstrate his contributions to the firm.

In the future, the training director must conduct evaluations that will include not only an audit of classroom procedures, but also the effects of the various teaching techniques, devices and inputs, as well as the staying power of training's effects.

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THE DEVELOPMENT OF A TRAINING PROGRAM
FOR COORDINATORS OF VOLUNTEER PROGRAMS*

John C. Anderson and Robert B. Dougans

As our society continually increases in complexity and becomes ever
more pluralistic, organizations develop to act as a mediator between the
individual and his society. The voluntary organization is one such
mediator and participation in these associations is one way for individ-
uals to relate more meaningfully to society. Schindler-Rainman and Lip-
pitt (1971) state that "most volunteer activity not only represents a
significant contribution of energy and skill and individual resources to
the functioning of democracy, but also makes a significant contribution
to the volunteer's own psychological health and self-actualization" (p. 15).
Volunteers play an important part in our modern world.

Naylor (1967) emphasizes the importance of considering the volunteer
as an individual. She states:

> the people who direct volunteers can ensure that their
> decisions are relevant to today's volunteers if they
> validate their habits and assumptions anew against to-
> day's realities. Volunteers are made or broken by the
> practices of executives, program and service staff,
> volunteer officers, nominating committees, recruiters,
> and trainers" (p. 8).

This statement implores the coordinator of volunteer programs to
get the necessary training to enable the effective use of the volunteers
under his/her direction, providing both satisfaction of the volunteer's
needs and attainment of the organization's goals.

The present study has two main objectives:

(a) to determine the perceived training needs of the volunteer
coordinators, and

(b) to develop a training program from that information.

Method

Interviews were held with a sample of paid administrators of volunteer
programs (N=13). Those individuals interviewed were asked in what areas
they required further training or conversely in what areas should all
coordinators be trained. The same questions were asked of participants
of an Institute of Volunteers (1972) who were either in this administra-
tive position or in some way connected with an agency using volunteers.

Two other sources were consulted (MacDonald, 1972; and Twidle, 1971)
which had assessed training needs for volunteer coordinators.

Results

Table 1 presents the results of the writer's two primary sources of
information. These results indicate that there are two major need areas
which require improvement. On the one hand, many coordinators appear to
be lacking in administrative skills - particularly training, recruiting,
and selection techniques, report preparation, and budgetary procedures.
On the other hand, the coordinators expressed a need for training in
human relations skills enabling them to deal more effectively with
problems of the volunteers, facilitating better communication with
superiors, other agencies, and the public.

Table 1

Frequency of Response to Training Needs

Perceived Needs	Institute N=34		Interviews N=13	
	# responses	%	# responses	%
Human relations skills	15	44.1	5	38.4
Actual training techniques	13	38.2	4	30.8
Publicity and use of media	2	5.9	–	–
Recruiting and selection techniques	5	14.7	5	38.4
Fund raising	3	8.8	–	–
Writing and presenting briefs	5	14.7	3	23.0
Budgeting and record keeping	2	5.9	6	46.1
Effective listening	2	5.9	–	–
Organization and its structure	2	5.9	1	7.7
Problem sessions	11	32.3	8	61.5

Although the volunteer coordinator may be a highly trained individual who understands what must be done to meet certain objectives, their lack of training in either elementary or advanced office skills limits their effectiveness in performing their job. In the selection of volunteers, for example, many coordinators would be better able to maximize the benefit of the volunteer to the agency and the community if their own skill in selection and evaluation techniques was more comprehensive. The development of administrative skills would free the volunteer coordinator to deal more fully with the primary occupational areas in which he is trained, rather than becoming excessively involved with less important and time consuming procedures.

In many cases, the leadership style of the coordinator may also determine whether the success of a volunteer program is either mediocre or outstanding. Moreover, only if the coordinator is made fully aware of this fact will he be able to take corrective action. The coordinator is, by definition a communicator and must be able to relate to a large and diverse group of individuals, ranging from the new volunteer to the knowledgeable board of directors who head many of the community agencies. By implication, then, the coordinator should benefit from small group sessions, training in interpersonal relations, and increased under-standing of their own impact upon others.

Table 2 depicts the perceived training needs across all four sources of data. This table again emphasizes the dichotomy between the human relations and administrative skills. In all cases, it was continually stated that a "how to" approach must be taken in offering any course.

Table 2

Training Needs Across Four Studies

Perceived Need	Twidle	MacDonald	Institute	Interviews
Human relations skills - communication - motivation - leadership, etc.		x	x	x
Actual training techniques	x		x	x
Publicity and use of media		x	x	
Recruiting and selection techniques	x		x	x
Fund raising			x	
Writing and presenting briefs			x	x
Budgeting and record keeping		x	x	x
Planning and use of volunteers	x			x
Organization and its structure	x	x	x	x

Recommended Training Program

The purpose of this study is to provide additional training for employed coordinators. A range of alternatives are available which offer the type of training program that could be operated to meet the afore-mentioned needs of the coordinator. A full-time day program was considered in several forms but rejected because of the time constraints of the potential participants. Another alternative was to tap into extension and night school courses. This was rejected as although these courses may meet the upgrading requirements of one individual, it was doubtful that it would be true of all coordinators. It was therefore decided that a course would be developed to be offered under the auspices of Community Education Services, a branch of the Vancouver School Board. This approach will, in a minimal amount of time, develop the desired "how to" skills in the individuals. The program would also only commit the participants to one night per week. One main advantage is that it allows the course to be run once, evaluated, and then run again in a modified form or dropped either because of lack of demand or enthusiasm. On the basis of the information available, a curriculum has been devised.

The training program should attempt to provide new and improved techniques for the volunteer coordinators, to enable them to function effectively in the agency position. The emphasis of the program will be on getting the student actively involved in the classroom situation. Discussion and questions will, at all times, be welcome. Volunteers will be encouraged to recount personal experiences in voluntaryism, as a way of illustrating and relating classroom theory with real life situations.

The training program should be presented in an environment which is conducive to small group discussion and comfort. For example, the faculty lounge or seminar rooms would be the most likely rooms to be used in a high school. Chairs should be comfortable and moveable. At the same time, an auxiliary room should be available for certain class exercises (for instance, video taping).

Each three hour session should be broken up by at least one twenty minute break. Coffee should be made available at all times for course participants.

All student exercises should be evaluated quickly and in some detail. The marking of assignments should include constructive criticism at all times. Where gross errors have been made, the student should be encouraged to meet with the course coordinator for help.

At the completion of the course, each student will receive a Certificate of Achievement for completing the program. First class and second class designations on the certificate will indicate where the student stands on the basis of completed assignments and classroom participation.

The course must be evaluated by the students who will participate in it. A questionnaire would appear to make the most sense as the method of soliciting opinions about the program. A great deal of care must, however, be taken in the designing of the instrument so that biased responses would be minimized. A separate comment sheet should also be included with the evaluation so that members could describe their perceptions of the course in their own words.

It is recommended that the course coordinator meet with individual course participants for an informal discussion and interview at least once during the training period. Not only will the course coordinator get feedback about the course, but he will be able to assess the students' progress and capabilities as well.

Finally, students do not have to attend all classes if they feel that certain topics are not of importance to them. However, everyone must register for the program in the first week.

Justification of the Training Program

The information gathered from responses of participants in the Centre for Continuing Education's Institute of Volunteers and through personal interviews with volunteers indicates that certain needs must be fulfilled by the proposed training program. Chief among these topics for study are: human relations skills, actual training methods, recruitment and selection techniques, writing and presentation of briefs, budgeting and record keeping, and problem sessions. (Refer to Tables 1 and 2.)

The training program that has been designed, attempts to provide the present or potential volunteer coordinator with the basic skills to enable him to function effectively in his position. Initially, the recruitment process is examined with emphasis being placed on the definition and presentation of a job description[1], as well as certain recruiting methods. The following week continues to pursue this topic with a discussion of interviewing as the evening's main topic. A simulated interview situation has been included to confront the students with an experience much like that which occurs in real life. Inasmuch as a great deal of a volunteer coordinator's time is spent in recruiting, interviewing and placing a volunteer, the two weeks allocated to this subject are necessary.

After the volunteer has been recruited and interviewed, the coordinator will become responsible for the orientation of the individual within the agency and the job. Week 4, then, attempts to show the

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[1] While investigating the Volunteer Bureau and agencies the researchers found that job descriptions did not in fact exist for a great number of volunteer coordinators and staff personnel.

student how to place the individual in the job, as well as indicating specific problems that may be encountered. The need to continually review and to be prepared to re-assign the volunteer to an alternate position is also stressed.

Every volunteer coordinator will either supervise or actually participate in the training of volunteers. Actual training techniques are, therefore, examined in the two class weeks following the orientation topic. In particular, assessment of training needs as a way of planning actual training methods is emphasized. A discussion of the various techniques, their advantages and disadvantages, and timing is then initiated. Week 6 concentrates on one particular training method - role-playing - and allows students to actually experience its use. Under the supervision of a skilled human relations trainer, the students will be encouraged to participate in the episode and to describe their reactions to their involvement and the role-play.

Up to this point in the program, the recruitment and selection techniques and the actual training techniques have been examined. The emphasis in following weeks will centre on human relations skills, and a practical "how to" approach to presentation and writing of briefs, public relations, and managerial skills.

Every organization that exists through human interaction rests on its ability to motivate individuals to pursue the objectives and plans of the organization. The topic of motivation and, in particular, the way motivation and the volunteer must be approached is important. Week 7 examines some motivational theories and techniques as they relate to the volunteer's environment.

Weeks 8 and 9 have been planned around the objective of providing the volunteer coordinator with the skill to communicate effectively with other agencies, the Board of Directors of the agency, and the community. The writing and presentation of briefs is followed by a night on public relations. The way the media can be used to the agency's advantage is discussed, as is the correct form of presenting press or news releases. Inasmuch as the volunteer movement depends on good relations with the community, the need for effective communication techniques cannot be underestimated.

Table 3

Week Number Topic	Subject Matter	Handout	Assignment	Resource Person
1. Registration	Introduction and overview of the course	Binder to hold all distributed materials and orientation to course handout	Read material for next session	Program Coordinator
2. Recruiting Process	Objectives, manpower requirements, job descriptions, how and where to recruit	Two or three pages on major topic, with a "how to" approach	Each class member will be expected to write up a job description	Person skilled in recruiting at the professional or volunteer level with ability to relate theory with practical examples
3. Interviewing	Techniques, what the interviewer should accomplish; video tape of simulated interview; interview role play with use of video tape feedback; discussion of selection and placement	A paper on the do's and don'ts of the interview	From experience, each member will relate faults and biases inherent in interviewing	Specialist on interviewing procedures and use of video tape feedback
4. Orientation	Methods of orientation, problems encountered with new volunteers, reviewing and re-assigning the volunteer	Explanation of basic aims and methods of orientation	Develop a training program for the volunteers in your own agency	An individual who is involved in orienting and directing new volunteers
5. Actual Training Methods	How to assess training needs, an overview and discussion of advantages and disadvantages of the use of various training methods	Outline and description of each method with advantages and disadvantages	Concentrated research on one method	Training director or supervisor, teacher or professor

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Week Number	Topic	Subject Matter	Handout	Assignment	Resource Person
6.	Human Relations I	Role playing episode developed from a case related to voluntaryism; use of video tape feedback; tie in what this technique offers vis-a-vis communications within the organization and between people	Two or three pages on role playing; use, advantages and disadvantages	Each participant will be expected to submit their personal feelings about the role play, what they learned and how it can be applied to their organization	Skilled human relations trainer
7.	Motivation	Basic motivational theory and how it relates to the volunteer; the problems of maintaining motivation without money as an incentive; the need for recognition	Two or three pages on motivational theory related to voluntaryism	Rewrite a poorly presented brief for oral class presentation	College professor
8.	Writing and Presentation of Briefs	Review of assignment; a "how to" approach to writing briefs; the need for salesmanship; effective listening	Notes on briefs	Prepare two press releases concerning their agencies current activities	Teacher of business English
9.	Public Relations	How to use the media; how to prepare press releases; relations with the Board	A "how to" approach to contacting and using the media	No assignment	Public relations officer or news representative
10.	Bookkeeping and Managerial Skills	Basic budgeting; keeping personnel and financial records; office supervision; delegation	Overview of budgeting techniques, and two pages on managerial skill and behavior in offices	Students are given a fixed amount of funds to budget and plan	An experienced office manager with a background in management information systems
11.	Human Relations II	Communication, leadership, conflict and cooperation	Recommended reading list	Read in the area	College professor
12.	Final Session	Evaluation, questions and discussion; social evening	Certificates of completion	Work effectively	Program Coordinator

Each agency must also learn to operate within a specified budget allotted to it. The volunteer coordinator must function as an accountant and financier in spreading out the allotted funds over the agency's fiscal year. The ability to maintain proper books, to plan and estimate expenditures and other operating costs is also important. Also, the coordinator must know certain operating skills and be able to control the office staff of the agency. With respect to this latter requirement, delegation of responsibility and approaches to discipline are skills that should be acquired, if the coordinator is to be effective.

The final training week, Week 11, attempts to re-focus the student's attention on the human relations environment which encompasses the volunteer organization. The volunteer agency relies, for its existence, on people; people who are willing to donate their time and resources to helping others. The importance of human relations skills must be re-emphasized to the students as a way of sensitizing them to their organization's needs, aspirations and complexities.

Conclusion

A training program has been developed which is based upon the actual perceived needs of administrators of volunteer programs. For the most part individuals now filling these positions have moved from the professions - social work, nursing, teaching - to an administrative role. This program will provide them with the necessary "how to" skills in a minimum of time, and with a minimum cost. Hopefully, with better educated coordinators, the quality of volunteer programs will increase and the volunteer will be more effectively used and receive the satisfaction from his/her volunteer work that is expected.

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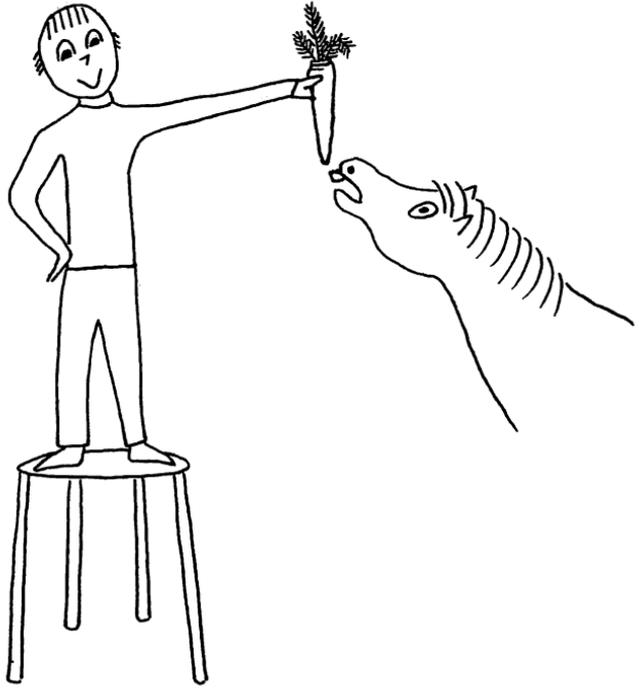
Section 4
Motivation and Reward Systems

SECTION 4 - INTRODUCTION

MOTIVATION AND REWARD SYSTEMS

It is well known that people have needs, wants, and desires - a need for food when hungry, sleep when tired and water when thirsty. But people's needs go beyond the physiological to those of protection, love, esteem, and personal fulfillment. It is also well known that people strive or are motivated to satisfy their needs. Webster's dictionary defines a motive as "something (as a need or desire) that causes a person to act". An interesting and important question for the volunteer administrator is: 'What motivates people to volunteer their time and energy?'.

To answer this question, it is assumed that the individual has needs and that somehow the act of volunteering helps to meet those needs. Many possible motivations of volunteers have been previously identified and a thorough search of the literature resulted in a list of ten recurringly mentioned motivations.

1. altruism - to help others
2. to improve the community
3. to meet people
4. to occupy spare time
5. for self fulfillment
6. to feel useful and needed
7. recognition - friends are volunteers
8. for personal development
9. to gain experience in a chosen career
10. someone asked

These are a few of the most common reasons why people volunteer, but it is important to remember that each individual has a unique set of needs and motives and that those needs may differ from the above.

A second issue plaguing the administrator is to learn why some people continue to do volunteer work while others stop. A volunteer will stay a volunteer only as long as his needs are being met, but it is not impossible for a need to become satiated so that it ceases to exist; in which case the volunteer, to stay motivated in his work, must satisfy other, more dominant needs. After the individual actually becomes a volunteer and commences working, his motives may alter, again making it

necessary that the work gratify these new motives. On the other hand, it would be unreasonable to assert that a volunteer stays or leaves only on the basis of whether or not his needs are being met. There are many practical reasons which have not been considered here, such as distance from the agency, age, fulltime work, etc., but need satisfaction of volunteers is a major concern for the volunteer administrator.

An apparent truth of the voluntary sector is the lack of availability of the reward used so extensively by industry - money. Without money, how does the agency reward the volunteer? Most organizations have three types of rewards at their disposal: (1) Financial rewards - salary, incentive bonuses, profit sharing; (2) rewards of the system - increased respon- sibility, promotion, training; and (3) the intrinsic rewards - satisfaction, recognition, and challenge. In the main, volunteer programs have been limited to the third by meeting the needs of the volunteer, thanking him/her for participating, and providing immediate feedback where possible. Recently though, with more funding for volunteer programs, money has become available at least to reimburse volunteers for out-of-pocket expenses. With new legislation in the United States, time spent in bona fide volunteer work will be tax deductible. This increased funding and the increased availability of courses, institutes, and workshops on volun- teerism has allowed more volunteers to be sponsored for further training. Depending on size, autonomy, and relationship with staff, it is maybe possible to use increased responsibility and internal promotion as a reward. Volunteer programs have more rewards available to them now than in the past, the only problem is putting them to proper use.

For a reward to have the desired effect, that of reinforcing a positive behavior, it must be valued by the volunteer, it must be linked as directly as possible with the behavior being rewarded, and the reward must follow the behavior as soon as possible. From conditioning theory we learn that a positive act does not need to be rewarded every time that it is exhibited but that, in fact, a variable schedule of rewards has the best reinforcing effect on behavior. If a desired behavior is not rewarded, it will tend to disappear, thus the use of rewards is especially important with volunteers.

One technique which will aid the volunteer administrator is being aware of, and maintaining the motivation level of the volunteers is performance appraisal. This method used correctly can have an immense benefit to the volunteer program. Performance appraisal is a two-way communication exercise designed to provide feedback to the volunteer on his performance. It is behavior, not personality, oriented. This is an opportunity for the volunteer and the volunteer administrator to reclarify their expectations of each other with respect to the task, to identify areas which need improvement and jointly to develop ways to attain that improvement, and to identify areas of strength and to build on them. The appraisal process should be developmental, not punitive, in nature. Performance appraisal is one method of maintaining and increasing motivation levels of the volunteers and possible even the volunteer administrator.

The articles in this section have been chosen to give the reader a balance of theoretical and practical literature in the field of motivation. The first article, by Abrahamson, points out that volunteers are individually different and stresses the importance of discovering the interests and strengths of each in order to help each to develop a positive job attitude.

Blumberg and Arsenian report the results of a study designed to gain knowledge about the values, attitudes and interests of volunteers. Knowles broadly develops the concept of motivation as it relates to voluntarism. In the fourth article, Cahoon and Epstein discuss a recently popular motivationally focussed performance appraisal and management system, "Management by Objectives". Finally, Spergel introduces the ideas of role perception, role prescription, role conflict and role integration and shows how a person's role relates to his expectations and ultimately to motivation.

WHO VOLUNTEERS? AND WHY*

Julia Abrahamson

What keeps volunteers working? Interest in their community, of
course, and a sense of responsibility for it. But they would not continue
to work month after month, year after year, if the experience were not
personally satisfying. It is up to the professional worker to make it so.
Whether she succeeds or fails depends primarily on her own personality
and attitudes. To work successfully with volunteers, certain qualities
are vital: warmth, thoughtfulness, sensitivity, an interest in and concern
for people, the ability to identify with them, a genuine respect for their
skills and their strengths.

Let's take a few examples.

Mrs. Gordon comes in to report for her first morning's work. She
is a little old lady who has recently lost her husband. You know from
having talked with her that she feels completely lost, is desperately
lonely, is unaccustomed to making decisions, feels she has no skills, is
afraid of responsibility. In her place you would approach the morning's
work, as she does, with fear and timidity. It is your job to make her
feel - what is true - that she is a responsible human being, who has come
to give the most valuable thing she has - her time - to an important cause.

You would introduce her to the other workers, perhaps by indicating
that this is Mrs. Gordon's first day, that she lives close to Mrs. Jones,
that she has come to help get the newsletter out. The explanation to
Mrs. Gordon about the work itself, which is necessarily routine, would
embody in it the relationship of that work to the program, so that Mrs.
Gordon may see the value of her job in its true perspective. She is not
just folding pages of paper. She is making it possible for the people in
the community to learn what is going on. Here she is one of a company of
people who are sharing in the same effort - the writers of the newsletter,
the volunteer who cut the stencils, the people who made the news, those
who ran the sheets off on the mimeograph machine, the volunteers who will
address and stamp and mail them. The feeling of having a job to do, the
sense of belonging, begins.

At 10 a.m., the coffee hour, everybody is ready for a slight break and conversation, including Mrs. Gordon. She is getting used to her job; it goes faster now, she wants to learn more about what the others are doing. By lunch time she seems to be part of the regular staff. Would Mrs. Gordon like to join Mrs. Jones and the secretary, who are sending out for sandwiches, or would she prefer to go out to a restaurant with Mrs. Smith and the file clerk? In either case, she has become a member of the group and feels her acceptance.

On her next work day, Mrs. Gordon may be given another phase of the newsletter job to do. As time goes on, you will learn the things about her that you can count on - her punctuality, her strong sense of responsibility, her inability to do a shoddy job, her quickness in learning. As she succeeds in one task after another, her willingness to tackle new jobs will grow; her potential strengths, unused before, will have a chance to develop. Within a few months Mrs. Gordon may be in charge of the corps of people who get the newsletter out.

The next volunteer may be completely different. He is Mr. Wallace, an architect, an exceedingly able one with a justifiably high opinion of his ability. He is a very busy man - much too busy to fritter away his time he points out - but he does feel a sense of obligation to his community and wants to help in any way he can. A sensitive professional will know that this is not a man to put on a committee, that he is not at his best as part of a team. Instead, in an advisory capacity, Mr. Wallace will be called on when there is a specific job to do; he will be performing an exceedingly valuable service, and he should be made to feel its importance to the purposes of the organization.

Suppose your next volunteer is Mrs. Krock, a top-flight secretary before her marriage. Motherhood has made it impossible for her to continue her working career. She is not at her best as a housekeeper, feels dissatisfied and frustrated. She needs an outlet for her skills, and your organization needs her abilities. You make arrangements for Mrs. Krock to come in daily for dictation, when she is out shopping. This is work which can be transcribed at home and returned the next day at the time of the baby's outing. Mrs. Krock's letters turn out to be

masterpieces of accuracy and beautiful typing. You let her know of your
enthusiasm for her work. As the weeks pass, and she takes on different
kinds of secretarial work, you find that she has a creative, searching
spirit and a gift for organization and administration. You have admin-
istrative and organizational problems. Share them with her. Encourage
her to develop new and more effective systems of operation. Ideas can
be developed at home.

Mr Jackson presents a different problem. He works at a job he
dislikes because family responsibilities make it impossible for him to
break away and start afresh at a smaller salary. He seems to be a thought-
ful, clear-thinking, objective person. He likes people and wants to be
useful, but he hasn't any special skills and has no time during the day.
He thinks well of the idea of block organization through which neighbors
work together to solve the problems common to their blocks. He even
points out a number of problems on his own block that cry out for activity.
But he doesn't think of himself as a leader. "You get someone else to
start a block organization," he says, "and I'll help out." You believe
that he does have leadership qualities, but you don't argue. Instead
you ask whether he would consider getting a few of his neighbors together
in his home to discuss the problems of the block. After an evening's
discussion, they decide to have a general block meeting, at which Mr.
Jackson is made a member of the steering committee. As the block group
develops and carries out a number of projects, Mr. Jackson's qualities
of leadership become increasingly evident. He establishes himself as the
finest type of leader - one who stimulates others and brings out the
potentiality for leadership in them rather than one who does all the work
himself. Mr. Jackson is selected to represent his block at the monthly
meetings of all block leaders, and eventually becomes a member of the
Board of Directors.

In one way or another, these people have found satisfaction in their
work as volunteers. They have made important contributions to a cause
they believed in, and the value of their contribution has been recognized.
It is not necessary to worry about tricks or gimmicks to keep them in-
terested and involved. They _are_ involved because they are a part of
something bigger than themselves, something in which they are needed and

wanted, and which has encouraged their growth and development.

The form of involvement will differ in different organizations - hospitals, mental institutions, social work agencies. The type of personal growth will differ, too - it may be growth in dealing with people, in the patience and compassion that come with understanding, rather than in the development of leadership qualities or specific skills and procedures. The principles, however, remain the same.

Of course there will be failures with volunteers. In every such case, a skilled professional will know the reason. Perhaps she has been too pressed with other responsibilities to give the necessary time to this work; it is not always possible to assign tasks that permit growth and are at the same time within the competence of the volunteer; she has been irritable and impatient; the personality problems of the volunteer are too serious for her to handle.

It is difficult to lay out a specific set of instructions on how to work with volunteers: what to say to them when they telephone; what to say when you pass their desks; how you greet them; how you express thanks and appreciation; what words you use in establishing communication between them and other volunteers or between them and the staff; what you can say that will make them feel happy and useful.

Even if instructions of that kind were possible, they would be worse than useless. It is impossible to build any kind of worthwhile relationship on insincerity and affectation. If you are honestly interested in people, if you are sensitive enough to put yourself in their place, you will say the right thing. What do you say, for example, when a friend has had good news - there is a new baby in the family, she is going off to Hawaii, her sister has come for a visit? You are genuinely happy about it because she is. It doesn't matter what words you use to say so - the feeling will come through. So it is with volunteers.

There are, however, a few general principles by which a professional can be guided.

(1) Continued participation depends upon reward. Rewards vary with volunteers. They may be concerned with self-expression, recognition, the

need to feel useful and important, the desire for new knowledge, with the
need to meet new people, the feeling that leisure time is used for social
ends, a desire to meet unmet community needs.

(2) <u>Volunteers must see the relationship of the job they do, however</u>
<u>small</u>, to the total effort. It is unquestionably boring to type cards for
a file. It becomes important when the volunteer knows how the cards are
to be used, when she realizes that her work will make it possible for
everyone involved in the organization to have immediate access to a record
of people who can be called upon for various kinds of essential work.
And even in the most routine job, the volunteer can be given an opportunity
to consider various ways of doing it.

(3) <u>Volunteers must be made to feel the importance of their contri-</u>
<u>bution</u>. What exactly does the volunteer's work mean? Has it provided a
service otherwise impossible? Has it opened the way for others to give
their time and talents? Has it resulted in improvement to the community
- what kind and in what way? Has it saved the organization money, or
released funds for essential uses? The volunteer has a right to know
what her contribution means to the organization, and the professional has
an obligation to tell her.

(4) <u>The first efforts of a volunteer must be simple enough to insure</u>
<u>success</u>. A little success goes a long way in maintaining interest. The
jobs people are given to do must be within their skill and experience.
Frustration at the outset is death to the efforts of volunteers. Small
successes will lead them from one job to another.

(5) <u>Volunteers must have opportunities to grow and learn</u>. Interest
stops when there is stagnation. People are unwilling to do the same jobs
over and over again. Continued involvement demands new challenges, the
provision of opportunities to try new methods and new skills, the kind of
supervision that broadens horizons, the development of potentialities for
growth and leadership.

(6) <u>Volunteers must be encouraged to make as many decisions as</u>
<u>possible</u>. Growth is shown by the capacity to make intelligent decisions.
One of the hardest jobs of a professional in an organization of volunteers
(particularly in a democratic, citizens' organization) is to refrain from
making all the decisions. It may be simpler to do so, but it is frequently
wiser and healthier for the organization to allow volunteers to do it.

There is a very fine balance between knowing when to step in and when to remain on the sidelines. It has been our experience that people can be trusted to act with maturity if you treat them like responsible human beings; if you give them the facts and a sense of direction about agency policy and programs, they will more often than not make intelligent decisions.

(7) Volunteers work best in a friendly, warm atmosphere, where their efforts are obviously needed and appreciated. The professional can create such an atmosphere by her own attitude, by seeing that the volunteer is made to feel part of the working family, by expressing appreciation when it is deserved, by treating each volunteer as an individual human being, by remembering the small, thoughtful things that make each person feel a special individual.

(8) Volunteers must not be taken for granted. They do not owe you or the organization anything. They might be doing any number of things for pleasure or profit. Instead they have chosen to spend their time performing a service. That service undoubtedly gives them satisfaction, or they would not have made such a choice. But your appreciation of the things they may have given up to perform it and your recognition of its value should be none the less real. Express that appreciation at the time the service is performed, and periodically in the form of a note or some other form of recognition that stresses the meaning and value of the service.

(9) Keep volunteers informed about developments in the organization, whether or not they are directly related to their work. The people who work for an organization are sincerely interested in what happens to it. They will feel more intimately involved if they share with the staff knowledge of the problems and crises as well as the new programs.

(10) Care enough about volunteers to learn about their strengths. All people have strengths, although some are so humble and modest that they do not recognize them. It is up to the professional to unearth them and put them to use. In doing so she will render an invaluable service to another human being and release unsuspected gifts in the service of the cause for which they both work.

If you, as a professional, are guided by these principles, if you are warmly concerned about people and sensitive to their feelings, if you try to put yourself in the place of every volunteer with whom you work - you won't have to worry about what to say and do. You'll know, and your volunteers will keep working.

A DEEPER LOOK AT VOLUNTEERS*

Arthur Blumberg and Seth Arsenian

An Urgent Problem

Few people working in any type of community organization need to be reminded that the recruitment, training and supervision of volunteer workers constitutes a major problem, and that this problem will become more intense in the immediate future. The continuing high birthrate can only result in greater demand for the services of youth agencies and eventually, for those programs aimed at adults. Even if it were advisable that staff demands for these services be filled by professionals, the prospects of securing a sufficient number of career people amounts to a literal impossibility. Rather, we are faced with the indisputable fact that program services and effectiveness will only be achieved - in the great majority of cases - by obtaining the time and energies of large numbers of new volunteers.

With this problem confronting us, the sparsity of organized research devoted to the volunteer and the process of volunteering is surprising. There are no more than a handful of studies available that purport to look at the nature and motivation of the volunteer. Yet, if the selection and recruitment of these people for agency programs is to be conducted on something better than a hit-or-miss, personal preference basis, the necessity must be faced of gaining much more sound information than we now have concerning the process of volunteering and the motivations and characteristics of those who offer their time and skills.

With the above points in mind, the writers were encouraged to conduct a pilot study that would attempt to investigate, in more depth than had been done previously, the characteristics and motivations of a group of volunteers in a particular organization. Rather than expecting to find the answers to the problem we felt that our primary contribution would be one of high-lighting some central areas for further study and, possibly, providing impetus for a greater volume of such study to take place.

Our interest focused on a group of nearly one hundred people that was fairly evenly split between those who were group leaders and those who were board members. We wanted to find out, if we could, what these people were like, what their interests were, what attitudes and values they held, the satisfactions they derived from volunteering and - the $64.00 question - why they volunteered. In order to get this information, each of the participants was sent a questionnaire and three psychological inventories which they completed and returned to us.

What We Found Out

First, some general information: Although the age of the total group studied ranged from quite young to quite old (14-78), about fifty per cent were from age thirty to forty-seven. We found that almost twice as many board members had been to college than had group leaders; that twice as many board members occupied positions thought of as executive, supervisory or professional than did group leaders; and that board members, on the average, engaged in sixty per cent more community activities than the group leaders. Further, in this regard, it developed that the board members tended to hold leadership positions in other community programs much more often than did the group leaders. Two additional items of interest, with implications for recruiting, were these: A majority of both groups studied indicated that they had had previous involvement in the organization and that their parents had, like themselves, been active in community volunteer services.

The knowledge we gained concerning the values, interests and attitudes of these people was this:

Values. According to the instrument we used (Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values) the scores of the group as a whole fell within those that are typical of the general population. The two areas that stood out from the rest were those of religion and aesthetics. It seems that in their hierarchy of values these volunteers place religious values at the bottom. The relative dominance of the six values assessed takes the following order; religious, social, theoretical, economic, political and aesthetic.

Interests. Here we used the Kuder Preference Record in an attempt to discover the occupational interests of the volunteers we studied. The outstanding finding here was that both board members and group leaders indicated a very high preference for occupations that were of a social service nature. The average scores of both groups pointed to the fact that they showed more interest in social service work than eighty per cent of the general population. Of corresponding interest to us was the finding that only fourteen per cent of these people actually were employed in occupations that were categorized as being of a social service nature. One may speculate, on the basis of this information, that for a large percentage of volunteers these "off-the-job" activities gratify some rather basic need that is not satisfied in the course of their regular employment.

Attitudes. The attitudes in which we were interested were those related to matters of small group relevancy such as leadership, democratic behavior, interpersonal sensitivity, self-evaluation and self-knowledge. We made use of an instrument known as The Opinion Survey which was developed at Teachers College, Columbia University. It was important to keep in mind that the "norm" scores of this test were.derived through its use with graduate students and not with the general population.

Briefly, the results we received showed that our volunteers were higher than the "typical" group in respect to self-insight and democratic participation, but that they were lower in such concerns as sensitivity in interpersonal relations, shared leadership, freedom from authoritarianism, and favorable inclination toward cooperation, consensus, self-study and self-evaluation. In these "lower" areas, the implication for the training of volunteers is quite obvious.

Why Do They Volunteer?

Up to this point we have been concerned with trying to describe what our volunteers were like, both on a sociological and a psychological base, though, of course, our information was not complete in either area. Generally, we could say that these people probably would correspond with our stereotype of the typical volunteer - frankly, an average American, in many respects, who takes an interest and devotes time to community affairs.

We were still very much concerned, however, with the motivational aspects of volunteering. The nagging question persisted, "Why do volunteers volunteer?" By any measure, problems of motivation are complex. Such things as personality, sub-conscious needs, the nature of the volunteer situation, and family, community and job pressures would all enter the picture we were studying.

Though we could not hope to get complete answers to the questions in our mind, we did feel that we could make a start by asking our people to focus, as best they could, on the reason for their involvement as a volunteer and on the satisfactions they derived from such activity. The primary reasons, in order of importance, given for their present involvement by both board members and group leaders were these: asked by another member or professional worker, a sense of civic duty, previous agency experience (not necessarily on the volunteer level), and a liking for a particular activity.

If one reads between the lines an assumption can be made that relatively few people simply walk into an organization, uninvited, and proceed to offer their services. The "asking" process must take place first. But who can be asked with some assurance that they will give an affirmative answer? On the face of it, it would seem that a person should be singled out who is known to have a sense of civic duty, has had previous experience in the agency, or who enjoys certain kinds of activities. This might be a step in the right direction but it is only a step. That is, if a list of potential volunteers is narrowed down to those who fall into the above categories we may stand a better chance of securing their services.

But the securing of a list of most likely prospects, as has been pointed out, does not help too much unless they perceive that they will be able to achieve some need satisfaction through the offering of their time and energy. People are not motivated in a vacuum. Nor do we "motivate" others. What we can do is to try to present them with the possible satisfactions they can obtain by volunteering for a specific job and then hope that these satisfactions will take precedence over others in their hierarchy of needs. If people come to see that they can get certain important needs satisfied by being a particular kind of volunteer they will, so to speak, motivate themselves.

In our study we were able to get some data, on the verbal level, concerning these satisfactions derived from their work by both board members and group leaders. Because of an interesting difference between the two groups the information for each will be presented separately.

The five most important satisfactions gained by board members, in the order of their importance, were a feeling of being of service, fellow-ship, a sense of upholding one's civic duty, being part of a developing institution and having one's belief in the agency's purpose reinforced.

As far as the group leaders were concerned, the most important satisfactions were a feeling of being of service, being able to work with and see individuals and groups develop, getting pride in one's accomplishment, learning to work with others, and getting a feeling of helping others as they themselves once were helped.

Thus, we were able to infer that, for the most part, those factors that made volunteering meaningful and worthwhile for one group were of a different nature than those for the other. The board members related their satisfactions to a broad community or agency point of view. The group leaders, on the other hand, seemed to have their needs satisfied because they were actively engaged in interaction and activities with people. In other words, their means of need satisfaction and, conse-quently, motivation seemed to derive from within a narrower, specific activity level than did those of the board members.

Our concern, though, is not to provide a list of items that will be helpful in the recruitment of volunteers. On the contrary, we present the ideas above precisely because we feel it is important for "volunteer seekers" to know that each position carries with it certain motivational dynamics that are different and which will have an appeal to varied kinds of people. Though it would probably not be a fatal error, for example, to appeal to an activity-centered person on the basis of broad community pride, he might be more readily reached by consideration of specific opportunities for leadership action. People become motivated as they see themselves participating on a level that will be gratifying to them - and the sooner the possibility of such gratification the better. This is not selfishness; it is a human characteristic.

For the Future

The research upon which this paper is based, as well as that that has been undertaken by a few others, represents a minimal start on the way to gaining more insight into and, perhaps, eventually solving an important problem in community and organizational welfare. Our primary hope is that others will sense the need for further investigation in breadth and depth, and be able to initiate the kind of studies and action necessary to give us increased knowledge concerning the volunteer and the process of volunteerii

Specifically, we have these thoughts about areas and methods for future study:

1. Much larger groups of people should be investigated in order to get a more dependable description of characteristics of volunteers.

2. Methods should be used that will enable us to get more depth information about the individual volunteer.

3. Studies should be initiated that will focus on the developmental side of volunteering - how they first come in, how long they stay, how they are trained and supervised, how they "grow," why they leave and so forth.

4. Studies should be made of professional worker's attitudes toward the volunteer - how and from what group he selects them, how he trains and supervises them, how he feels about them.

MOTIVATION IN VOLUNTEERISM: Synopsis of a Theory*

Malcolm S. Knowles

The Present Motivational Mode

Institutional volunteerism has been structured in this country, on the whole, on fairly low-level and static assumptions about individuals' motivations for volunteering. Taking Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs as a paradigm, (see Figure 1) most appeals to volunteers are directed to their needs for safety, love and esteem; and the reward system of volunteerism is largely geared to the satisfaction of these needs. Granting that basic survival needs are generally not relevant to volunteerism, let me illustrate this proposition.

Safety Needs

Probably the largest proportion of volunteer energy in the country is located in institutional forms, such as labor unions, professional associations, civil rights organizations, and ethnic organizations, in which the primary emphasis is on protection and security for their members. But even in organizations in which security is not a primary emphasis, appeals are often made to such safety needs as the maintenance of health (YMCA, Red Cross), ego-support (women's clubs, Alcoholics Anonymous), or maintenance of the status quo (neighborhood associations, conservation societies).

Love Needs

Subtle and rather superficial appeals to the satisfaction of love needs are often made by organizations in recruiting volunteers by referring to the opportunities for "fellowship," "social activities," and "participation in a community of like-minded people." Religious associations, fraternal societies, professional associations, senior citizens' clubs, and ideological organizations (John Birch Society, socialist clubs) tend especially to stress this motivation. It must

be acknowledged, however, that the love needs, in the sense of the concept as used by Maslow and Fromm, are typically hardly touched by our volunteer organizations; for their norms constrain the development of truly intimate relationships among people.

Figure 1 - Maslow's Hierarchy of Human Needs[1]

Maslow emphasizes that the need for self-actualization is a healthy person's prime motivation.
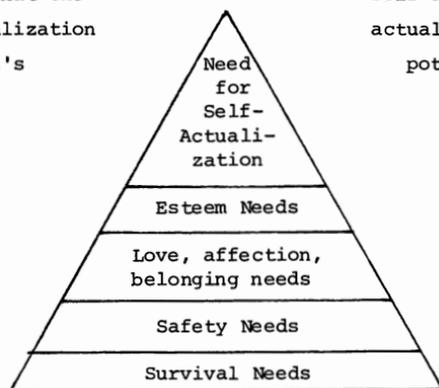
Self-actualization means actualizing one's potential, becoming everything one is capable of becoming.

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                    /\
                   /  \
                  /Need\
                 / for  \
                / Self-  \
               /Actuali-  \
              /  zation    \
             /--------------\
            / Esteem Needs   \
           /------------------\
          / Love, affection,   \
         / belonging needs      \
        /------------------------\
       /    Safety Needs          \
      /----------------------------\
     /       Survival Needs         \
    /--------------------------------\
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On the whole, an individual cannot devote energy toward the satisfaction of needs at one level until the needs at the levels below are satisfied to a reasonable extent.

Operationally, organizations probably work more overtly at the level of love needs in their efforts to develop love-of-organization. Pressure to be loyal to one's denomination, one's club, one's YMCA, or one's profession is a reality that has been experienced by many volunteers as being close in flavor to loyalty to one's mother.

Esteem Needs

All organizations gear their appeals and rewards to some extent to esteem needs, both by conferring status through identification with the prestige of the organization and by providing ascending levels of status positions within the organization. A few organizations exist primarily to satisfy esteem needs, such as the Daughters of the American Revolution,

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[1]Abraham H. Maslow, Motivation and Personality, New York: Harper & Brothers, 1954.

the various "Committees of One Hundred," and the elitist recreational/
social clubs and economic associations. But probably the most universal
appeal to esteem needs is the opportunity proclaimed by most voluntary
associations to be of service to others - although, interestingly, this
value is usually listed well down the bill of fare, and is seldom tied
to the "selfish" motive of self-esteem.

The Consequences of This Motivational Mode

Several consequences flow from the structuring of volunteerism
around these lower-level need-based motivations:

1. Individuals tend to enter into volunteer service in more an
   ego-defending than an ego-extending frame of mind. They perceive
   the rewards of volunteering as being the satisfaction of more or
   less static needs for safety, esteem, and love; and once these
   needs as initially experienced, are reasonably well satisfied,
   volunteer service offers no further rewards and they withdraw
   from it.

2. A sense of parochialism is fostered which inhibits mobility of
   volunteers among organizations and limits the options for
   self-expression and self-development within narrow boundaries.

3. Volunteerism tends to foster a sense of superiority, elitism,
   "do-goodism," and self-righteousness which inhibits its
   effectiveness as an instrument for fundamental individual,
   institutional, and societal change.

4. Volunteerism tends to operate as a patternless mosaic of
   unrelated (and often competitive) activities, rather than as
   a coherent field of resources for human development, with
   multiple patterns of sequential developmental experiences.

Self-Actualization as an Alternative Motivation

Maslow's theory offers self-actualization as an alternative, and
higher, motivation on which to structure volunteerism. In keeping with
Maslow's hierarchical concept, the needs for safety, love, and esteem would
not be eliminated, but would be treated as steps up the ladder toward the
richer end of self-actualization.

Maslow's concept of self-actualization involves the fulfillment of one's unique potential, but beyond this:

> "Self-actualization work is simultaneously a seeking and a fulfilling of the self and also an achieving of the selflessness which is the ultimate expression of the real self. It resolves the dichotomy between selfish and unselfish. Also between inner and outer - because the cause for which one works in self-actualization work is introjected and becomes part of the self so that the world and the self are no longer different."
> (Maslow, 1965, p.7)

The concept also implies a process of continuous growth and self-renewal.

What would volunteerism in America (or elsewhere) look like if it were structured around self-actualization as its motivational mode?

1. Volunteer activities would be defined as both opportunities for service to society and learning experiences supplementing other resources for continuing education.

2. Central service centers would be established for the recruitment of volunteers, the provision of educational counseling services to help individuals diagnose their desired directions of self-development through volunteer service, and the referral of individuals to a sequence of volunteer activities geared to helping them develop in the desired directions.

3. Agencies using volunteers would provide training to their supervisors of volunteers to equip them to assure that volunteer services in their agencies will be indeed growth experiences.

4. The norm of maximum mobility by volunteers according to the requirements of their self-actualizing development would be established among volunteer agencies and groups.

5. The clients of volunteer groups and agencies would be enlisted as collaborators in the process of mutual self-development, not merely as objects of volunteer service.

6. Volunteerism would be promoted as an integral element in the national continuing education enterprise, not as a part of the national welfare enterprise.

My prediction is that if service-oriented volunteer programs (linked to other institutions) were to be organized around this developmental concept of motivation: (1) individuals would enter into volunteer service in an ego-extending frame of mind; (2) they would see the field as offering a rich variety of resources rather than as a set of parochial fiefdoms; (3) they would relate to volunteer agencies and their clients as partners in a process of mutual change and development; and (4) they would engage in volunteer service as an aspect of a lifelong process of continuing self-development.

Further, autonomous voluntary associations (as contrasted with non-autonomous service volunteer programs) would become educative communities, or "societies for self-actualization." Their programs and services would be geared to achieving at least these ends:

1. Providing a climate that promotes and supports the continuing self-actualization of their members and clientele.
2. Assisting those they serve or deal with (including members, "clients," and the public at large) to explore new vistas of self-development and to construct a never-ending series of models of the "better" self.
3. Helping those they serve or deal with to diagnose nondefensively and realistically their needs for further self-development in the light of their models.
4. Providing resources (or referral to resources) for engaging in continuing self-development.

This theory thus proposes that the focus of volunteerism would shift from serving society as an end in itself to serving society as a means for nurturing self-actualizing human beings.

PERFORMANCE APPRAISAL IN MANAGEMENT BY OBJECTIVES*

Allan R. Cahoon and Marc J. Epstein

I. Background

In 1954, Peter Drucker introduced "management by objectives" as an area of managerial concern in his book, The Practice of Management. He was reflecting a growing concern in organizational theory for new methods of improving management and organization. The growth of professional management was hindered by a paternalistic approach to performance appraisal. The desire was to reconcile the goals of the organization and the goals of the individual. The results, however, usually ranged from a half-hearted acquiescence by employees at best, to open defiance and opposition, at worst.

Management by objectives (MBO) exemplifies contemporary management's attempts to incorporate more effective performance appraisal into organizations. The concept maintains that if a person is involved in the formation of objectives he is to achieve - within the broad policy of the organization of which he is a participant - he will have a stronger commitment to those objectives. The procedure is for the superior and subordinates to jointly define common goals, define each individual's major area of responsibility in achieving goals and use these measures as guides for operating the unit and evaluating the contribution of each member. Through mutual goal setting, management is recognizing the legitimacy of individual employee goals and attempting to incorporate them in overall company objectives. The key to the effective MBO program rests in the ability to define goals clearly, concisely, and preferably, quantitatively, so that an accurate appraisal or assessment is possible at the end of the projected period.

Though much has been written about management by objectives generally[1]

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[1]Some of the most recent articles in this group include: Walter Baker, "Management by Objectives: A Philosophy and Style of Management for the Publ Sector," Canadian Public Administration, Vol. 12, No. 3, Fall, 1969, 427-44: F.D. Barrett, "Time Aspects of MBO," Optimum, Vol. 2, No. 2, 1971, 10-22. Henri L. Tosi and Stephen Caroll, "Some Factors Affecting the Success of

and though much has been written about performance appraisal generally,[4] little has been done to integrate the techniques of performance appraisal with management by objectives specifically. There are some obvious reasons for this. Performance appraisal techniques have come under close scrutiny and strong criticism in recent years and the development of new, useful quantitative measures of performance has been a difficult process. It is also true that due to the practical difficulties of an MBO implementation, the measurement of performance has often been a postponed element of the entire process.

Now that MBO has been adopted by the Treasury Board of Canada for all federal government departments, the problems of performance appraisal must be confronted. Today, performance appraisal remains the least understood of MBO and the one presenting the greatest challenge to its use.

II. Performance Appraisal

The most important part of performance improvement through goal setting is the actual measurement of goal accomplishment. This entails measuring results against set goals and objectives which takes place during the review or appraisal of an employee's accomplishments over a period of time. The review process is an integral part of both traditional and modern management programs, but the methods are different.

Merely having an objective will not bring about sound decisions. The objective has to be stated in a manner that will allow the results to be measured. A measurable objective allows the supervisor and the subordinate to assess the achievement or non-achievement of the objective.

'Management by Objectives'," The Journal of Management Studies, May 1970, 209-223; Henri L. Tosi, John R. Rizzo, and Stephen J. Caroll, "Setting Goals in Management by Objectives," California Management Review, Vol. XII, No. 4, Summer, 1970, 70-84; and John B. Lasagna, "Make Your MBO Pragmatic," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 50, November-December, 1971, 62-73.

[2]Two of the most important articles in this group include: D.G. Forrest, "Performance Appraisal in Government Services," Canadian Public Administration, Vol. 12, No. 3, Fall, 1969, 444-445; and Herbert H. Meyer, Emmanual Kay, and John R. French, Jr. "Split Roles in Performance Appraisal," Harvard Business Review, Vol. 43, January-February, 1965, 123-128.

A non-measurable objective does not allow for an accurate assessment and returns the appraisal to a subjective evaluation by the supervisor. The process of setting goals and objectives is inseparable from that of feedback and review systems. No goal should be set without simultaneously determining the basis for its measurement.

Some concern has been expressed (Schleh, 1959) that in setting up objectives, activities rather than results have been used. The fear is that objectives in the form of activities are very difficult to measure. However, especially in non-profit organizations, such activities are seen as viable objectives. In any case, the objectives selected need to be as specific as possible - such as those expressed in terms of dollars, amounts, time, percentage, quality, etc. If objectives are stated in general terms - "complete a scheduled project," "improve efficiency," and "increase sales and output" - they cannot really be considered objectives, but merely areas of general activity for the individual. The result may be a great deal of activity by employees but little overall contribution to the objectives of the firm. The results are dependent on the nature of the organization, and for many non-profit organizations, activity becomes the major goal.

The evaluation of activity goals by non-profit organizations is a major limitation to their adoption of an MBO approach. The success of the approach under non-profit goals is dependent upon the understanding of the approach by both parties involved in establishing goals. If activity and service are to be evaluated, attempts must be made to quantify them and arrange necessary criteria for their measurement at the conclusion of the designated period (usually one year). Vigilance scheduling and procedures must be designed and understood by both parties. Joint recognition of problems and the attempt to reconcile these problems, understanding the need for measurable goals, will improve the effectiveness of the approach. The activity goals should reflect the overall policies of the institution and any definition of these policies in terms of specific activities or services.

The review process in which results are measured, is the crux of the program of performance improvement through goal setting. If the activities,

services, or goals are defined as a result of dialogue between superior and subordinates and the necessary devices for measurement are established at that time and understood by both parties, then the evaluation session will be successful. If the evaluation session is not successful, the necessary questions and problems with the goals were not identified correctly in the initial mutual goal-setting session, and therefore the criteria to assess effectiveness are not available at the end. The initial sessions must identify goals whose accomplishment or non-accomplishment can be accurately measured at the end of the agreed upon term. The success or failure of effective performance appraisal rests upon this principle. The mutual measuring of results makes both parties aware of the individual's degree of improvement or failure. This awareness of results, coupled with the knowledge of having accomplished or improved upon goals that he himself had participated in setting, is motivating to the employees.

Federated Cooperatives Ltd. of Saskatoon, Saskatchewan has incorporated a system of goal setting and performance appraisal for all 1,800 employees in its operation. Their program has evolved from a desire to improve employee motivation through more objective appraisal and incorporates several behavioral methods including participative management and theory Y. Through improved motivation, they hope to be able to improve their results. It became apparent to them that an integral part of organizational improvement was dependent upon measuring achievements against related objectives. Through involving more people in organizational decision-making and incorporating individual goals into organizational operations, employees became more committed and concerned about the company's operation. The results indicate improved company morale, a greater spirit of team work, and an improved company image. Economic improvement was also noted, although such improvement was not solely due to their "performance plan-review".

Through mutual goal setting and employee appraisal, they have been able to incorporate and improve many of the other personnel functions including manpower planning, promotion and salary administration.

Certain aids are available to assist a company to define results and to develop appropriate criterion measures. Results should, wherever

possible, be stated in terms of end products rather than activities – nouns should be used if possible rather than verbs. What is to be done should be specified in terms of quality, quantity, time or money wherever feasible. The criteria for measuring results should be precisely stated and subject to a form of accurate measurement.

Federated Cooperatives Ltd. of Saskatoon, Saskatchewan utilizes two forms for goal setting and performance appraisal. The first, a work plan, calls for a joint establishment of goals between supervisor and employee. It specifies specific goals or job priorities which are to be done, and how and where they will be accomplished. (The form requests employees to express the expected standard of performance in terms of quality, quantity, time and money.) A copy of this form is retained by the employee and the supervisor and a third copy is kept on record in the main office. At the conclusion of the year, the employee's specific accomplishments are assessed individually as excellent, acceptable or below standard. The work plan for the next period is drawn up as follows:

1) the employee is asked by his supervisor to make notes on what goals he has in mind and set a date to discuss it with him.
2) prior to that date, the supervisor is expected to make a list of goals that he would expect from the employee.
3) the goals are then discussed in detail with the employee in a personal discussion with any suggestion or changes to be mutually agreed upon.

The work plan is periodically checked by the employee and supervisor to assess whether it should be amended or whether any assistance is needed.

Federated outlines the responsibilities of the supervisor and the subordinate. The supervisor is to:

1) ensure that the planning and standard setting session takes place.
2) ensure that the final plan is attainable.
3) be certain the subordinate is committed to the goals and the standard of performance.
4) ensure that company policy and procedures, budget ethics and laws are being obeyed.

On the other hand, the employee is responsible for understanding the commitment he has made and the standards of performance that will be used in his evaluation.

The performance appraisal record results from an assessment of the work plan. The degree of success or failure in the achievement of goals is evaluated. In addition, consideration is given to other functions that are relevant to the job the individual performs.

Successful performance appraisal is dependent upon basic principles. First, an individual must be aware of the specific goals and standards of performance that he is expected to achieve or be measured by. When the standard is vague, unclear, and subject to different interpretations, it is very difficult to get a meaningful assessment free from subjective evaluation, accompanied by defensiveness on the part of the employee. Secondly, evaluation should be dependent upon results; excuses, rationalizations and justification should be treated separately. Thirdly, individuals should not be rated on personal traits when such traits are not important determinants of job effectivensss. Again, personal traits lead to subjective evaluation and all the inequities that result. Fourthly, performance appraisal should be a continuous program, subject to immediate assessment and re-evaluation. Limiting appraisal to a once-a-year affair eliminates much of the advantage of immediate redirection and on-the-spot improvement. Finally, it must be followed up with some firm commitment from the employees as to what he understands is expected of him in the future - criticism without a specific program to correct the fault that has been uncovered is likely to accomplish very little (Miles, 1962).

At the General Electric Company a study (Meyer, Kay, and French, 1965) was undertaken to test the effectiveness of the traditional performance program, because both positive and negative reports had been given of the program. Some of the results of the study are presented below:

1) Criticism has a negative effect on achievement of goals.
2) Praise has little effect one way or the other.
3) Performance improves most when specific goals are established.
4) Defensiveness, resulting from critical appraisal, produces

inferior performance.

5) Coaching should be a day-to-day, not a once-a-year activity.

6) Mutual goal setting, not criticism, improves performance.

7) Interviews designed primarily to improve a man's performance should not also be used to determine his salary or promotion.

8) Participation by the employee in the goal-setting procedure helps produce favourable results.

A year later in a follow-up study conducted to validate the conclusions of the original study, the traditional method was again tested, this time against a new method which was developed and called Work Planning and Review. Work Planning and Review maintains that (Meyer et al., 1965, p.127):

1) Comprehensive annual performance appraisals are of questionable value.

2) Coaching should be a day-to-day, not a once-a-year activity.

   a) Employees seem to accept suggestions for improved performance if they are given in a less concentrated form than is the case in comprehensive annual appraisals.

   b) Studies of the learning process point out that feedback is less effective if much time is allowed to elapse between the performance and the feedback.

3) Goal setting, not criticism, should be used to improve performance

4) Separate appraisals should be held for different purposes.

As a results of this year-long test of the performance appraisal program at General Electric, it became apparent that Work Planning and Review discussions between a superior and subordinate were more effective in improving job performance than was the concentrated annual performance appraisal.

As a results of these findings, many General Electric managers adopted some form of the new Work Planning and Review program to motivate performance improvement in employees. Briefly the approach requires periodic meetings between manager and subordinate. During these meetings there is a review of past goals, solutions are sought for job related problems, and new goals are established. The intent of this method is to

create a situation in which manager and subordinate can discuss job performance and needed improvements in detail without the subordinate's becoming defensive.

This approach differs from the traditional performance appraisal program in that:

1) There are more frequent discussions of performance.
2) No summary judgements or ratings are made.
3) Salary action discussions are held separately.
4) The emphasis is on mutual goal planning and problem solving.

Work Planning and Review discussions are held more often than traditional performance appraisal interviews but are not scheduled at fixed intervals. Usually at the conclusion of one work planning session, the man and the manager set an approximate date for the next review. Sometimes these discussions are held as often as once a month, whereas for other jobs and/or individuals, once every six months is more appropriate.

In the discussions, the manager and his subordinate do not deal with generalities but consider specific, objectively defined, work goals and establish the yardstick for measuring performance. These goals stem from broader departmental objectives and are defined in relation to the individual's position in the department.

The General Electric findings were substantiated at Federated Cooperatives Ltd. Management noted a change in the attitude of their employees as a result of implementing their goal setting and performance review system. They identified a greater commitment by employees and this was supported by improved company morale and company image.

So, what does all of this mean? What is the benefit of management by objectives in the process of appraising an employee's performance? How does one measure performance in organizations that do not have well-established, traditional, profit-oriented goals?

It has often been said that performance appraisal is an essential part of the MBO process. But too often we have seen MBO implementations

miss out on some of the major benefits of this process. Often, organizations have used MBO for personnel interviews, general performance review, and have gone through the process of goal setting but have not carried MBO to its logical conclusion that is, the appraisal and evaluation of how well goals were achieved. As mentioned earlier, there are some obvious reasons for this occurrence. But is also should be recognized that the entire process of determining objective measures of performance is made easier through MBO.

In our work with various organizations we have found that one of the most difficult problems the organizations face is that time has not been allocated for the determination of objectives for the organization or for specific projects. Organizations have not devoted adequate resources to planning for the future and determining what they want to accomplish. Thus, at the end of a project no measure can be made as to whether or not the project has been successful. Since project objectives have not been specified and measures have not been developed to determine its success or failure, it is ultimately determined on the basis of conjecture. The entire performance appraisal process is not relevant unless both organizational and individual objectives have been set. After objectives have been set, the measurement techniques necessary for their evaluation can be developed. Not only is the performance appraisal process made easier through the setting of objectives, but MBO cannot be said to be complete without the inclusion of detailed and objective measures of performance.

To make the decision of what criteria are to be used in the actual appraisal of performance, the objectives or the organization must be re-examined. The determination of criteria is nothing more than organizational goal setting and the establishment of proper indices.

The development of objective, quantifiable, socio-economic measures of performance is an area which is receiving increasing attention in the literature and in systems implementation. This is especially true in non-profit organizations where traditional financial measures of performance are not as relevant as some measure of quality of service to society. Social welfare organizations cannot measure the performance

of case-workers by a mere measure of quantity (number of cases handled) but also must obtain a measure of how well the case was handled. Measures of social value can provide this for us, and more and more consultants are working exclusively on quantifying these kinds of measures.

There have been some objections, in recent years, to the quantifying of the performance appraisal process. Complaints of "dehuman- izing" the employee have been heard. By making a strong case here for the necessity of quantifying the performance appraisal process, it should be seen that we are quickly discarding those arguments and complaints. An explanation is thus in order.

In daily living, most of us constantly make evaluation judgements about others. We index, categorize, stereotype, and appraise their performance. In organizations, this kind of behavior is necessary for the organization's existence. "Better" individuals must be rewarded for their contribution. Thus, organizations require evaluative judgements about each employee's performance to identify those "better" individuals. Recognizing that this exists, it seems that what is being called for here is an attempt to make this entire process more objective. There are two methods by which one can attempt to convert an existing performance appraisal system to one that is more objective. The first and more popular method is to take the mental indexing system previously used and arbitrarily attach numbers to it. This becomes a way of further justifying personnel decisions rather than improving the evaluation procedure generally and does not add any objectivity to the process. A second method, which is what has been suggested in this paper, is to go through the entire goal setting and measurement determining process. By doing this, the possibility of introducing subjectivity into personnel decision making is reduced. Objective measurement techniques cannot be designed, however, unless organizational and individual goals are clearly set.

Summary

The managerial philosophy identified in this paper is making sizable inroads into management thinking and has wide implications in non-managerial situations. The advantages of such a system are numerous and each writer has his personal preferences. Basically, the advantages in the use of such

a managerial system are enumerated below.

It provides a climate conducive to employee motivation. Many human relations studies have shown that employees are motivated by a sense of belonging, a recognition that they have a meaningful membership in a group that is significant to them. They respond to recognition of their accomplishments and the opportunity to work toward their own goals. Douglas McGregor (1957) stated that this type of a program assumes that the individual knows - or can learn - more than anyone else about his own capabilities, needs, strengths, weaknesses and goals, and as a result will benefit under such a program.

The involvement of the individual in setting his own goals (even though they must be approved, and perhaps modified, by his supervisor) seems to provide some of these motivational elements. He sees that his thinking and his plans have significance in the total organizational scheme. He knows that he will be judged on the basis of his own efforts to reach the goals he has helped to set. He has the chance to become really involved in the management process - and, behavioral scientists state, involvement is a precondition for motivation (Wikstrom, 1966).

It is said that management by objectives leads to improved performance through clarifying responsibility when a manager or an employee has to think of his work in terms of results he will produce. This clarification makes it easier to separate necessary activities from the merely desirable, and to separate both from the unimportant. By far the most frequently mentioned benefit of MBO is better management performance. The establishment of objectives and the implementation of goals by employees within an organization make it much more likely that organizations will achieve whatever they set out to achieve. It may also uncover problems or organization in individual jobs, or in particular units, or even in the organization as a whole. MBO establishes targets for accomplishment and aids in long-range planning.

When agreed upon work goals are the standard against which performance is appraised, the starting point is less ambiguous; either the targets are reached or they are not reached. Performance can be measured;

therefore, evaluation shifts from personality, a very dangerous violation
of one's integrity, to an analysis of work, a much more meaningful measure
to be evaluated. This shift in emphasis from control over people to
control over operations is a most positive benefit of MBO. Instead of
playing psychologist and counselling the subordinate on the development
of a better personality, the superior can help the subordinate to find
more effective ways of getting the job done. (Presumably, the average
manager knows more about how to manage than he does about psychology or
personality development.) McGregor points out what serves as a corollary
of this evaluation; that the supervisor will gain satisfaction as he learns
to help his subordinates achieve their goals within the organizational
context.

Under management by objectives, the performance review becomes a
situation in which the two men can play more equal roles. Both men know
the objectives, both have the same information about the actual results
achieved and both use the same measures for comparing the objectives and
the results. The interview can and according to some managers interviewed,
very often does, becomes a mutual search for better ways to manage.

In spite of all its reported benefits, performance improvement
through goal setting is not without its problems. In many cases, so
much emphasis has been placed upon reaching the agreed upon goals that
everything else is sacrificed in an attempt to reach them. Over-emphasis
upon the obtaining of specific results has led to the exercise of poor
managerial judgement. Similar to this is the complaint that some
managers have pursued their stated goals even when events indicated that
a change in objectives was desirable. Another firm (Wikstrom, p.5)
abandoned MBO because of the way managers reacted to what they considered
an unfair "speed-up". The company made it a practice to raise almost all
the targets proposed by the individual managers in an attempt to further
increase productivity and results.

Most of these criticisms can be attributed to poor implementation
and understanding of the theory of management by objectives and not to
the theory itself. Many have criticized it because of the difficulty
involved in its implementation, and in the drafting of meaningful and

measurable goals. Again, this is not a criticism of the theory itself, but the mechanics of implementation and operation. It has been the objective of this paper to clarify goal formulation and identify more measurable objectives.

While this approach may force a company into efforts to clarify objectives and policy, and into the creation of new organizational alignments and different control and information procedures, it also provides an extremely valuable tool for analyzing these problems and finding solutions. Like anything new or anything that involves a change, there are certain advantages that have to be weighed against the disadvantages.

The really general criticism that can be leveled at this approach is that it involves a great change in the thinking of the organization, very hard work, and considerably more time than currently operating procedures. These costs must be weighed against the advantages that have already been listed.

In Lewis Carroll's Alice in Wonderland, Alice asked the cat the way to go, and the cat replied that it depended on where she wanted to go. Alice said she didn't much care, and the cat very wisely replied that it didn't matter then which way she went. In much the same way, only if an organization cares about where it is to go and is willing to set specific goals, can one talk about the direction the organization should take. In this paper, we have attempted to demonstrate the need for goal setting in any performance appraisal process and the equally great need for an objective performance appraisal system if MBO is to succeed.

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ROLE BEHAVIOR AND SUPERVISION OF THE UNTRAINED GROUP WORKER*

Irving Spergel

The present paper is an attempt to employ certain role concepts in the analysis of the supervisory process in social work, using examples from supervision of the professionally untrained worker in the group service agency. The notion of role is basic to formulations of patterned behavior in the fields of anthropology, sociology, and social psychology.[1] At least one school of psychoanalysis has developed a theory of human behavior and treatment based on the ideas of "consensual validation" and the "significant other."[2] Casework theorists have recently shown much interest in the potential application of role concepts to the behavior of the caseworker and client.[3] Nevertheless, in the past two decades, despite the wide currency of ideas about role, the term tends to be "still rather vague, nebulous, and nondefinitive."[4]

For purposes of this discussion, by a role is meant a set of expected or actual behaviors and qualities (feelings) of an incumbent of a particular position in a social system.[5] The definition is similar to Perlman's: " . . . social roles mark out what a person in a given social position and situation is to be, to act like, and to feel like and what the other(s) in relation to him are expected to be, to act like, and to feel like."[6] The following role analysis of the supervisory relationship makes use of the component ideas of role perception, role prescription, role enactment, relation to self, role conflict, and role integration.

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[1] Neal C. Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachern, Explorations in Role Analysis (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1958); Lionel J. Neiman and James W. Hughes, "The Problem of the Concept of Role: A Re-Survey of the Literature," Social Forces, Vol. 30, No. 2 (December 1951), p. 141-149; Theodore R. Sarbin, "Role Theory," in Handbook of Social Psychology, Gardner Lindzey, ed. (Cambridge, Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1954), Vol. 1, p. 223-258.

[2] Harry Stack Sullivan, Conceptions of Modern Psychiatry (Washington, D.C.: William Alanson White Psychiatric Foundation, 1945).

[3] Werner W. Bochm, The Social Casework Method in Social Work Education, Vol. X of the Curriculum Study (New York: Council on Social Work Education, 1959); Helen Harris Perlman, "Intake and Some Role Considerations," Social Casework, Vol. 41, No. 4 (April 1960), p. 171-177; Perlman, "The Role Concept and Social Casework: Some Explorations, I. The 'Social' in Social

Role Perceptions

The untrained worker approaches his role in the group service agency
on the basis of knowledge, skills, attitudes, and expectations for his
agency behavior developed in a variety of previous social situations:
family, school, job, recreation, and so on. He may be influenced, some-
times strongly, by orientations learned in role situations similar to
those which he perceives he will encounter in the agency. For example,
a person trained as a teacher may see his role largely in terms of a set
of expectations appropriate to functioning in a school system. He may
believe, in a vague sort of way, that he will need to teach skills, knowl-
edge, and discipline to children. These are configurations of attitude
and perception which the person as yet untrained in social work already
has when he comes to his position as worker.

The supervisor also brings to the relationship a set of attitudes
and perceptions of his own role. He is conditioned by social work training,
considerable agency experience, and a set of professional commitments.
He perceives the needs of the group and the way it should be served within
a social group work frame of reference. Moreover, his usually strong
commitment to this particular orientation may make it difficult for him
to perceive the worker's somewhat different set of expectations for his
role performance. Consequently there may be problems of initial
communication between the supervisor and the worker. The worker may not
understand what the supervisor really means; the supervisor may not relate
to the level of perception and understanding the worker brings to his
position in the agency.

The supervisor must facilitate communication and work toward
development of a common set of perceptions with the worker as to what is
expected of the latter in his role performance. It is important in the
initial interviews for the supervisor to permit the worker to discuss
his previous experience and training, and to elicit from him his percep-
tions of the current role he expects to play. As the worker does this

Casework," Social Service Review, Vol. 35, No. 4 (December 1961), p. 370-381.

[4] Neiman and Hughes, op. cit. p. 149.

[5] Gross et al., op. cit., p. 60.

[6] Perlman, "The Role Concept and Social Casework," op. cit. p. 374.

he provides insights into his present orientation and level of understanding. He gives cues to the supervisor which may constitute a basis for educational diagnosis and administrative strategy. The supervisor begins to communicate meaningfully the nature of his own agency and professional group work point of view. He starts to spell out his expectations for the worker's role at a level of terminology and meaning understandable to the worker. His objective is to facilitate consensus on perceptions of role expectations as soon as possible, so that role confusions may be avoided.

The supervisor also begins to use the worker's role performance in earlier situations to establish connections with present agency expectations. Usually there are elements in the worker's former experience and training that are useful to him in his current assignment. The worker is put at ease when he perceives that the supervisor understands and accepts the knowledge and skills he brings to his present role. However, the supervisor communicates the usefulness of the worker's previous experience and training within a current agency frame of reference. For example, the worker with experience as a teacher is assured that discipline and conformity in a group may be desirable qualities when they are not essentially ends themselves but assist group members to fulfill particular social needs and interests.

The supervisor opens the channels of communication. He grasps the general nature of orientations and dispositions the worker brings to his position. He notes perceptions of the worker, which may be appropriate or inappropriate to prescribed performance. He begins to measure the extent and depth of beliefs and attitudes that may conflict with agency standards. By regarding the worker's perceptions closely and carefully, the supervisor is in a better position to plan realistic strategies for control and influence of his performance. The major task of the supervisor, to prepare for induction of the worker into his prescribed agency role, is thereby facilitated.

Prescribed Expectations

The supervisor tells the worker what he is expected to do. He delineates the responsibilities and rights, the psychological and social

costs, and the gratifications the worker may anticipate in his position.
After discussing general agency objectives, policies, and structure he
may specify the dimensions of the group assignment the worker will carry.
He describes the group in some detail: its previous pattern of activity,
interaction, and attitude in the agency. He may single out certain group
members and describe their significant behavior patterns, psychosocial
needs, and special interests. As he speaks he will implicitly or ex-
plicitly set standards and goals for individual and group behavior. He
will begin to specify the components of the worker's expected role
performance for achieving agency objectives with the group. A range of
particular behaviors is prescribed for the worker in his initial contacts
with the group, centering around planning and use of program, agency
facilities, and development of relationship with group members. The
worker is also told of the specific roles of supervisor and supervisee.
The supervisor explains that he is generally responsible for the
co-ordination and direction of the worker's performance. In addition,
he is there to guide and teach the worker to do the best job possible.
The role of the supervisee is made explicit as that of a taker of
directions and advice and an active and co-operative partner in learning
how to do his job efficiently and effectively. At this early stage of
contact with the agency, the worker is confronted with a complex and
somewhat confusing array of role expectations.

One device the supervisor may employ to reduce the newness, anxiety,
and confusion of the worker about the things, people, and situations he
will confront shortly is to take him on a tour of the agency. Acquaintance
with facilities and program equipment and introductions to other staff
may help to make connections between words and tangible realities.
Sequentially and perhaps hierarchically, he takes the worker around to
the various offices and program locations and introduces him to various
staff persons: the agency director, the program director, the division
head, the gym man, the lounge supervisor, and so on. He briefly describes
the conditions under which he may be expected to call on the co-operation
of persons in these various positions. The worker forms impressions of
the nature of prescribed mutual role obligations.

The supervisor not only informs or prepares the worker for what he expects to encounter in relation to other staff and to group members whom he will serve; he may inform the group members themselves of the role of the worker. Just as he communicates to the worker what he may expect to find in the group and also what he should expect to do there, he indicates to the group generally what they may anticipate of the worker. The supervisor helps to develop a basis for efficient relationship between worker, staff, and group members - the role partners in the agency system who, in varying degrees, affect and influence each other's performance in patterned ways. However, only as the new worker actually engages in initial interaction and relationship with these role partners will the dimensions of his prescribed role become clear.

Role Enactment

Role enactment embraces the actual playing out of role expectations. The validity of the supervisor's and the worker's perceptions and expectations for the worker's performance is tested. Does the worker do what he and/or the supervisor expect him to do? Does the worker meet agency standards for performance in the course of his participation in a specific situation?

The supervisory conference is the central, but not exclusive, situation for the observation and examination of the worker's actual performance.[7] The supervisory process may depend to a large extent on the skill of the worker in reporting his actions and feelings and those of others in the record or narrative account. However, unlike the caseworker, the group worker's activity and relation with the group are more readily observable. Not only is it likely that the supervisor will be in a position occasionally to see the worker in action, but the interaction of clients directly with the supervisor and other staff also produces information on the nature of the worker's performance and the group's reaction to it.

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[7]For some highly perceptive observations on the differences between supervision in casework and group work, see Irving Miller, "Distinctive Characteristics of Supervision in Group Work," Social Work, Vol. 5, No. 1 (January 1960), p. 69-76.

Basic questions which both supervisor and worker raise, especially during the early period of the worker's contact with the group, are: "Does the worker connect?" "Is a fruitful and appropriate relationship being established?" Evidence may arise to suggest that the group accepts the help of the worker. Group members ask the worker to help them plan a party or a trip. The group participates in activities initiated by him. One group member remains after the club session to discuss baseball or the merits of the latest model cars. The worker begins to develop concrete and accurate perceptions of what the members want and need. He may validate his diagnosis as the group does what he expects them to do, and they respond in an anticipated fashion to his attitudes and behavior.

The worker finds he is able to integrate learnings derived from previous experiences with his present performance. He is able to use old knowledge and skills in a new way with prescribed results. The game he played as a recreation worker with a similar age group in another agency or setting "goes over successfully," but it is successful by a new set of criteria. An aggressive member is drawn into the role of co-operative participant through use of the game. The indigenous leader of the group, whom the worker has taken pains to recognize positively, assists him to exercise appropriate controls when the game seems in danger of getting out of hand.

On the other hand, the game the worker plays with the group may not turn out well. Group members may not participate co-operatively. Perhaps a fight breaks out between members; the worker brusquely separates them and expels one member from the room. This may not be appropriate. The worker may not have correctly perceived or gauged the feelings and interests of the group members at this time; may have misjudged the expectations of group members for each others' or his own behavior. He himself may not have been clearly aware of his own feelings - his actions consequently may have been inappropriate to resolve the crisis confronting the group.

In conference the supervisor may explore with the worker what took place in the group, assisting him to understand what role performance on his part met agency standards and which of his actions and feelings did not.

As some obviously inappropriate action by the worker is discussed, the
worker may insist that he once handled a similar situation this way and
it turned out well. The worker may express vehemently the feeling that
his action was indeed appropriate. The supervisor, not emotionally involved
in the particular group situation, may be able to point out objectively
the sequence of actions of worker and group in the spiral of negative
feelings that developed, and help the worker to see it. He assists the
worker to pinpoint not only what he did that was wrong but what alternative
behaviors might have produced a more positive or fruitful reaction by the
group.

The supervisor is aware also that the worker reacts to an agency
situation in a uniquely patterned way. The worker is a particular person
who plays a generalized role in a highly specific and individualized
fashion. The role the group worker plays is intimately related to his
unique identity as a person, as well as to generalized agency expectations.

The Self

Social work practice, whether by the professional or the subprofes-
sional, does not signify a mechanical application of a set of externalized
procedures in social situations. Supervisors, workers, and also clients
think, feel, and behave in externally patterned - but also in highly
personalized or internally patterned - ways. People, particularly in
social agencies, play roles that are ego-involved. Such ego qualities
as self-esteem, self-respect, and self-worth are constantly exposed and
vulnerable to depreciation or enhancement in the course of role enactment.
The self may be considered in part a configuration of emotional qualities
correlated with a set of cognitive and social phenomena embraced by a
particular role. In large measure the self has grown out of role behavior
originating in early family interpersonal relations and developed in later
significant social situations. It is a stable configuration of personality
attributes, capable of being modified as well as modifying the role played
by the person in the agency.

That the worker in his agency role takes on unique and characteristic
identity cannot be gainsaid. Quickly he comes to be known by his given

name or by a nickname. Members of his group, staff, and others in the
agency system recognize him, perhaps by somewhat different standards, as
a "nice guy," a "weak person," a "grouch," a "joker." What the worker
expects of others and what he expects of himself, and does, is intimately
related to his self-concept. His role behavior serves to maintain his
personal as well as his professional interests and needs. It is only
when personal needs are not compatible with professional role expectations
that problems arise. A major purpose of the supervisory conference is the
examination of agency situations in which the worker's self is appropriate
or inappropriate to prescribed role expectations. The worker is expected
to be positive, friendly, patient, accepting, flexible, firm, and so
forth. At points where these personal qualities are not apparent, the
supervisor may call their absence or inappropriate use to the worker's
attention. However, the very process of indicating or intimating the
effect of the worker's personal style or self on his role functioning
may elicit ego-defensive as well as ego-adaptive operations. The worker,
of course, is ego-involved not only in the relation with his group but
also in his relation with the supervisor. Consequently the supervisor
must be aware of the worker's various ego-involvements and role behaviors.
The worker, as both supervisee and worker, after all plays somewhat
different roles. However, the problem of intersecting effects of multiple
role situations and ego-involvements as manifested in a supervisory con-
ference is not hopelessly complex or unmanageable. There is at least
partial continuity of expectations and behaviors in these role situations.
Furthermore, the self is a rather stable entity. The worker's patterns
of self-involvement and role behavior in the group meeting may not be
unrelated to the way he presents himself in his relation to the super-
visor. It is not unlikely that an over-anxious, hostile, frightened
worker or - for that matter - a relaxed, friendly, secure worker will
manifest the same qualities in both the group situation and the super-
visory conference.

The supervisor attempts in some manner to modify the worker's use
of himself, particularly as it is evidenced in his role performance with
the group. The supervisor may do this directly by pointing out how
certain patterns of behavior and ego-defensive operations on the part of

the worker appear to affect the expectations and behavior of the group;
he may directly suggest alternate ego-involved ways of handling such
specific situations. More often, and preferably, the supervisor will
resort to more indirect approaches to get the worker to modify the
use of himself - e.g., examination of the meaning of the particular
crisis for the group member rather than for the worker himself; acceptance
and support by the supervisor of the worker's feelings; emphasis on the
positives of the worker's functioning in other similar situations; and
so on. The purpose of the supervisor is not to augment the threat to
the worker's ego but to assist him to maintain intact, and even enhance,
his sense of self-worth, self-esteem and self-respect in relation to his
role performance. The objectives of supervision are enhancement and
control of the worker's role and not treatment of the worker's person-
ality at the ego or any other level.

Role Conflict

Role conflict for purposes of our discussion occurs when the worker
finds himself exposed to contradictory expectations stemming from his
simultaneous occupancy of two positions, or to contradictory expectations
of others while occupying a single position.[8] The former situation may
be labeled interrole conflict, and examples of it are the following: the
worker feels himself obliged to take a group on a weekend camping trip,
but happens also to be a student who must prepare for an examination
during the same weekend; the worker is a member of CORE and is concerned
that a program of racial integration proceed as quickly as possible, but
board and administration expect staff to proceed gradually. These
particular interrole conflicts may or may not pose serious problems for
the worker.

More often serious problems of intrarole conflict are likely to
arise for the worker. There may be conflicting expectations for the
performance of his role in a particular situation by the occupants of
other positions. For example the worker's teen-age group may expect him
to support their decision, democratically arrived at, to forbid a par-
ticular youngster admission to the club. On the other hand the super-
visor may expect the worker to implement the agency's open membership

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[8] Gross et al., op. cit., p. 243-249.

policy. Or the supervisor may expect the worker to encourage discussion
of race relations in the group, while parents may expect the worker to
avoid such discussions.

The worker is subjected to a great many conflicting demands in the
exercise of his role. He may resolve his interrole and/or intrarole
conflicts with or without the aid of the supervisor. There are a variety
of ways in which they may occur. He may compromise conflicting expec-
tations, or he may deny one set of expectations and accept another. He
may be able to redefine conflicting demands so that others as well as
he himself will find them acceptable. The worker may simply do nothing,
avoiding both responsibility for making a decision and responsibility for
action. In general the worker will tend to resolve his role conflicts -
interrole or intrarole - on the basis of solutions which are either
legitimate or expedient.[9] If he seeks the supervisor's guidance, the
supervisor may then propose a means to resolve the conflict in accord
with legitimate agency social work standards and values. The solution
may also be in accord with the worker's perception of what are legitimate
role expectations for himself. On the other hand, the worker may not be
committed or indeed fully understand the nature of agency policies and
practices, norms and values. He will do as the supervisor suggests, since
it will bring approval and provide personal gratification to him. He
knows if he does not follow his supervisor's suggestion or instruction,
negative consequences will follow. When the worker resolves his role
conflict on the basis of expedience he is concerned with increasing
personal gratification.

The supervisor's task is to assist the worker to recognize the
conflict clearly and to explore with him the consequences for alternate
resolutions of it. The worker may at times feel constrained to handle
conflict situations in an expedient manner. For example, it may appear
easier to let teen-agers have their way and impose a minimum of restraint
than to enforce prescribed agency regulations. Although such expedient
resolutions may be easier in the short run, in the long run they may not
serve at all to reduce stress and strain. The teen-age group may ultim-
ately respond better to the worker who has been consistently firm in

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[9] Ibid., p. 285-295.

setting appropriate limits. Compliant action by the worker may result not only in serious conflict with prescribed agency expectations but in expectations by the group for more compliant or "weak" action on his part, thereby possibly diminishing the worker's self-concept and increasing stress for him.

At the point where the agency's legitimate expectations and the worker's own rightful or legitimate expectations seriously conflict, it may be necessary for the worker to separate himself or be separated from his position. Here the matter of expediency, of course, is not at issue.

Role Integration

Role integration signifies a condition of consensus on expectations by the occupants of different positions and the consequent actualization of positive feeling and co-operative behavior between these occupants. It connotes a social situation in which channels of communication are open and role partners clearly know, accept, and can meet the expectations of each other. Role integration facilitates efficiency in worker performance. The supervisor's efforts are directed essentially toward the realization of this integrative role process. When it occurs, the worker is doing his job and doing it well.

Role integration is the ideal condition of adjustment to the agency system, which the supervisor strives to achieve for and with the untrained worker. In the initial stage of the supervisory process and the worker's relations to his group, it means the development of a state of consensus on expectations between the worker, the supervisor, and significant others in the agency. In this stage gaps in and distortions of perception by the worker are respectively filled and corrected by the supervisor. The worker becomes increasingly sensitized to the needs and interests of group members and to their legitimate expectations for his behavior. In the later stages of integration there should be evidence of the meshing of prescribed role expectations and actual role behaviors. The behaviors the worker expects of himself, and that others expect of him, take place. At this level the worker has linked legitimate expectations with valid performance of his own role.

Role integration furthermore implies that the worker adequately fulfills personal needs for self-esteem, self-respect, and self-worth in his role performance. The role of worker is severely strained when his personal needs are not met. Two types of dysfunctional situations may occur. The demands of service to a particular group may be too great for the capacities and motivations the worker is able presently to bring to his role. In this case the supervisor will need to modify demands or, if possible, develop more appropriate role expectations for the worker. Or again, the worker's capacities and motivations may be basically inadequate to meet minimal requirements of his role. If this is the case, separation of the worker from his agency role may be necessary sooner or later - preferably sooner. Role integration requires a condition of compatibility between personal capacities and motivations and prescribed agency role demands, lest the worker's inadequate role performance damage the group experience or his own concept of personal adequacy, or both.

Finally, a state of role integration is antithetical to a condition of role conflict. The worker cannot effectively perform his agency role while subjected to constant and serious pressure of conflicting role expectations. The responsibility of the supervisor is to help the worker sort out the various demands confronting him and to assist him to effect a resolution consonant with his own needs and interests and the expectations of the agency and social work profession for his role. Also indicated is direct action by the supervisor to reduce situations of role conflict emanating from unwarranted demands by other staff on the performance of the worker.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted briefly to deal with certain role aspects of the supervisory relationship utilizing the example of the untrained worker in a group service agency. Attention has been directed to the worker's role expectations, role enactment, self-involvement, role conflict, and role integration. Other aspects and perspectives of the supervisory relationship were not considered or only briefly touched upon, e.g., the supervisor's role relationships to his superiors, or

more specifically, the perceptions and expectations of the worker as
supervisee in the supervisory relationship, but they are obviously
amenable to this type of role analysis. The redefinition of the compo-
nents of the supervisory process in role terms has revealed a variety of
problems, perhaps not clearly delineated within the traditional
administrative-educative analytic framework.[10] Role analysis in the
future may prove to be an exceedingly useful instrument for understanding
and improving supervisory practice. It may also serve fruitfully in the
development of theoretical models and research on various aspects of the
supervisory process.

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[10] For articles which emphasize the administrative component in
supervision see, for example, Sidney J. Berkowitz, "The Administrative
Process in Casework Supervision," Social Casework, Vol. 33, No. 10
(December 1952), p. 419-423; Gertrude Leyendecker, "A Critique of Current
Trends in Supervision," in Casework Papers 1959 (New York: Family Service
Association of America, 1959), p. 48-63; Frances H. Scherz, "A Concept of
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Papers 1958 (New York: Family Service Association of America, 1958),
p. 18-22; Corinne H. Wolfe, "Basic Components in Supervision," in The
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p. 177-189.

For articles which emphasize the teaching component in supervision
see, for example, John J. Appleby, Virginia C. Berkman, Robert T. Blaze-
jack, and Vicki S. Gorter, "A Group Method of Supervision," Social Work,
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No. 3 (June 1961), p. 179-195; Ruth Fizdale, "Peer-Group Supervision,"
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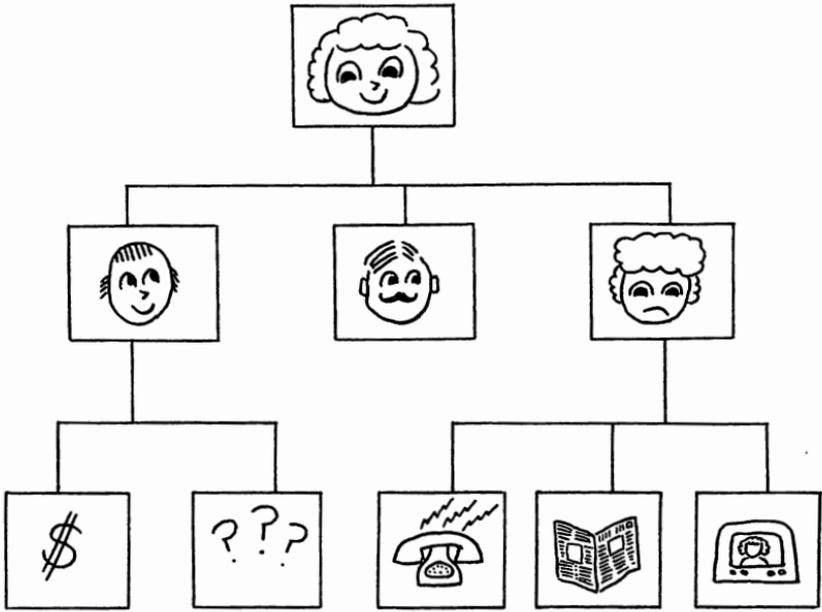
Section 5
Organizational Dynamics

SECTION 5 - INTRODUCTION

ORGANIZATIONAL DYNAMICS

All organizations can be depicted diagramatically and most are
hierarchial in nature (as in Figure 1). The width and height of the
organization varies depending on the size and other features of the
organization. An organizational chart along with the company's rules
and regulations are often used to describe the formal aspects of an
organization. For example, each box in Figure 1 represents a position
in the organization which has a degree of authority, responsibility,
accountability, and even status associated with it. The lines connecting

Figure 1

A Sample Organization Chart
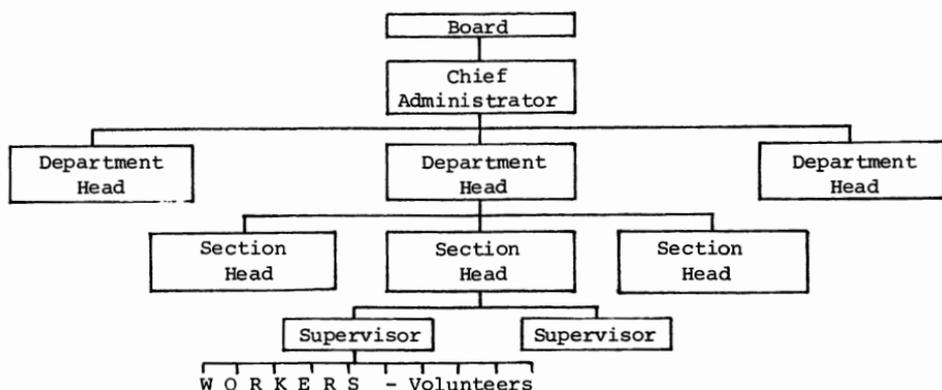
the boxes outline or establish the formal relationships between the
positions. These connecting lines show us the formal network of communi-
cations and information flow. By reading a chart of this type, one can
begin to delineate where the decision making centres are, the span of
control of each of the positions, the formal leaders, the lines of
communication, and of course, the structure of the organization (in this
case hierarchial). Unfortunately, this sort of chart gives a view of the

organization, on paper, as a static, rigid system and describes how it is supposed to operate without people. As unique individuals are introduced into the positions, the organization begins to vary from its paper form and becomes dynamic in nature.

Organizations can be relatively static or changing, rigid or innovative, and open or closed, depending upon the relationships of people and combinations of numerous intervening variables. This section considers some of the variables which make an organization dynamic. As Brown's article indicates, the traditional patterns of organizing - by functions to be performed, purposes to be served, products to be manufactured, by geography or time, or by clients or clients' needs - are not always appropriate. The need for reflecting "people" characteristics in job engineering and departmental design is becoming increasingly important.

Power in organizations is an often-mentioned, but little-understood dynamic variable. Kramer examines the board-executive coalition in the voluntary agency and indicates that, although there are ideological, status and power disparities, the policy-making process can be stable because several factors operate to reduce conflict. Magoon treats volunteer-staff relationships and the question of agency goal setting from a power standpoint.

In the final selection, senior offers a further examination of the board-executive relationship.

This section has dealt with only a few of the dimensions of organizational dynamics affecting the volunteer and the volunteer administrator. In many instances, the volunteer is assigned duties that are designed to free the paid staff member from nonotonous or routine duties. The volunteer often has no authority, little responsibility, and little job status. But in other cases, volunteers may be highly talented and trained people who have power and status because of their personalities, their work experience or their expertise. Many volunteers become informal leaders of work groups because of these qualities. The uniqueness of the individual is a major organizational dynamic very difficult to describe on an organizational chart, but very necessary for administrators to understand.

SHAPING THE ORGANIZATION TO FIT PEOPLE*

David S. Brown

Surprisingly, it is not as difficult to shape an organization to the needs, skills, abilities, and values of its members as it may seem on its face to be. A growing number of organizations have done so consciously - and successfully - and an even larger number without realizing it. Even so, such a concept has still found only limited acceptance among those who do administrative planning. The reasons for this failure can probably be explained by a variety of factors. In the first place, most managers have probably not really given much thought to the problem. They have accepted without question the conventional organizational precepts. And why not? If departmentation by function is not producing what is wanted or needed, it is only natural to turn to departmentation by product, or geography, or client. Whatever the change, whatever from and whatever to, it is more than likely that improvement will result. Why look farther?

Such a myopic view of the universe is reinforced by the manager's strongly held ideas of his own role. He is the chief, the director, the person who gives orders others are expected to carry out. For him to endorse the idea of subordinate right - which the doctrine under discussion seems to suggest - is to downgrade the principle for which he has so long labored in getting to the top. As one manager bluntly put it: "I broke my back to get to the top to be able to run things. I don't propose to give it all up now that I'm here."

But even if one were committed to the idea of shaping the organization so as to reflect the characteristics of its members, there would still be the problem of what to do and how to do it. Old ideas die slowly, and new ones are often untested. What assurances are there that the theory is an applicable one? How would one go about shaping the organization to the characteristics of those in it - presuming one could know what these characteristics are? These are pertinent questions.

The Adaptive Manager

Too often, we think only of the formal organization - the organi-
zation portrayed in the organization chart and described in the procedures
manual. The organization is rarely this - and always more than this.
Basically, organization is a system of relationships involving two or
more persons concerned with the satisfaction of needs or the achievement
of objectives. Such relationships occur in a variety of patterns,
determined by need, convenience, status, sociability, and individual
preference. The dimensions of the real (sometimes called the formal)
organization will be better understood by reference to what one writer
calls the "varying composite" structure system and another identifies as
the system of "overlays". The "varying composites" include, in addition
to the command-action (formal) structure, the problem-solving, the
communicational, the social and the process structures.[1] The system of
overlays, which is much the same, includes the sociometric (the special
friendships), the functional (the manner in which specialists relate to
operations), the decision-making (the manner in which significant deci-
sions are made), the power, and the communicational.[2] Sayles, in a

THE SYSTEM OF OVERLAY*
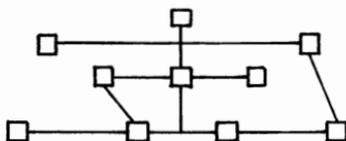
Special Friendships: "I'll talk to my friend George in Pur-
chasing, he'll know what to do."
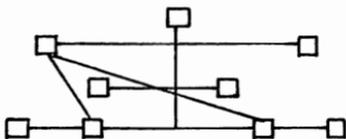
Functional Overlay: Direct relationships between specialist
assistants and operating departments. "You have to see
personnel for approval to take that training course."

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[1] Albert K. Wickesberg, Management Organization, New York: Appleton-
Century- Crofts, 1966, p. 94-95.

[2] John J. Pfiffner and Frank P. Sherwood, Administrative Organization,
Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1960, p. 16-27.
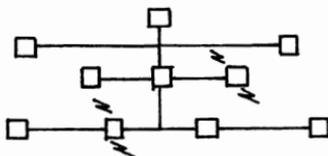
Power Overlay: "Before you go further, you had better check that with Jack in Production Planning."

revealing recent study of managerial behavior, emphasized this point:

> The individual manager does not have a clearly bounded job with neatly defined authorities and responsibilities. Rather he is placed in the middle of a system of relationships, out of which he must fashion an organization that will accomplish his objectives. There is no "standard" interface; rather, the relationships differ, depending on the objectives and the position of the other groups with whom he must achieve a working pattern of give and take.[3]

This idea is underlined by the manner in which the individual makes allowance for - indeed, himself adjusts to - the behavioral patterns of others. Such situations occur at all levels and in all walks of life. They are part of the process of membership in the societal organizations we require for survival.

The Informal Organization

Actually, much that is being suggested here has already been done, often without a conscious appreciation of it, in the small, personally-oriented organization or work group. Whether reflected in the charts or not, the operational organization has been substantially modified by individual and group behavior. The manner in which those workers with inabilities or disabilities are employed is a case in point. The cripple is not expected to do more than his infirmity permits him, nor is that person who does not get along well with others likely to be selected for public relations tasks. Allowances, in fact, are made at all levels of the organization - at the bottom for typists who cannot type, in the middle-management areas for engineers who cannot engineer, and at the

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[3]Leonard Sayles, Managerial Behavior, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964, p. 27.

top for managers who cannot manage and leaders who do not lead. A few
years ago, _Fortune_ reported at some length on the unwillingness of large
companies to fire their executives.[4] Instead, they were left, like
blighted fruit, to hang from the tree while business went on as best it
could around them. This is, of course, only the beginning of informal
adjustment. It does, however, provide examples common to all - practices
followed because the organization has chosen to live with its square pegs
rather than without them. Others of a more constructive nature can be
cited. A number of studies have pointed out that the best supervisors
are those who adjust their supervisory approach to fit the needs - personal
as well as job needs - of those they lead. Thus, the management lexicon
comes to include such new verbs as coach, develop, support, supply, help,
show, counsel, and assist, as replacements for the less satisfactory, and
less successful, tell, order, and direct - all carryovers from formal-
organizational theory.

The Formal Organization

It is not enough, of course, to concern oneself with the informal
organization, however real it may be. The formal organization also
should reflect the characteristics of its membership. This is the blue-
print, the master plan, to which people look for direction and guidance
and to which reference is inevitable when conflict occurs. For good or
ill, it has influence on what, how, and how well things are done. And,
of course, it does reflect in a limited way the characteristics and
capabilities of the members of the organization, the protestations of
those who claim "scientific detachment" to the contrary. The architects
of organization, in the privacy of their own thoughts, must surely admit
that the placing of such-and-such a function in this division rather
than that has been influenced more by the capabilities of the prospective
divisional chiefs than by the logic of functional rationality of clientele
considerations. A man only moderately wise in human affairs might pre-
sume that the O. and M. people have heard of Smith's strengths and Jones's
deficiencies which are so well known to others.

There is evidence, as well, that other behavioral considerations
have had influence on organizational design. Even Graicunas's celebrated

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[4]Perrin Stryker, "How to Fire an Executive, _Fortune_, October, 1954,
p. 116 et seq.

formula for determining the proper dimension of span of control has begun with the "people" factor as its starting point. So also, in more recent times, have the revisions of basic military patterns with respect to the size of a squad or the organization of a division. If one examines closely the premises of much of the traditional in design, he will discover at its root (though often artfully hidden) a recognition of the importance of the arrangement to the behavior of those who will be called upon to fulfill it. The emergence of unionism and the possibility of strikes, among them the wildcat strikes, has triggered organizational remedies for lessening the possibility of work stoppages. Nothing could be more rational.

Considerable attention has been given recently to the experience of merchandisers who impose organizational patterns on their firms to emphasize individual selling or producing units.[5] Headquarters-field office relationships and sales organizations in particular have been the objects of experimentation, where new arrangements for the performance of staff service functions are being experimentally tried. The use of scientific and research personnel to encourage creativity yet assure optimum contribution to the organization has been the subject of a great deal of study.

All of this, however is a mere scratching of the surface, the exception rather than the rule. For the most part, the specialists in administrative planning and design have continued to plod along well-established paths rather than to venture into areas which modern social science research has time and again shown to be well worth exploring.

Influence for Change

The situation, however, is changing. The literature of management currently reflects two major lines of emphasis. The first is concerned with the identification of the characteristics of the individual. The second is with the application of this identification.

It is difficult to state precisely when or how the behavioral

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[5]James Worthy, a former Sears Roebuck executive, has called attention to experiments with organizational patterns in a now celebrated paper often quoted. See Worthy, "Organizational Structure and Employee Morale" in American Sociological Review, April, 1950, p. 169-179.

movement began - for that is surely what it is. There can, however, be
no doubt who some of the major contributors are. One of the major and
most articulate spokesmen is Argyris with his landmark book, Personality
and Organization, which appeared in 1957. In calling for renewed re-
search of the problem, he put forward the thesis that a conflict exists
between the normal healthy individual of today's society and the
organization of which he is a member.[6] This approach has been vigorously
pursued by others. Among its results has been a focus upon the develop-
ment of new patterns of leadership, as illustrated by McGregor's celebrated
"Theory Y," in which the leader (or manager) attempts to create an
environment conducive to increased individual participation.[7] Blake
provides a similar example with his "managerial grid" which "strives to
achieve high production through maximum concern for people, as by
stressing common organizational purposes that lead to relationships of
trust and respect."[8] Such terms as consultative, participative, supportive,
and democratic leadership are increasingly being heard in management circles

Likert's studies of work group behavioral patterns and his identi-
fication by means of the "linking pin" of relationship between individuals
and groups has provided substantial data for this approach.[9] But others,
including Haire, Bennis, Golembiewski, Gouldner, and Bakke, have made the
point no less strongly.[10] Such efforts have been followed by an increasing
concern for organizational change. Leavitt, for example, in a chapter
of his Managerial Psychology, called "Adapting Organizations to People,"
says:

> The problem can be looked at this way: Organizational factors
> like authority and pyramidal shapes force management people
> toward paternalistic, subjective, and more or less concrete,
> short-term, and often defensive behavior; but the changing
> business environment demands the opposite behavior. It
> demands that the businessmen make multiple decisions and
> more objective, long-term, planful decisions. The problem
> is how to modify the organization so that it makes the
> second kind of behavior more likely.[11]

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[6] Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization: The Conflict Between
System and the Individual, New York: Harper, 1957; and Argyris, Integrating
the Individual and the Organization, New York: Wiley, 1964.

[7] Douglas McGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, New York: McGraw-
Hill, 1960.

[8] Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The Managerial Grid, Houston,
Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1964, p. 10.

Golembiewski says quite bluntly that "Organization is a moral problem," (his italics), and suggests a number of patterns which help to bring organizational behavior more in line with the Judaeo-Christian ethic.[12] The second Seminar on the Social Science of Organization at the University of Pittsburgh has produced a series of essays now available under the editorship of Thompson. One of these, Triandis's "Notes on the Design of an Organization," puts forward a variety of hypotheses seeking to identify useful patterns of organizational design.[13]

More recently, the professional journals have produced a number of papers and articles pointing to ways by which organizational shape can accommodate - indeed, encourage - the normative forces within the individual. No attempt will be made here to identify all or even a significant portion of these, but the trend is significant. Their titles suggest the direction of the thinking of their authors - "Adapting Organizations to New Technology," "Engineer the Job to Fit the Manager," "Adaptations of Scientists in Five Organizations: A Comparative Analysis," "Organizational Size and Job Satisfaction,""Organizational Structure: A Framework for Analysis and Integration," and "Design for People, Too."[14]

Shaping the Organization

As these and other writings suggest, there are a number of ways by which the organization can be patterned to made more effective use of member contributions. In general, they emphasize a wide variety of values associated not only with the Judaeo-Christian ethic and American behavioral patterns, but also characteristics which our society and its institutions over many years have encouraged. These include (but are not limited to) a belief in the dignity and the contribution of the

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[9] Rensis Likert, New Patterns of Management, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961.

[10] See Mason Haire, ed., Modern Organizational Theory: A Symposium of the Foundation for Research on Human Behavior, New York: Wylie, 1959; Warren G. Bennis, "Leadership Theory and Administrative Behavior: The Problem of Authority," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 4, 1959; Robert T. Golembiewski, Men, Management and Morality, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1965; Alvin W. Gouldner, Patterns of Industrial Democracy, Yellow Springs, Ohio: Antioch Press, 1954; and E. Wight Bakke, The Individual and the Organization, New Haven, Conn.; Yale University Press, 1951.

[11] Harold J. Leavitt, Managerial Psychology, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958, p. 275.

[12] Golembiewski, p. 291.

individual, the need for opportunity for self-development, the willingness
of the individual to commit himself to group effort and common purpose,
a desire to be creative, a need for self-identification, and a willingness
to accept responsibility and take risks. Organizations are adjusting
themselves in a number of ways to make possible the expression of these
needs. Some of the more obvious of these adjustments are provided by the
following. All, of course, are examples of shaping the organization to
fit the people who make it up.

Job Enlargement. Basic to all organization patterns is the individual
job. For years, management has sought to specialize and to simplify work
under the theory that this led to greater worker mastery of the processes
of production, greater ease of training and performance, and increased
efficiency and economy of operations. In many instances, it has. But as
simplification has proceeded, it has become apparent that dysfunctions
were also being produced. Suddenly the worker became aware of the fact
that he was capable of more (in a qualitative way) than he was being
asked to do, that the job was no longer challenging him, and that, in
fact, he was being dulled and deadened by it. As Guest has pointed out:

> What management has failed to do is take a look at the
> intrinsic nature of the work itself, at what a man does
> with hand and mind, minute by minute, during the course
> of his working day. What is called for is a fresh look
> at the meaning of work to the individual. We have
> equated specialization with productivity and just about
> denuded work of any real value in and of itself except
> for the pay envelope.[15]

Happily, the problem has now become a matter of organizational concern
with the result that attention is being given to ways by which the job
can be more meaningful, more interesting, and more intellectually rewarding.
Management science has not been without productive ideas once its focus
has become clear.

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[13] Approaches to Organizational Design, Pittsburgh: University of
Pittsburgh Press, 1966.

[14] Frank J. Jaskiski, "Adapting Organization to New Technology,"
Harvard Business Review, Jan.-Feb., 1959, p. 79-86; Fred E. Fiedler,
Engineer the Job to Fit the Manager," Harvard Business Review, Sept.-Oct.,
1965, p. 115-122; H.M. Vollmer, T.R. LaPorte, W.C. Pedersen, and P.A. Lang-
ton, Adaptations of Scientists in Five Organizations: A Comparative Analysis
1964 (produced by Stanford Research Institute under Air Force Contract 49
(638)-1028); Michael Beer, "Organizational Size and Job Satisfaction,"

Making Organizations More Manageable. Students of organization have
known for some time that beyond a certain point, size increases rather
than lessens overhead costs. They have been aware also of the growing
burden placed by large organization of the processes of communication,
coordination, and standardization. More recently, they have become
concerned with the relationship of size and individual job satisfaction.
This was noted originally by Worthy, as we have seen, but others have
made significant contributions to knowledge of the subject.[16]

Industry has responded by the creation of a number of new types of
networks, the effect of which has been to reinstate older patterns of
entrepreneurship. By the use of the franchise system, service organiza-
tions have been able to provide their participant members with a greater
stake in the total enterprise. The military departments have gone out-
side the Pentagon with the creation of "R and D" organizations. Work of
many types has been "farmed out."[17] Internally, the effort has been made
to cope with organizational size by the creation of semi-independent
divisions and departments which have been granted a considerable degree
of autonomy so long as they maintain general standards of performance and
cost. All of these have had their uses.

The Increased Span of Control. Although the span of control in most
organizations is still limited by concepts developed in another gener-
ation under other conditions, there is a growing tendency today in both
industry and government to enlarge it. Melman cites a British firm with
one supervisor for every 250 production workers; while such an example is
undoubtedly the exception rather than the rule, it suggests a whole new
way of thinking.[18] One can also be encouraged by the broadening of the

Academy of Management Journal, March, 1964, p. 34-44; Arlyn Melcher,
"Organizational Structure: A Framework for Analysis and Integration," from
Comparative Administration, proceedings of the Academy of Management 25th
Annual Meeting, 1965, p. 130-150; and Hugh Pease, "Design for People, Too,"
Personnel Administration, May-June, 1966, p. 22-27.

[15]Robert H. Guest, "Job Enlargement - A Revolution in Job Design,"
Personnel Administration, March-April, 1957, p. 9.

[16]See for example, Sergio Talacchi, "Organizational Size, Individual
Attitudes and Behavior: An Empirical Study,"Administrative Science Quarterly,
Vol. 5, 1960.

[17]For example James L. Trainor, "Government Use of Nonprofit Companies,"
Harvard Business Review, May-June, 1966, p. 38-52.

span in such areas as sales, field operations, and research. A corollary
to it, of course, is the application of changing supervisory techniques
which emphasize general rather than specific direction, mutual agreement
on standards of performance, and greater acceptance at operational levels
of individual responsibility.

The Shortened Hierarchy. The broadening of the organization results also
in its shortening. Not only does this demonstrably lessen the distance
between top and bottom, but it reduces the number of status distinctions
and hierarchical levels as well. Thus, such arbitrary distinctions as
those between "policy" and "operations" and "officer" and "employee" are
reduced in a manner consistent with prevailing community patterns. The
shortened hierarchy also shortens and simplifies the communicational
system and facilitates the establishment of horizontal relationships
which must take place if the organization is to do its job properly.[19]

Patterns of Member Participation. In the past twenty years, a variety
of organizational patterns have institutionalized systems of member
participation in the decision-making process. The precursor of many of
these was the Scanlon Plan,[20] which provides for the establishment of
worker-officer committees for consultation, advice, and recommendations
of a variety of problems faced by the company. Similar arrangements
devised to encourage members of the organization to feel a greater sense
of proprietorship and participation have appeared in scientific and
research organizations and, of course, in universities. From an original
advice-giving role, many of these have now become firmly established as
sources of agency policy. There has also been a modest, if nonetheless
clearly identifiable, trend in both industry and government during recent
years to identify products with organizational units, thus encouraging
greater employee teamwork. This is in contrast to the fragmented struc-
ture in which the focus is upon parts rather than the whole.[21]

Recently, new developments in staff-line theory have suggested a
pattern by which both staff and operational units are held responsible
for the accomplishment of particular objectives and judged together

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[18] Seymour Melman, Decision-Making and Productivity, New York: Wiley
1958, p. 175-6.

[19] Frank T. Paine, "Why Don't They Cooperate?", Personnel Administratio
May-June, 1966, p. 15-21.

rather than separately. This illustrates one of the uses of the group or committee system in administration. Recognition of the group system as an important tool of objective-achieving management tends to establish it as part of the organizational structure. There is less fear of committees and greater recognition of their unique contribution than a generation ago.

Growing Emphasis on Decentralization. Management has come to appreciate in recent years the values of decentralization. By assigning certain functions to the field, thereby removing itself from close supervision, it has been able to achieve some of the same response from its employees that has long marked the smaller, more personal organization. The argument for decentralization has been strongly put by Goodman:

> Throughout society, the centralizing style of organization
> has been pushed so far as to become ineffectual, econom-
> ically wasteful, human stultifying, and ruinous to demo-
> cracy. There are overcentralized systems in industry, in
> government, in culture, and in agriculture. The tight
> interlocking of these systems has created a situation in
> which modest, direct and independent action has become
> extremely difficult in every field. The only remedy is a
> strong admixture of decentralization.[22]

The decentralization called for is being accomplished by the creation of field units with a large degree of autonomy in which individuals find not only a means of self-identification with their tasks, but also an opportunity for the freedom which would not be possible in a headquarters-dominated office. Moreover, the creation of advisory and service units which are permitted to exist as long as others make good use of their services suggests another, though related, approach to the same problem.[23] There remains, of course, the matter of standard-establishment and over-sight, but once these problems have been surmounted, decentralization (and delegation, which it implies) contribute substantially to the total organization product.

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[20]Fred G. Lesieur, ed., The Scanlon Plan, New York: Wiley, 1958.

[21]Golembiewski describes this as the "More-More Hypothesis" which can "substantially decrease the chances of participative technique coming to a self-defeating end." Golembiewski, op. cit., p. 3.

[22]Paul Goodman, People or Personnel: Decentralizing and the Mixed System, New York: Random House, 1963, p. 3.

[23]See Kolb, "The Headquarters Staff Man in the Role of a Consultant,"

Summary

This listing is intended to be illustrative only. It suggests the number and variety of possibilities for shaping the organization to fit its members. There are many other directions which organizations can take and, in fact, do take. What, institutionally, can be done to increase a person's stake in his own performance? How can creativity be encouraged without damaging fiscal responsibility? In what ways can advice be used to replace direction and control? How can the many different professionals in the organization be related more meaningfully to each other? In what ways can organizational design help to meet worker's individual needs?

Such questions offer fruitful fields for inquiry and need to be thoughtfully addressed. The internal-human-factor must be recognized for what it is - one of the major determinants of effective organizational performance. It should, accordingly, be given its proper place, along with function and objective, among the leading principles of departmentation. It is high time that this was done.

The architects of a building take into account the qualities of the material - the bricks, steel, concrete, wood, and glass - that go into it. So must the organizational architects take into account the characteristics of the personnel they must work with. The building architect is fortunate that the strengths and weaknesses of his materials are relatively fixed and can be readily learned. The architect of human organizations has a much more difficult assignment. The qualities of human materials, although we have lived with them over the centures, are still only partially known. They also have the enormously frustrating habit of changing their properties and even of shifting about once the mortar of the organizational system has been applied.

This does not mean, of course, that one cannot generalize concerning human characteristics. Rather, it emphasizes the need for understanding all that current knowledge permits us of the qualities themselves, the nature of the differences between them, how they function, and, if possible, why they do as they do. Only in this way can the individual contribution to the whole be optimized. If this involves a shaping of the organization

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Organization Theory in Industrial Practice, Mason Haire, ed., New York: Wiley, 1962, p. 143 et seq.

to fit the characteristics of those within it, it will at least be
consistent with much of the best in our societal heritage as well as in
our own personal behavior.

IDEOLOGY, STATUS, AND POWER IN BOARD-EXECUTIVE RELATIONSHIPS*

Ralph M. Kramer

Many social workers have long been aware of notable differences in
the status, power, and welfare ideology of board members and executives
in voluntary agencies. At the same time, the professional literature has
usually regarded the board-executive relationship as a partnership in
which both have equal status. Interdependence is stressed, rather than
domination of one by the other. Conflict is rarely acknowledged and,
instead, a harmony of interests and goals is usually regarded as enabling
the board and executive to engage in joint decision-making to achieve
agency objectives.[1]

A contraindication of this optimistic view has been found in some
recent empirical evidence. It clearly confirms that laymen and profes-
sionals, who are structurally and functionally bound together in the
policy-making process of the voluntary agency, may have opposing welfare
ideologies. This suggests the key question of this paper: How does the
voluntary agency manage to function in the face of apparent welfare value
conflicts and status and power disparities on its policy-making "team"?[2]

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[1]See Louis Blumenthal, How To Work With Your Board (New York:
Association Press, 1954); Ray Johns, Executive Responsibility (New York:
Association Press, 1954); Harleigh Trecker, Group Process in Administration
(New York: Women's Press, 1950), p. 45-64. Two major departures from the
conventional view are James M. Senor, "Another Look at the Executive-Board
Relationship," Social Work, Vol. 8, No. 2 (April 1963), p. 19-25; and
Arnold J. Auerbach, "Aspirations of Power People and Agency Goals," Social
Work, Vol. 6 No. 1 (January 1961), p. 56-73.

[2]Or, to paraphrase slightly a paradigm of functional analysis, how
are apparent dysfunctions contained within the social structure of the
voluntary agency so that they do not produce instability? Robert K. Merton,
Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957), p. 53.

After a brief description of three sets of independent variables (ideology, status, and power), a series of explanations will be proposed for the seeming anomaly that the coalition of board members and executive persists and voluntary agencies manage to operate in spite of conditions that would contribute to an unstable pattern of policy-making. Although the voluntary agency involves a distribution of influence among a number of dominant and subdominant groups such as constituency, clientele or membership, staff, and contributors, the board-executive relationship has a position of centrality. It is worthy of a special study because of the disproportionate power it possesses. At the same time, it is recognized that there are other possible sources of dysfunction in the voluntary agency system, such as its bureaucratic structure, reliance on social work professionalism and mass periodic fund-raising, and its relationship to governmental agencies.[3]

Opposing Ideologies

The welfare ideology of professionals and laymen in the voluntary agency is of concern because the close working relationship, which is presumed in the official partnership model, would seem to require shared values and a similar perception of agency goals.[4] If decisions are conceptualized as a result of the interaction of perceived facts and predisposing values, then the extent of ideological congruence among the participants in policy-making is crucial. This is based on the assumption that ideology influences the range of facts to be observed, the importance attached to them, and, by inference, what ought to be done. If a problem situation or policy issue is viewed in conflicting ways

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[3]Ralph M. Kramer, "An Analysis of Policy Issues in Relationships Between Governmental and Voluntary Welfare Agencies," p. 235-318. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, School of Social Welfare, University of California, 1964.

[4]"Ideology" in this context refers to the belief systems of professionals and laymen manifested in the form of opinions expressing value preferences regarding social welfare (institutional versus residual), government (humanistic and liberal versus conservative), and human nature (determinism versus free will). Ralph M. Kramer, "Governmental and Voluntary Agencies, a Study of Lay and Professional Attitudes," Community Organization, 1961 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1961), p. 170-171. For further amplification of the human nature dimension, see Gwynn Nettler, "Ideology and Welfare Policy," Social Problems, Vol. 6, No. 3 (Winter 1958-59).

because of predisposed beliefs about social welfare, government, and human nature, then policy-making, which is dependent on the agreement of these two partners, will be adversely affected. While it is true, as Robin Williams points out, that there are wide limits to the degree of incompatibility of beliefs that can coexist, when these values are essential to the maintenance of the system basic or persistent dis-agreement can be dysfunctional.[5]

Evidence of the existence of contrasting welfare ideologies on the part of the professional and lay policy-making partners was found in three independently conducted attitude surveys. One study, conducted by Gwynn Nettler, was part of a community survey of child welfare needs and services in Houston.[6] Questionnaires were returned by 939 laymen and staff members. Differences in four related attitudes affecting welfare policy were linked with occupation and status as a board of staff member. Opposing attitudes on psychological determinism, punitiveness, private financing, and perceived adequacy of welfare services formed a complex that distinguished between professionals and laymen.

> As might be expected, board members tended to be less
> deterministic, more punitive, more voluntary-minded
> and to perceive less inadequacy in service.[7]

Nettler's conclusions are pessimistic. Since ideas about human nature were associated with the degree to which welfare services appeared inadequate, and since this perception was correlated with tax or voluntary financing, the professional continues to see needs not per-ceptible to the policy-makers.

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[5] Robin M. Williams, Jr., American Society: A Sociological Interpre-tation (2d ed. rev.; New York: Alfred A. Knopf, 1963), p. 414. See also Philip E. Jacob, James K. Flink, and Hedvah Shuchman, "Values and Their Function in Decision-making," The American Behavioral Scientist, Vol. 5, No. 9, Supplement (May 1962), p. 5-38.

[6] A Study of Opinions on Child Welfare in Harris County, Child Welfare Study Report No. 1 (Houston, Texas: Community Council of Houston and Harris Counties, October 1958).

[7] Nettler, op. cit., p. 208. A more recent study of attitudes of community leadership groups also found that board membership was unrelated to perceived need of social agency help in various instances of child neglect: Bernice Boehm, "The Community and Social Agency Defines Neglect," Child Welfare, Vol. 43, No. 9 (November 1964), p. 457.

> One "side" probably cannot move the other until there
> is convincing information on need . . . (but since)
> information is known to have a dubious bearing on
> these attitudes . . . "a community of viewpoints"
> cannot be expected.[8]

Similar findings emerged from a survey undertaken in 1962 by the
Child Welfare League of America. This survey sought primarily to ascertain
attitudes toward the employment of married women but it was also able to
tap other deeply rooted attitudes. There were 2,100 responses to a mail
questionnaire by board and staff members in seven different communities.
Again, the professionals and laymen tended to divide themselves along the
lines of economic conservatism or liberalism in addition to their contrary
views of the employment of married women.[9]

Finally, an opinion survey, conducted in the San Francisco Bay Area
in 1960, involved an hour-long interview with a representative sample of
150 governmental and voluntary agency presidents and executive directors.[10]
Some significant differences were revealed in their attitudes toward
governmental-voluntary agency relationships, but a series of ideological
questions clearly showed a polarization of the welfare values of profes-
sionals and laymen:

> Laymen characteristically believed that government was
> getting too strong and doing too much for people: that
> it was too easy for people to get help nowadays. More
> executives than laymen expressed humanistic views re-
> garding the nature of man and a liberal view of govern-
> mental responsibilities. Proportionately twice as many
> laymen as professionals favored a residual as against
> as institutional conception of welfare. Finally, lay-
> men placed less emphasis than professionals on the
> values of self-determination.[11]

Reference groups. These divergent beliefs are related to and exacerbated
by the differential status and power of professionals and laymen in the
voluntary agency. There are discrepancies in social class and status;
the layman is generally recruited from the business and industrial elites
while the executive is usually a middle-class member of an emerging,

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[8]Nettler, op. cit. p. 209.

[9]Florence A. Ruderman, "Attitudes Toward Working Mothers and Their
Relevance for Community Planning" (New York: Child Welfare League of America,
August 1962), p. 6-10. (Processed.)

[10]Kramer, op. cit. p. 160-174.

middle-range-status profession.[12] This explains, in part, the source of
their respective welfare ideologies. The voluntary agency's need for
legitimation and support results in the selective recruitment of board
members who come from the economic dominants in the community and who
bring with them the characteristic values of their group.[13] The
executives, on the other hand, because of their training and association
with the profession are committed to social work values in varying degrees.
As a result, their reference groups contrast; the professionals tend to be
more "cosmopolitan" and the volunteers more "local" in their orientations,
since each identifies with the values and perspectives of his respective
social class and occupational group.[14]

Agency identification. The executive's relationship to the agency is a
full-time commitment. For most of the board members, it is a part-time,
avocational, and segmental interest.[15] The most clear-cut difference is,
of course, their relationship as employer and employee. Since the
executive has no corresponding authority over the board as a group or any
of its members, it is difficult to conceive of their relationship as equal.[16]

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[11]Ibid., p. 170-171.

[12]See Joseph Eaton, "Whence and Whither Social Work?" Social Work,
Vol. 1, No. 1 (January 1956), p. 18-21; and George Brager, "Goal Formation:
An Organizational Perspective," Social Work with Groups 1960 (New York:
National Association of Social Workers, 1960), p. 32. Some of the structural
sources of board-executive conflict are summarized in E. Elizabeth Glover,
"Crises in Board-Executive Relationships in Social Agencies," p. 171-173.
Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania School of
Social Work, 1964.

[13]Richard Centers, The Psychology of Social Classes (Princeton, N.J.:
Princeton University Press, 1949). Recent empirical studies of the contin-
uing domination of voluntary agency boards by economic influentials are:
Charles V. Willie, Herbert Notkin, and Nicolas Rozak, "Trends in the Par-
ticipation of Business Men in Local Voluntary Affairs," Sociology and
Social Research, Vol. 48, No. 3 (April 1964), p. 289-300; Robert G.
Holloway, Jay W. Artis, and Walter E. Freeman, "The Participation Patterns
of Economic Influentials and their Control of a Hospital Board of Trustees,"
Journal of Health and Human Behavior, Vol. 4, No. 2 (Summer 1963), p. 88-89.
Some of the consequences of the status differences between the board members
of governmental and voluntary agencies are analyzed in Ray T. Elling and
Sandor Halebsky, "Organizational Differentiation and Support: A Conceptual
Framework," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 6, No. 2 (September 1961),
p. 185-209. See also Nicholas Babchuk, Ruth Massey, and C. Wayne Gordon,
"Men and Women in Community Agencies: A Note on Power and Prestige,"
American Sociological Review, Vol. 25, No. 3 (June 1960), p. 399-403.

[14]Alvin W. Gouldner, "Cosmopolitans and Locals: Toward an Analysis of

Why does the pattern of these role relationships not produce an inherent instability in the voluntary agency policy-making process? Three conditions, any of which could be sufficient, tend to minimize the possible strain resulting from conflicting ideologies: (1) the substantive nature of most decision-making in the voluntary agency does not have much of an ideological character, (2) if and when ideological issues arise, there are a number of mechanisms that operate to reduce its possible disruptive effects, and (3) even if an issue appears to polarize professionals and laymen because of its ideological character, this conflict can be functional. In addition, status and power discrepancies are modified by the "exchange" nature of the board-executive relationship, which results in a balance of power. These mechanisms are somewhat similar to those co-ordinative devices within organizations that make it possible for potentially conflicting social relationships to exist side by side without destructive friction.[17]

Devaluation of Ideology

There are two forces at work that tend to prevent ideological issues from appearing on the agendas of most voluntary agencies. First, as Parkinson has shown, most organizations display a strong tendency to focus on the minutiae of programmatic means. Preoccupation with agency housekeeping and the practical considerations of day-to-day operations may so dominate the agenda that basic questions of goals, purposes, relationships to other agencies, and community needs are rarely considered.[18] Since the

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Latent Social Roles," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 2, No. 3 (December 1957), p. 281-306; Merton, op. cit., p. 216-271. See also Harold Wilensky and Charles N. Lebeaux, Industrialization and Social Welfare (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1958) p. 269-282; John R. Seeley et al., Community Chest: A Case Study in Philanthropy (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1957), p. 324-342.

[15] Seeley, op. cit., p. 435-436.

[16] In addition to Senor, op. cit., the equal partnership theory has been rejected by several sociologists who have observed voluntary agencies. Gouldner seems to imply that, characteristically, the professional dominates the volunteer, while others such as Seeley, Floyd Hunter, Wilensky and Lebeaus, and Peter Rossi claim the opposite is more often the case, namely, that laymen control "big policy" decisions. Studies are needed that would identify the conditions under which each situation is more likely to occur and on what type of issues.

[17] See Eugene Litwak, "Models of Bureaucracy Which Permit Conflict," American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 47, No. 2 (September 1961), p. 177-134.

substantive content of policy-making is primarily factual, efficiency values predominate and ideological responses are not elicited. Consequently, it might be hypothesized, low ideological salience results in low role strain.

Second, the apparent nonideological character of much voluntary agency policy-making could also be explained as a tactic of avoidance utilized by the executive based on his recognition of the potentials for conflict.[19] Because of his control of communication channels to the board, the executive usually has considerable influence over the flow of information to the laymen and ultimately plays a major role in the selection of issues that will come to the board for a decision. He is often in a position to screen out items that might be controversial, and in this process he is aided by distinctions that can be made between policy and/or "professional" matters.[20] Hence, many board meetings characteristically consist of a series of reports that serve to "educate" the members or, from the perspective of the executive, "bring the board along" so that few real policy decisions are made. This process may be described as "non-decision-making", in that conflict is repressed through the executive's habit of introducing only "safe" issues for board consideration.[21]

Ideological issues may, however, be avoided for quite different reasons. One type of executive with a strong commitment to social work values may still be reluctant to try to maximize them because the lack of agreement on values may generate opposition and conflict, and strain the fragile coalition of executive and board.[22] There are other social work executives who may identify with the more influential board members and

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[18] Peter H. Rossi, "Community Decision Making," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 1, No. 4 (March 1957), p. 441.

[19] Lester B. Granger, "The Changing Functions of Voluntary Agencies," in Cora Kasius, ed., New Directions in Social Work (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1954), p. 77.

[20] Herman D. Stein, "Board, Executive, and Staff," The Social Welfare Forum 1962 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1962), p. 217-220; and Senor, op. cit., p. 23.

[21] James L. Price, "Governing Boards and Organizational Effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 8, No. 3 (December 1963), p. 367. See also Peter Bachrach and Norton S. Baratz, "Two Faces of Power," American Political Science Review, Vol. 41, No. 4 (December 1962), p. 947-952.

[22] Chester A. Newland, "Current Concepts and Characteristics of Administration," Child Welfare, Vol. 42, No. 6 (June 1963), p. 273.

accept their values over those of the profession. Still others may not, as
Stein suggests, regard ideological issues as appropriate for board concern,
or they may not be convinced of the merits of the social work position on
a controversial matter.[23]

Among the mechanisms that serve to minimize the dysfunctional effects
of contradictory welfare ideologies are the following:

1. It is well known that there is a gap between what people say and
do. Because board members and executives may verbalize a particular set of
attitudes toward social welfare does not necessarily mean that they will
make decisions consistent with them. Furthermore, one should not assume
thay laymen as leaders are guided only by their social class values. In
studies of community decision-making, it has been found that board members
frequently respond to the "statesman" element in policy-making roles and
may attempt to reflect community interest on specific issues rather than
vote according to their socioeconomic class interests.[24]

2. It is also recognized that some attitudes are subject to change
through the educational process. Experience has shown that by firsthand
exposure to community and agency needs many board members may come to
accept a set of welfare values similar to the professional's. The exis-
tence, in many communities, of an informed group of lay leaders who strive
for better governmental and voluntary services and higher social work
standards is convincing testimony of the reality of this process.

3. Other variables may be more compelling than ideology - it may
not be as powerful as assumed. There is some evidence that such factors
as the following may be more important in any given situation: (a) The
press of the problem situation itself, e.g., an organizational crisis,
may demand action (receiving tax funds, supporting the expansion of a
public agency, serving a stigmatized clientele, or employing minority
group members) that might be ideologically repugnant to some board members.[25]

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[23] Stein, op. cit., p. 226-230. See also Granger, op. cit., on
"professional nonfeasance."

[24] Peter H. Rossi, op. cit., p. 420-424; and C. Wright Mills,
The Power Elite (London: Oxford University Press, 1956), p. 280.

[25] A recent example of this is reported by William V. D'Antonio,
"Community Leadership in an Economic Crisis: Testing Ground for Localist
Ideology," Paper presented at the annual meeting, American Sociological
Association, Montreal, 1964.

The ability of other community or agency groups such as a constituency, membership, or clientele to muster sufficient strength to force ideology into second place also should not be underestimated. (b) The imperatives to maintain personal and/or business relationships. The power of informal social relationships among board members has been noted by many as a major determinant in decision outcomes, and the values attached to these interpersonal relationships frequently could be greater than ideology.[26] A board member's loyalty to an organization, his committment to its purposes, or the prestige he receives from belonging to and "going along with" the board may also be sufficient to minimize ideological inconsistency.

Similarly, these factors help to influence the executive to compromise, or at least give a lower priority to, his professional ideology. For example, it may not be an expedient time to press for some social work goal. The agency may be under attack or due for a budget hearing; it may have suffered a personnel crisis or the executive may be new and unfamiliar with the community. Also, the executive's need to maintain positive interpersonal relationships with the board members can be overriding.

4. Finally, it can be argued that the degree of value consensus required may be exaggerated on the grounds that even if ideological differences arise they may be functional. There is some evidence that opposing value systems may bring about stronger and better cohesion and that disparate values may actually be integrative in a social system where there is a division of labor. For example, nurses and physicians who had opposing philosophies and attitudes toward patients worked better together than those whose attitudes were homogeneous.[27] A study of school boards and superintendents showed that those with similar political, economic, and educational philosophies were not more in agreement about their respective roles than those boards and superintendents with less unity of belief.[28] Furthermore, if the board is to serve a legitimating function

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[26] See Robert Morris, "New Concepts in Community Organization," The Social Welfare Forum, 1961 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1961), p. 137-138.

[27] Herman Turk, "Social Cohesion Through Variant Values," American Sociological Review, Vol. 28, No. 1 (February 1963) p. 28-36.

[28] See Neal Gross, Ward S. Mason, and Alexander W. McEachem, Explorations in Role Analysis: Studies of the School Superintendency Role (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1958) p. 182-188, 193-196; and Lewis A Coser, The Functions of Social Conflict (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1956), p. 133-137.

for the social agency, it is necessary for it to represent a different
set of values than those of the profession. As a form of social control,
the board acts as a check on the profession and as an objective warranty
of the agency's acceptability. There is, however, a cost attached to
these benefits whereby the very attributes of the board member that make
it possible for him to serve as a form of sanction, i.e., his social status
as an economic influential and layman, are also the sources of his peripheral
identification with the agency and his residual welfare ideology.[29]

Exchange Relationship

Incompatible ideologies, however, constitute only one source of
possible strain. How can the persistence of the board-executive coalition
be explained when its members have such discrepant reference groups, social
status, authority, agency identification, and power? It is suggested that
an exchange relationship in the distinctive social structure of the volun-
tary agency operates to maintain a viable balance of power. There is a
mutual dependency since both the executive and the layman need each other.
The executive, as Gouldner has observed, required the sanction and support
of the board members and the latter, in turn, gain prestige and a valida-
tion of their position as community leaders.[30]

In addition to this exchange, there is a sharing and trading of
authority, resulting in a complementarity of their policy-making roles.
The executive has functional authority as a result of his expertise and
the board members have hierarchical authority because of their formal
position in the agency. Both types of authority are required by the laws
governing the incorporation of nonprofit organizations and the technical
nature of the services provided by the agency. The manner in which they
contribute to a balance of power in which each of the partners gets some-
thing can be seen in the allocation of policy-making responsibilities.
While both are theoretically involved in policy formulation, the board

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[29]A similar dilemma is noted by Price, op. cit., p. 375-376.

[30]Alvin W. Gouldner, "The Secrets of Organizations," The Social
Welfare Forum, 1963 (New York: Columbia University Press, 1963), p. 170-
171. See also Glover, op. cit., p. 172; Edwin J. Thomas, "Effects of
Facilitative Role Interdependence on Group Functioning," Human Relations,
Vol. 10, No. 4 (November 1957), p. 347-366; and Paul J. Gordon, "The Top
Management Triangle in the Voluntary Hospital," Hospital Administration,
Vol. 9, No. 2 (Spring 1964), p. 46-72.

alone has the right to adopt policy and the executive is directly respon-
sible for its implementation.[31]   This seems to satisfy all parties.   The
executive's expertise is recognized in his right to identify problematic
areas and to give leadership in proposing solutions, but only the board
has the sole power and prerogative to adopt policy.

However, lest this convey too orderly and harmonious an impression
of role relationships, it may be observed that the board's policy adoption
powers can be what Mary Parker Follett once called in another context "the
illusion of final authority," since in administering and implementing
policy decisions the executive can affect their outcome and may therefore
have the last word.   Furthermore, it may be said that the executive, be-
cause of his skill and closer identification with the agency, tends more
often to be the initiator and actually controls the process of policy
formulation.   His influence is manifested not only in the selection of
particular issues, but also in the presentation of information regarding
the likely outcomes of alternative proposals presented to the board.[32]

The balance of power is sustained by two other distinctive attributes
of the voluntary agency:

1.   The self-perpetuating character of the board whereby the system
is sustained by the practice of selective recruitment.   The prevailing
pattern of nomination and election to boards involves the designation of
successors and replacements and insures that those who are elected will
"fit in" and play their required roles.   This also applies to the execu-
tive who is appointed by the board, but who subsequently can exert great
influence in the selection and training of other board members.   In this
way, a balance is maintained by controlling the system's input.

2.   The relatively low salience of the agency's goals and programs
for most board members helps insure a minimum of controversy since the
issues may not be important enough to fight about.   Also, because board
members usually belong to a large number of other community organizations,

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[31] Johns, op. cit., p. 56.

[32] Price, op. cit., p. 371-373.   Joseph Reid observed ". . . the
most prevalent problem in the U.S. among agencies with high standards is
the tendency of boards to become appendages to an executive-run and
dominated agency."   Sue Spencer, The Administration Method in Social Work
Education, Vol. 3 of the Social Work Curriculum Study (New York: Council
on Social Work Education, 1959), p. 57.

they may avoid decisions that conflict with their other interests.[33]
Finally, because participation is voluntary and sought primarily to obtain
satisfaction, the emergence of tensions and conflict result in dropouts
among those board members for whom the benefits of prestige and "doing
good" are outweighed by the strain of controversy. In this way, the
marginal nature of the board member's attachment to the agency, his mul-
tiple loyalties, and his motivation for participation serve to maintain
the equilibrium of the exchange relationship.[34] The converse of this
implies that the stronger the attachment to the agency, the more likely
the board member would be willing to endure controversy and assert his
influence over the executive. Among the factors that might enhance the
value of the agency for the board member and indirectly strengthen his
power potential are the use of its services for himself or his family,
active participation as a program volunteer, and direct responsibility
for financial support.

The balance of power, therefore, may be disturbed by the presence of
certain conditions under which either member of the coalition might seek
to maximize his influence. Some of the key variables that influence the
extent to which the board or the executive would predominate in the policy
process are: (1) The organizational structure of the agency; its size,
complexity, and degree of bureaucracy. (2) The character of the agency's
services or program, whether they are technical or highly professionalized
in content or conceived as residual or institutional in nature. (3) The
type of policy issue, e.g., programmatic, housekeeping, professional,
ideological, or fiscal. (4) Aspects of the board member's status and
relationship to the agency such as the duration of his membership, degree
of financial responsibility and contributions, role as a consumer of
agency services, or participant in its program; the number of his other

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[33] James Coleman, Community Conflict (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1957),
p. 21-23; and Martin Rein, "Organization for Social Change," Social Work,
Vol. 9, No. 2 (April 1964), p. 36.

[34] That this system is essentially more functional than dysfunctional
could also be deduced from the relative absence of pressure for change.
See Merton, op. cit., p. 122. That it is not inherently unstable is
evident in the capacity of voluntary agencies to increase in number,
obtain resources, and continue to operate.

organizational affiliations and his social status in the community.
(5) The executive's professional status and duration of employment.[35]
The basic hypothesis is: The executive exerts a greater influence than the
board member in the policy process to the extent that these variables are
maximized.

Summary

An analysis of the board-executive coalition in the voluntary agency
has shown that despite the presence of ideological, status, and power
disparities the policy-making process is not inherently unstable. A
series of factors have been identified that serve to prevent or minimize
ideological conflict, and a balance of power is maintained by the exchange
nature of the relationship in which basic and complementary needs are
mutually met. The equilibrium of the system is also maintained by the
processes of selective recruitment and self-perpetuation of members for
whom the agency has relatively low salience and who will not be inclined
to disrupt the ongoing pattern of board-executive relationships.

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[35] Senor, op. cit., p. 20; Brager, op. cit., p. 34; and Herman D.
Stein, "Some Observations on Board-Executive Relationships in the Volun-
tary Agency," Journal of Jewish Communal Service, Vol. 38, No. 1 (Fall
1961), p. 390-396.

VOLUNTEER-STAFF RELATIONSHIPS: A TEAM APPROACH*

Elizabeth Magoon

For many years those involved in volunteer programs have expressed the need to properly train and orient volunteers. It has only recently been realized that a successful volunteer program requires more than just well-oriented and trained volunteers. It also requires that salaried staff, who may or may not have any direct responsibility for the volunteers, be well oriented to the volunteer program and what it can accomplish for the agency.

As a volunteer coordinator, you can ensure the success of your program through effective orientation and training of salaried staff. This subject can be broken down into two major parts: 1) orientation - i.e. the goals of the volunteer program, to overcoming resistance on the part of the staff to the use of volunteers, and to ensure the active support of salaried staff for the program; and 2) training - i.e. those skills the staff will need in order to supervise and work with volunteers successfully.

This paper is based on the philosophy that the volunteer program should be a team effort involving you, the coordinator; the salaried staff; and the volunteer. I believe a team effort is the most effective means of using citizen volunteers to meet the needs and goals of your agency. The team approach is also based on the assumption that while as a small program you may be able to personally supervise all the volunteers working in your agency, as your program grows or becomes more diversified this will no longer be possible or even desirable; staff will necessarily have to assume some or all of the supervisory responsibility for volunteers with whom they work.

Orientation: The Developing Program

The first step in the development of a volunteer program should be the inclusion of salaried staff at the earliest stages of planning your program. Inclusion of staff members will go a long way toward ensuring their receptivity to volunteers. This initial step in planning a

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successful program must be the development of measurable goals and objectives. A committee comprised of staff and administrative personnel should assist you in doing this, thus ensuring that the staff assists in defining goals and objectives for your program. This is a critical factor in your program. If your program begins where staff is, with jobs for volunteers that staff see as necessary, they will be more interested in use of volunteers than if they feel that the program is out of step with their needs. It will also ensure that your program will not exceed the needs of your agency.

In a large agency where only a few staff can be a part of a planning process, you will want to identify and involve those people who seem interested in the use of volunteers. If committee members are solicited (voluntarily from the staff) these people who respond will be the ones who are in support of the program. Strive to make your committee representative of all units of the agency and seek to involve the office leaders, those who appear to be influential with others, whatever their job title. They can assist all along the way in overcoming the resistance which others may show toward volunteers.

Once goals and objectives have been developed, they should be translated into jobs or tasks which the volunteer will perform. What are some of the interesting parts of their job which they would like to devote more time to? How can the time be found? The answers to "What are some of the needs of clients that are not being met, but could be if more time could be devoted" and other questions should enable staff to define for you a number of tasks which could be fulfilled by volunteers. It may be necessary for your committee then to prioritize these and select a few for inclusion in your initial recruiting effort. Beginning with a limited number of interesting and challenging jobs for your volunteers, rather than a great many jobs, some of them pretty dull, will simplify your program's problems later and help create a quality program for your agency.

Another somewhat less effective method of encouraging staff to assist in job definition and description is to conduct a poll, asking staff to list jobs that volunteers can perform for them. This does not permit as much open communication as the latter approach and may result in some

suggestions which your administration or you will feel are not appropriate for volunteers.

The open discussion method, as opposed to a poll, will also permit discussion and explosion of many of the stereotypical ideas of suitable jobs for volunteers. It will encourage more creative use of the volunteers and in the long run create more job satisfaction on the part of the volunteers, and thus a lower turnover rate.

Before beginning to recruit volunteers, your committee should assist you in developing a method of record-keeping and evaluation. Together you will need to decide what records will need to be kept, for whom and how the data can be obtained in the least time consuming manner. Records will be important throughout your program, but it will also be important not to make them the reason for your program's existence. Records and evaluative tools must serve the needs or demands of your agency, not be served by those needs.

Once this is complete, you and the committee can begin to plan your recruiting campaign. You may wish to utilize members of your committee in the recruiting process or to develop a separate recruitment committee. In either case, you will be capitalizing on your staff's relationship in the community to find the most qualified volunteers for your jobs. Essentially, recruitment is a selling job, and one that can always be done best by the individual who knows and is respected by the potential "buyer". Staff members who are familiar and in agreement with your program can be an invaluable addition to your campaign. To coin a phrase, employ a "word of mouth" campaign.

As you recruit volunteers, you will want to utilize your written volunteer job descriptions to identify the skills necessary for a volunteer to perform a particular task and begin to prepare an orientation and training program for your volunteers. This should include an orientation to the agency, an identification of responsibilities, a discussion of expectations, as well as training to provide or develop the necessary skills. Staff involvement is a must in this aspect of the program.

A good rule of thumb for the involvement of staff in the orientation training process is "use whoever knows the subject best and can present it most effectively", whenever possible. This will help the volunteers become acquainted with more of your staff, as well as helping staff feel secure in the knowledge that the volunteers have all the information they need to work in your agency.

Staff can be involved in interviewing volunteers. Interviewing must be done within a reasonable time after a potential volunteer has expressed interest in your program. Involving staff in some of the actual interviewing or in interviewing candidates for certain jobs will save you time, as well as permitting those closest to the job to carry out the process. The same is true of the screening process. Let staff who will be working with volunteers have a hand in selecting the best one for the job; they will be more satisfied with the selection and will be willing to invest more time and effort in the volunteer program.

We shall skip for a moment over the supervision process itself since it is the subject of the second half of this paper, and look at the maintenance and evaluation process.

If your program is built on a solid foundation, maintenance and evaluation will keep it alive and well. Staff participation at this point is critical. Comments and criticism from staff members will be invaluable in keeping the program active and growing. Solicit these and use them to best advantage. Encourage staff, as they see what volunteers can do, to be on the lookout for new jobs for the volunteers. Use their knowledge and experience to assist in problem solving and in evaluation of each step of the program. Make additions or modifications based on this evaluation. These changes, which could be threatening and frustrating to staff, will be accomplished more smoothly if they have had a part in shaping the decision.

Recognition is a critical factor in meeting the needs of volunteers. Again, involve the agency staff, helping them to become aware of the importance of making the volunteers feel needed and an integral part of your agency. When you plan some type of recognition ceremony, ask for

staff assistance in planning and carrying out this activity.

While recognition is important for the volunteers, it is also important for staff. During a recognition ceremony, present an award for the staff person who participated most creatively in your program or spent the most time. If you utilize some type of newsletter as a communications tool, recognize staff efforts there. This type of recognition will encourage other staff to become more involved.

The Ongoing Program

The preceding is fine for a coordinator who has the luxury of developing a new program, but what about those of you who have inherited a functioning program. The process of involving staff in your program can begin anywhere anytime. The best place to begin is during the evaluation, since it is continuous. Ask for staff suggestions and criticism and for their assistance in implementing innovative changes. If yours is a program which slows during the summer months, use this time to develop an advisory committee comprised of staff and volunteers to assist in the evaluation and development of new program plans.

. If your staff indicates resistance to volunteers or is only superficially involved, more radical measures are needed. You may need to set up training sessions or discussion groups with staff or to ask administration for time during regularly scheduled training sessions.

Again, the discussion will need to begin where the staff is. Ivan Scheier in "Orienting Staff to Volunteers" discusses six fears which staff commonly have about volunteers. Some or all of these will probably come out in discussion and you will need to be prepared to deal with them.

1) Concern for the Client

Staff may be concerned that volunteers will not be as effective with clients as they would be. Or they may fear that if the volunteer is successful with the client the volunteer will have the satisfaction that the staff presently has.

Bringing out these concerns in an honest manner will be the beginning of helping staff begin to deal with this fear.

2) Concern for their job status

   Many of the staff may have the feeling that is expressed thus:
   "I've spent x number of years going to school to learn my job
   and here comes a volunteer who's telling me that he can do my
   job better than I can with no special training. As a taxpayer
   he has resented paying for my salary and now he has found a way
   to do it for me, and at no cost. Maybe I will be fired and he
   will take over my job himself."

   You can allay this fear by pointing out that in many instances
   well-managed programs have led to identification of more needed
   staff positions, rather than fewer, and that while staff roles
   may change, emphasizing supervision more heavily, the challenge
   to the professionals and the amplification of the effectiveness
   of all staff will be an added benefit.

   In many agencies, the volunteer program has a written policy
   which states that volunteers will be utilized to supplement, not
   supplant regular staff. If your agency is one which has established
   this policy, this can serve as some reassurance for staff. In
   addition, well oriented volunteers who are aware of your agency's
   needs can serve as an effective lobbying force in the community
   for more funds and for community support for the job being done by
   the agency.

3) Concern for loss of control

   Staff may fear the loss of accountability that they believe will
   result when unpaid volunteers are added to your program. You
   can counter this fear with the statement that each step of your
   program from development of goals and objectives through evalu-
   ation is designed to maximize the degree of accountability of
   the volunteers. Furthermore, there is a strong relationship
   between the amount of time and skill which they, the staff,
   devote to the program and the degree to which volunteers will
   respond to measures to make them accountable. If staff are
   actively involved in and committed to the volunteers, the
   volunteers will respond by working more effectively to satisfy

the agency's needs. This in itself makes them more accountable.

4)   Some staff may be afraid of having members of the community
     examine the operations of their agency. They may fear having
     anyone see the dust under the rug and perhaps expose it to the
     press. This is a real fear.

     This fear requires a change in staff's attitude about the agency's
     community relations. Encourage them to lift the rug themselves,
     to adopt the position that the problems your agency faces are
     community problems, that the total community, staff and volun-
     teers are mutually responsible for seeking solutions.

     Of course, your training program for volunteers will need to
     include discussions of confidentiality and responsibility for
     public discussions about the program, and staff will have to be
     aware that they cannot program the volunteer's thinking to
     match their own. But the benefits to this kind of non-defensive
     leadership are many, and hopefully, staff will be willing to
     take the risks.

5)   Some staff will fear the change for its own sake. The obvious
     response to this is a brief history of the volunteer movement,
     beginning with the first charity workers in the mid-nineteenth
     century. It should become obvious that the movement is hardly
     new or radical.

6)   Fear of speaking up, of voicing their concerns because "of
     course volunteers are going to be a part of the agency, and after
     all, most of them are nice, well-meaning people." This fear,
     which may incorporate any or all of the first five, can lead to
     a superficial lip-service being paid to the program. This can
     be the most difficult fear to deal with if it is not recognized
     for what it is. The means for coping with this fear lies in
     allowing staff the freedom to ventilate their feelings, to discuss
     them openly so that they can be dealt with.[1]

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[1]For further exploration of this topic, refer to "Orienting Staff to
Volunteers" by Dr. Ivan Scheier, published by the National Information Center
on Volunteerism, Inc., Suite 717 Colorado Building, Boulder Colorado 80302.

Each of these fears is legitimate and can be dealt with. You will need to examine your own feelings and attitudes carefully, and not become defensive at the first sign of criticism. Work with staff in small groups where they can express their fears openly and give them the freedom and encourage them to do this. Once expressed and discussed, many of the fears will disappear and many others will be reduced to a level that will at least permit the individual to experiment with the program. At that point, the key to working with staff is for you to ensure, through your management of the program, that the majority of their experiences are successful.

Management Skills

As your program grows, you will want to involve staff in the ongoing supervision of the volunteers. This may require a change in the staff member's concept of his job, as well as the learning of new skills. (As your volunteer program becomes an integral part of the agency, you should seek to have each job description in your agency modified to include supervision of volunteers as a job task.)

In most agencies, line staff have had little or no opportunity to learn the management skills associated with supervision. These will need to be taught before the staff member can work efficiently with volunteers.

At this point, it is appropriate to discuss a seventh fear which has been observed in staff members of some agencies. This might be called fear of taking responsibility for the job being done by another employee, volunteer or salaried. Sometimes this fear is a combination of some of those discussed previously. Sometimes, however, it is an unwillingness to give up the task or client-oriented job for a supervisory role which they feel incapable of doing and which they feel may make them a part of "administration". Again, you as coordinator, and the administration of your agency, will need to allow time for free and open discussion of their feelings. You will need to reassure them that they will be provided the skills needed and that there will be rewards attached to a supervisory role though these may be different than those obtained from their present role and tasks. Encourage them to view this new responsibility as a means to personal growth and development and relate your comments as closely as possible to their career goals.

Earlier in this paper the need to build a team - you, the staff person most closely related to the volunteer's job, and the volunteer himself - was discussed briefly. Some authorities in the field of volunteer programs feel that any discussion about a team approach in a paper about supervision would be double talk since a team approach implies equality of status among members of the team while the concept of super-vision implies responsibility of one person for the work done by another.

However, there is a common ground where these two terms and their implications can be compatible. Perhaps then the following comments should not be entitled "supervision" of volunteers at all, but should instead be termed "counseling", which Webster's New World Dictionary defines as a "mutual exchange of ideas, opinions, discussion and deliberation, or the advice resulting from such an exchange". From this point on the process will be referred to as "counseling".

In order to develop an effective team each member of the team must have clearly in mind his responsibilities. In a juvenile court setting, such a diversion of responsibility might be the following:

The Probation Officer will be responsible for:
Participating in the selection of the volunteer to fill the job request.
Preparing the volunteer by discussing aspects pertinent of the case with
  him and showing the volunteer how he fits into the case plan.
Preparing the juvenile and/or his family for the volunteer, including
  providing them assurance that the volunteer is trained and supported
  by the court.
Introducing the probation volunteer to the child/family.
Counseling the probation volunteer in his work with the child/family.
Evaluating the performance of the volunteer.

The Court Volunteer will:
Act on the probation officer's request for a volunteer by selecting two
  or three volunteers who most closely match the request.
Participate in the selection of the volunteer to fill the job request.
Be available to discuss non-case problems which may evolve.
Review and evaluate volunteer's progress periodically.
Plan ongoing training of volunteer probation officers.

The _Volunteer_ will:

Decide, based on the probation officer's discussion of the case, whether
  he wishes to take the job assignment.

Establish a plan with the child/family for carrying out his job assignment.

Report orally or in writing at regular intervals to the probation officer.

Report immediately any problems which he is unsure how to handle or which
  lie outside the perimeters for his job as the probation officer discussed
  them with him.

Participate in regular evaluations of the child/family's progress with the
  probation officer.

Participate in training activities as planned by the volunteer coordinator.

The process described above is much the same for any volunteer program and
the crucial points are: 1) that it be mutually agreed on, and 2) that it
be written down, where each member of the team can refer to it whenever
necessary.

There are some basic concepts or skills which any manager or counselor
needs to be well-acquainted with. The major ones will be discussed here
briefly.

1)   A counselor's primary function is dealing with and leading people.
      In order to do this, he must have an understanding of basic human
      motivational factors. The volunteer's morale and job satisfaction
      will depend a great deal on the counselor's understanding of what
      motivates the volunteer to work in that capacity. Don't make the
      mistake of letting staff think they can push a button marked
      "motivation" and the volunteer will respond. Motivation comes from
      within the volunteer and the counselor can only affect the motivation
      of the volunteer by manipulation of the surroundings, i.e., by pro-
      vision of adequate working conditions, training, recognition and
      counseling.

      This skill should also enable him to use conference as a teaching
      mechanism thereby helping the volunteer to improve skills, expertise,
      or develop positive attitudes. If necessary, they should also enable
      him to handle disciplinary problems promptly and impartially, and at
      as small a cost to the volunteer's morale as possible. (Note: The

Counselor probably would not handle this type of problem alone.)

2)   The counselor must have a well-defined problem-solving method for
dealing with problems which come up. This method will hopefully
involve dealing with the problems at hand rather than with person-
alities, and will assist everyone concerned to reach a mutually
acceptable solution to the problem.

3)   The counselor must be capable of delegating responsibility. The
delegation process must be defined thus:

    a)   find the man in your organization....(who is most interested
in seeing the job completed as well as possible.

    b)   take the pains to write on one sheet of paper the optimum and
the minimum that you expect....(define the perimeters).

    c)   give your organization....(time to react) edit, subtract,
delete, add and modify. Then rewrite it, and call (the man)
into the office.

    d)   introduce him to those he'll be working with and assure those
he is introduced to that he has your full confidence and the
final responsibility for all decision making. Then stay out
of his hair and let him do the job.[3]

An excellent tool used by business which can be efficiently adapted
to this situation is called Management by Exception or MBE. The
concept is one in which the counselor might expect the volunteer to
report to him in person whenever he finds himself outside the
established perimeters. Otherwise he will report in writing or by
other means which the counselor requests. A simple example of this
concept would be the following: A manager assigns his secretary the
task of controlling the temperature of the offices. He tells her
to carry on as long as the temperature does not go below 68 or above
74 . In the event that the temperature goes outside those set
perimeters, he should be notified.

The following example is more closely related to volunteer programs:
the counselor and the volunteer agree that the volunteer will attempt
to set up a regular once-a-week visiting schedule with the child/

[3]Adapted from Up the Organization by Robert Townsend, Fawcett Crest
Books, 1971.

family. The visits will be made for the purpose of building a
relationship between the two parties and may involve social or
recreational activities, tutoring or other activities which the
volunteer feels are relevant. The volunteer will adhere to the
established reporting routine unless the child/family fail to
agree on a reasonable schedule; agree to it but fail to keep
appointments for two successive weeks; or unless after a month
the volunteer feels he is failing in his efforts to establish
any relationship. If any one of these three conditions occurs,
the volunteer will contact his counselor in person immediately.

4) The counselor should be able to manage his time in an efficient
manner. When he sets a time for a conference with the volunteer,
he should keep the appointment and have his other work arranged so
that he can devote the amount of time designated to the volunteer,
without looking at his watch or thumbing through the papers on his
desk. He should be able to devote his full attention to the subject
at hand for the time perimeters he has set. By setting this kind
of perimeter and making it known to those he works with, he will be
better able to plan his work, his conferences with the volunteer can
be more productive, and he can cut down the number of time-wasting
interruptions.

Any discussion of time management is not complete without some
comments about the added time it will require for staff to counsel a
volunteer. If some of your staff are resistant to the idea of using
volunteers, they may use the reason: "I don't have time to work with a
volunteer." It is very true that in the initial stages of assigning a
volunteer to work in your agency it may take as much time for the counselor
to work with a volunteer as the agency will get back from him. The input-
output ratio will be low. And the staff member may feel "I could do it
myself as fast as I can help him (the volunteer) do it." You will need to
prepare staff for this initial disillusionment, and you may have to be
prepared for the over-eager staff member who wants to take on counseling
of six volunteers at the same time when a realistic appraisal of his
schedule shows he only has time to work with three.

However, the time necessary to help volunteers become productive parts of the agency will be time well spent. Scheier's paper[4] talks about an eventual input-output ratio of 1:15-1:20. This may be increased even more as the program matures through such mechanisms as utilizing a group approach to counseling volunteers, etc.

In closing, an effective counselor strives to improve his skills in dealing with both the human and the technical aspects of his position. The following characteristics of a skillful leader[5], if studied in relation to one's own performance, may have considerable impact on the counselor's growth and development.

Characteristics Common to a Skillful Leader

1. He listens a great deal.
2. He constantly tries to improve his general understanding of human behavior.
3. He exudes warmth, friendliness and understanding.
4. He provides clearly defined lines of responsibility and authority.
5. He encourages cooperative planning by showing that he is interested in others and glad to have their ideas on how conditions might be improved.
6. He has respect for the limitations of people.
7. He provides others with opportunities and resources necessary to put talents to work.
8. He has respect for the hidden or potential abilities of other people.
9. He helps others develop a realistic sense of confidence.
10. He explains the reasons for policies rather than hiding behind them.
11. He provides a climate conducive to learning, suggestion and experimentation.
12. He effectively releases the talents of others.
13. He stimulates self-confidence in others.
14. He recognizes and commends superior performance, often expressing appreciation publicly; he offers criticism privately in the form of constructive suggestions for improvement.
15. He is concerned with people and ideas rather than paper and things.
16. He quells rumors with correct information.
17. He provides a center of communication; he keeps others up to date on all matters affecting them.

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[4] Ibid

[5] Warmke, Roman F. Supervision to Improve Instruction in Distributive Educational Vocational Division Bulletin, #278, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1959 as reprinted in A Handbook for Supervisors of the Disadvantaged.

18. He minimizes individual and group conflicts; helps others to establish compromises based on mutual, long-range interests.

19. He takes co-workers into his confidence; he has people working with him rather than for him.

20. He helps others feel that they are not working alone, but are partners in important undertakings.

21. He is sometimes wrong and admits it.

22. He has the ability to take pride in the accomplishments of others.

23. He has clearly defined objectives and has obtained agreements on the objectives.

24. He is approachable and available when needed.

25. He is an indefatigable worker.

26. He has devotion to his work and sincerity of purpose.

Conclusion

The discussion has centered around two specific but very interrelated subjects; how to deal with the resistance expressed by staff to the use of volunteers; and the skills necessary for staff to work with volunteers effectively. The two are opposite sides of the coin and both are necessary if your volunteer program is to be a success. The sooner you, as coordinator, spend the time necessary to listen to and deal with resistance, and plan a program to enable staff to learn the necessary skills, the sooner you will be able to free your own schedule to perform those tasks which you cannot or have not chosen to delegate to other staff members.

Indeed, all of the skills and teamwork needed by agency staff are also pre-requisites for you in order to do the job as efficiently as possible. Take advantage of every opportunity to learn needed skills, practice them regularly with your team and arrange for each staff member to have an opportunity to learn and practice them. Your agency will be one very large jump ahead in the effective use of volunteers.

Appendix I

The following is an outline of an 18-hour course, a supervisory training program for probation officers involved with volunteers, now

mandatory at Hennepin County Court in Minneapolis, Minnesota. <u>Note that the basic theme is a development and extension of the Probation Officer's skills, due to volunteers, rather than a minimization of his role</u>.

First Phase: (8 hours)

1. Identifying group and individual program objectives.
2. Conceptual framework of supervisor job. Brief lecture identifying responsibilities of functions of the supervisor's position.
3. Basic human needs and communications theory as applied to the Supervisor/Volunteer relationship.
4. Contract considerations. Designed to identify mutual expectations, what each party brings to the relationship and to reach an understanding of the nature of the Supervisor/Volunteer relationship. Combination of brief lecture, role playing and application on the job.
5. Analysis of attitudes, value and convictions as they relate to how a supervisor uses himself in helping the volunteer meet the job expectations. Primarily an experimental learning situation utilizing group members to clarify and discover new ways of helping the volunteer make more effective use of his own knowledge and skill.
6. Discussion of interim assignment - each participant will be expected to spend two to three hours between sessions. The nature of the assignment will probably be based on the contract material.

    Interim Assignment.

Second Phase: (3 weeks later): (4 hours)

1. Work units (work groups). Combination of brief theory and practice application designed to discover and learn how to apply more effective ways of supervising two or more individuals.
2. Supervisory styles. A structured experience designed to:
   a. help the supervisor increase his understanding of his own style
   b. determine what aspects of his style are effective and not effective
   c. learn additional ways of helping the volunteer make better use of his knowledge and skill

    The important aspect of this portion of the program is the attempt to help the Supervisor gain a clearer sense of what he does well. The issue

is not what theory or conceptual construct is used; rather, does the style fit, does it work?

Third Phase: (3 weeks later): (4 hours)

1. This phase is intended to further clarify what the Supervisors and Volunteers are expecting of each other, add substance to the supervisor's skill in the relationship and, most importantly, to plan for building on the increased skill base gained during the program. Each participant will be asked to have at least one volunteer he supervises present for this phase. In addition to the purposes mentioned above, if time permits, there will be a brief lecture and application of a performance evaluation format.

ASPIRATIONS OF POWER PEOPLE AND AGENCY GOALS*

Arnold J. Auerbach

Two important motivating factors attract lay persons to our agencies. One is the obvious satisfaction of being identified with a social cause and the ability to make a positive contribution to the community. The other - less frequently discussed - is the element of recognition, prestige, and power gained through community activity.

Many social workers have regarded the latter as a negative inducement, or have denied its importance, or at best accepted it as a necessary evil. In so doing, however, they fail to realize that this striving for status and recognition not only encourages and fosters voluntary community participation, but without it the social goals and objectives of our agencies would be more difficult, if not impossible, to attain.

It is the aim of this paper to examine the aspirations of lay leaders, especially those whom one may characterize as power people, in relation to the social goals of our agencies, and to suggest several approaches to handling and directing the satisfaction of power needs in a positive channel. In so doing, there is danger of appearing over-critical, cynical, or unconstructive; it should be said at once that a conscious effort has been made to avoid giving that impression - without, however, blunting the sharpness of relevant observations.

The social objectives of community agencies committed to the social group work method are clearly and forthrightly expressed in their bylaws, their house organs, and in the annual reports of their presidents and executive directors. The phraseology may differ, but the content is the same. The group service agency exists to "foster the social adjustment of individuals through group associations," or to "promote personal growth according to the individual's capacity and need," or to "foster responsible citizenship and mutual understanding"; or perhaps to "combat juvenile delinquency," or "encourage the qualities of social leadership",

*Reprinted with permission from Social Work, 1961, 6 (1), p. 66-73.

and so on. If the agency has a sectarian purpose, this is usually men-
tioned as one of its primary goals: to promote Christian fellowship, or
Jewish identification, or the like.

In all public pronouncements, and in meetings of boards of directors
and staff, the theme of democratic values and socially desirable purposes
runs like a thread through discussions and controversies, large or small.
Sometimes the true meaning of the goals of the agency, and especially the
implications of these goals in terms of program and practices, becomes
lost in the realities of budgets, personnel practices, building improve-
ments, public relations, membership policies, and programing. But
challenge the most uninformed supporter of any of the group service
agencies and he will tell you what a wonderful job "we" are doing to
develop personality, build character, or - at the very least - "keep the
kids off the street."

The continual restatement of the social objectives of an agency is
an important factor in attracting the right kind of citizens to the board.
It gives them the feeling that they are investing their time and energy
in socially approved and worth-while endeavors. It makes them aware that
they "belong" to an important institution. It helps them develop a sense
of noblesse oblige - the nearest thing to the psychological status of
Lord or Lady Bountiful in our modern industrial civilization.

Motivations of Board Members

All this is undoubtedly true. But one may well wonder whether the
appeal of participation in an important and worth-while cause in our age
agencies does not bear some resemblance to the attraction of our "over-40
clubs" to single men and women. The publicity suggests that these clubs
exist for informal good fellowship; no one dares openly breathe the
possibility that the lonely participants are desperately searching for a
mate. In the case of our board members, may we not perhaps say that many
accept board affiliation not only because they are committed to the
agency's social goals, but because they are also searching for such
"unmentionable" values as status, community recognition, social influence,
business contacts - or just a safe escape from a nagging wife or a dull

husband? Such motivations are either ignored or, at most, vaguely hinted
at in the textbooks, articles, institutes, and manuals available to either
board people or professionals.

Perhaps a lay leader can afford to be a little more frank about
power, prestige, and status as motivating factors in seeking and attracting
board membership. Gustave Heller's article comes to mind, on "The Care and
Feeding of Community Leaders."

"To be representative and to command respect," he says, "we know that
we must attract to our cause as sponsors and advocates certain people who
bring financial strength and the prestige with which such financial
strength is usually associated, sometimes without merit." Mr. Heller
points out that some of our boards are

> . . . overloaded with husband-wife teams, or are ingrown
> in another way by the inclusion of a charmed circle of
> close friends or have become exclusive clubs consisting
> of tried but tired people whom the executive director
> feels comfortable with and with whom he believes his
> job is safe. Or boards or well-meaning people who can-
> not face a deficit with either courage or hope, but
> even worse, boards of absentee tycoons who can always
> be relied on to raise money without knowing or caring
> much about the purposes for which the money is needed,
> nor much disposition to share their time and talents
> with people of lesser financial substance in an effort
> to find out.[1]

Aileen D. Ross in her study of a Canadian Protestant community
entitled "Philanthropic Activity and the Business Career" finds that

> . . . philanthropy, most particularly the organization
> of financial campaigns, is a substantial activity of
> successful business men. Such activity is not a matter
> of "noblesse oblige" or spirit of community responsibil-
> ity but rather of facilitating business careers, and
> maintaining good corporation public relations. Business
> men have community service careers as well as business
> careers and for each rung on the business ladder there
> is a rung on the philanthropic ladder and a man has to
> show his mettle on the latter to qualify for achieve-
> ment on the former.[2]

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[1]Gustave T. Heller, "The Care and Feeding of Community Leaders,"
J.W.B. Circle, Vol. 8, No. 1 (January 1958), p. 8.

[2]Aileen D. Ross, "Philanthropic Activity and Business Career,"
Social Forces, Vol. 32 (March 1954), p. 274-280.

Nor are "social welfare careers" confined to businessmen. Lawyers, doctors, insurance agents, and other professionals - and especially housewives - conduct a veritable Mardi Gras in volunteer organization and social agency activity, many of them reaching ever upward toward the next rung on the ladder. One has only to glance through the newspapers or publications, or attend the meetings, or any of the multitude of voluntary agency activities from the united funds down, in any of our cities, to be immediately struck by the immense traffic in pictures, prizes, and praises. The unwary onlooker, forgetting the agencies and agency objectives that are social in nature, might be tempted to believe that perhaps the only reason for all this activity is to give and receive recognition and status.

This is, of course, not so. The need for status and prestige obviously exists; we know there are more wasteful, less socially desirable ways of satisfying it. We cannot criticize people for seeking to fulfill a social need; only if by so doing they channel their drives into anti-social, destructive, or useless pursuits. As far as our board members and lay leadership are concerned, one can have only the greatest admiration and commendation for the fact that, despite the realities of dog-eat-dog competition, shoddy social values, and the insecurities and vicissitudes of modern life, they have chosen an outlet so identified with positive social values and democratic norms.

It is undoubtedly true that very few board members become active in our agencies solely for purposes of prestige, power, or self-aggrandizement. The overwhelming majority are attracted by the goals and accomplishments of the organization. But it is not the social goals alone that attract them. Every board member, to a greater or lesser degree, seeks or appreciates some measure of community recognition, prestige, status, and influence for his community participation. What is more, his identification and participation in agency activity itself acts to channel these power and prestige needs in socially positive directions. The result is often that those who have the strongest need for recognition develop into the most constructive and valuable community leaders.

But if these power and status aspirations are so prevalent and important, how is it that they are hushed up and that we find so little

about them in our professional literature? Why are these motivations
considered in bad taste and illegitimate? Why do we confuse our students
and younger practitioners and even ourselves by refusing to recognize
them, study them, and perhaps discover a pattern or science that will
help us in our work with lay people? Apparently it just is not done.
It is obviously contrary to the Protestant ethic upon which our social
and moral norms are based. It is certainly contrary to Jewish traditional
ethics which go back many centuries. Note this little commentary of the
Pirke Abot on the Talmud:

> Let all those who labor in behalf of the community:
> This is a reference to community leaders; that is, let
> them engage in communal work for the sake of Heaven,
> guiding people along an upright course, restraining
> them from evil ways, reproving them when necessary.
> And in all this their objectives must not be self-
> aggrandizement, acquiring honor or wealth or power or
> pride: For a public figure who lords it over the
> community is despised by God.[3]

The contradiction between stated selfless aims and realistic self-
seeking objectives in our society is nothing new. From the child who is
taught that certain actions are unethical which he sees his own parents
practicing, to the national and international hot and cold wars for
democracy and social betterment, there are gaps and lacunae between ethics
and practice. The job of the social scientist is not to ignore one as
against the other, but to try to bring both together into a single frame-
work and to paint a consistent and recognizable picture with varying shades
and tones.

Who Really Makes Policy?

It seems strange that social workers, who avoid moralizing about their
clients, still tend to segregate board members into "pure" and "impure"
types. We have either tended to shut our eyes and ignore their prestige
and power needs, or have entirely condemned them as antithetical to our
agency's social goals. At best, we have accepted these needs as limitations
and have accepted them more reluctantly than limitations of budgets,
building facilities, or trained staff. Because of our attitude, we as
professionals have never really allowed ourselves to trust our lay leader-

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[3] Judah Goldin, The Living Talmud (New York: The New American Library,
1957), p. 82.

ship to formulate the goals and policies of our agencies.   We have too
often manipulated and educated our boards toward accepting our conception
of what the goals and policies should be.   Our excuse has been that our
lay leaders are not knowledgeable enough.   Perhaps the real reason is
that we have never accepted them as people, and have felt their personal
needs for recognition and power as weakening and interfering with their
ability to formulate policy.   The temptation of some of us to become
manipulators instead of enablers has fanned the spark of suspicion and
distrust which many of our lay leaders have toward professionals.   And so
we are often considered to be "playing a game" - going through the motions
to get our lay leaders to adopt decisions we have already made for them.

Wilensky and Lebeaux quote from a letter by an executive of a family
service agency:

> I've been concerned and at the same time both amused
> and somewhat guilty about the fact that the Board of
> Directors makes policy decisions; both by authority of
> the by-laws and in the actual voting they do; yet
> actually in the presentday family casework agency the
> staff has to educate the board constantly and persis-
> tently and it certainly does choose the elements of
> education which lead toward the conclusion of which
> the staff approves.   In other words, we tell them how
> to vote and they vote and we call that process "the
> board sets the policy of the agency."[4]

William H. Whyte in The Organization Man spurns the notion that
professionals are any more capable of formulating policies than lay persons.

> . . . the scientific elite is not supposed to give
> orders.   Yet there runs through all of them a clear
> notion that questions of policy can be made somewhat
> nonpartisan by the application of science.   There
> seems little recognition that the contributions of
> social science to policy-making can never go beyond
> staff work.   Policy can never be scientific, and any
> social scientist who has risen to an administrative
> position has learned this quickly enough.   Opinion,
> values, and debate are the heart of policy, and while
> fact can narrow down the realm of debate, it can do
> no more.[5]

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[4] Harold L. Wilensky and Charles N. Lebeaux, Industrial Society and
Social Welfare (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1958), p. 273.

[5] William H. Whyte, Jr., The Organization Man (New York: Simon &
Schuster, 1956), p. 34.

Board committees have their status hierarchy, too. In group service agencies, fund-raising activities or the membership campaign (if there is one) is often the quickest channel toward board leadership. Next in terms of prestige may come the budget, the finance, the building, and the personnel committees. The program committees are usually at the lower rungs of the ladder, and it is a common occurrence to find our program professionals urging the executive director to help them recruit articulate, aggressive board members with status as chairmen or members of their division committees. The rank-and-file working member of the program committee, who usually understands the social objectives of the agency and is more in sympathy with social work goals and methods, has least to say about the formulation of agency policies. And while a board of directors to be properly balanced must have dedicated rank-and-file workers - people who participate in agency programs as well as power and prestige members - the former usually have to work hard to win nomination, while the latter are usually sought after and cajoled to become members of the board.

But this is quite normal. As Wilensky and Lebeaux point out: "Although democratic representation from all sectors of the community might be ideal for an agency board, it usually serves the financial and other needs of the agency better to obtain what is known in social work circles as a power board, that is, to take the American power structure into account."[6] For example, a study of administrative management of United Community Services in Detroit concluded that, assuming equal needs, "a long established and nationally known recreation agency with a power board and a middle-class clientele using its swimming pool and handball courts, stands a better chance of getting a budget increase than a little, local Community Center whose board president is the corner grocery man."[7]

What Attracts Status People?

What attracts status persons to agency boards? Numerous factors. The social goals of the agency are one. The service the agency renders, the people it serves. Often, the presence of status people already on the board is important. As one board member was heard to remark, "I'd

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[6] Op. cit., p. 269.

[7] John S. Leszezinski, A Study of the Administrative Reorganization of the United Community Services of Metropolitan Detroit. Unpublished M.A. thesis, Wayne University, 1955.

like to be on his team even if he were raising money for a cat and dog
hospital." Another attraction for status people is a new, modern, and
expensive building. Small neighborhood centers which have never been
able to attract power elements have suddenly found themselves popular
after successfully completing a fund-raising campaign for a new building.

Perhaps most successful in attracting and keeping prestige people
on the board are those agencies in which the lay person has important
decisions to make and where they are themselves closer to the field of
operation. Paradoxically enough, some agencies that have more profes-
sionals, where services and functions are very thoroughly discharged by
trained staff, are often less appealing to status businessmen and prestige
laymen. One may note that fund-raising organizations which conduct their
activities almost entirely by volunteers have high status, whereas most
family agencies, which are must more professionalized and whose service
is rendered in confidence by social workers, usually have a relatively
weaker attraction for prestige persons.

In any case, as an attraction for power elements the social phil-
osophy, the objectives of the agency, and the services it renders are
probably not decisive, despite the fact that the agency goals are its
very raison d'etre.. True, they are important in that they surround the
agency with an aura of respectability - "good deeds" - noblesse oblige
identification. But whether the particular philosophy is Freudian or
Rankian, task-oriented or growth-oriented, recreation or therapy - to
most power elements in the community these have only a public relations
significance. If the agency is generally considered by the public to be
doing a good job, has other high status individuals on its board, operates
a clean, well-kept building, and gives them a chance to do something they
can do comfortably without spending too much time and effort - that is
enough principle and philosophy to attract them.

Financially well-to-do, their businesses or professions stabilized
and children married off, many of our high-status community leaders like
nothing better than the pat of congratulation in a country club locker
room or the good-natured respectful ribbing in a town club bar the day
after their picture appears in the daily press or the house organ when a

minor job has been completed. Privately they may express their surprise that they received so much recognition for having done so little ("You know, the staff really did it all!"). But they play the role well - with just the right amount of humility and praise for their committee members, the agency president, and the executive and his staf. They like it, and the agency benefits in its scramble for status and power people in the jungle of modern community life.

The coin of the realm for the aspiring lay leader is recognition, prestige, and status. There is never too much of it, even when it may appear not quite fully deserved. The danger is rather that too little may be bestowed, souring the leader or potential leader into a miasma of bitterness, hostility, and indifference.

The importance of power and prestige as motivations and as policy-making factors in agency boards may appear to be over-stressed in this discussion. It is true that some boards show very little trace of it: members are dedicated, knowledgeable, unselfish; they respect and admire professionals and make only principled decisions. They may be objective, modest, devoted, and cooperative. But let us look at the board where prestige, power, status, and recognition are not important motivating factors in participation and decision-making - the chances are that its agency has difficulty getting its budgets approved, attracting influential members, or improving and developing new facilities. This is said without criticism. For it is the thesis of this paper that there is no basic contradiction between the aspirations for power, prestige, and recognition and dedicated devotion to agency goals. The difficulty comes only in the way these motivations are sometimes expressed and in the manner in which we as professionals have handled them.

Constructive Use of Power Motivations

We are still under the influence of two contradictory nineteenth-century philosophies: liberal social thought and Freudian psychology. The former states that man is the master of his environment and that social conditions can influence and change human nature. The latter holds that man's inner nature determines the structure of society and that

social conditions and relationships can be changed and improved only when man himself is freed from his inner fears and hatreds. While our social work practice has been greatly influenced by both these sociological and psychological approaches, until comparatively recently there has been very little effort made to synchronize the two into one total system to explain motivational behavior. Erich Fromm, Karen Horney, and others have been approaching this goal from one direction, while Talcott Parsons, Robert Merton, and their associates have been working toward it from another. It is this writer's belief that our field has a lot to gain and a great deal to offer as an arena for empirical studies in motivational behavior, and that we as practitioners have the opportunity to make an important contribution to this field of knowledge.

The failure to recognize and accept, along with the social goals of our agencies, the existence of unspoken motivations of prestige, status, and power as legitimate and positive factors in community life has led many of our agency administrators and practitioners into two kinds of blind alleys. One is the road taken by the professional who rigidly and uncompromisingly strives for the immediate attainment of social objectives that can be properly conceived only as long-range goals. He is inclined to be idealistic and dedicated, but naive; he becomes disillusioned, bitter, confused, and sometimes leaves the field altogether in frustration.

The other blind alley is the dark road leading to cynicism and manipulation - boot-licking upward and repression downward. To some executives (fortunately they are few), the modus operandi becomes the politics of the power clique. They surrender principle to opportunism, although still striving to justify antisocial or negative policies by ideological sophistry. Perhaps they have overidentified with the power elements - have compromised and surrendered the moral and professional responsibilities of their social work role.

There are several elements that may keep agency and board membership in line toward the attainment of their social objectives. First, there is the community structure which, despite limitations and weaknesses in the selection of board membership and leadership, has implicit

<u>in it a considerable degree of accountability</u> to the community. Interest
in the agency on the part of federations, community chests, and other
agencies is an important element making for equilibrium and social control.
The process of deficit budgeting, the planning and integration of services,
however loose and voluntary, at least <u>establish a climate for decision-
making based on social needs and community welfare</u>. For no matter how
strong the need for power and prestige, no group or individual can justify
an agency policy on that basis alone, but must also seek a social rationale;
the "what's-good-for-General Motors-is-good-for-the-people" justification
offends our moral sensibilities. The stated social and ethical objectives
of our agencies themselves are powerful guiding and controlling factors.

Perhaps just as important are the constituency and agency membership,
both real and potential. In a sense, a social agency is like a department
store: the customers won't come if they don't like what you're selling.
Lack of customers can be just as disastrous to an agency as to a business.
If the agency's policies do not meet community needs; if its programs and
services reflect no realistic objectives; if the agency structure is being
used for individual or group self-aggrandizement - sooner or later the
constituents will begin to drop off and look elsewhere for vehicles to
meet their social and recreational needs. Dissent may break out among the
members, manifested through indifference, nonattendance, or complaints.
And this may be reflected in the board itself by dissension or lack of
interest.

The Professional's Role

Important for us as professionals is a clear understanding of our
role. There is first the matter of attitude - the accepting, non-
judgmental professional relationship of a worker to a group. We accept
prestige and recognition needs in club and activity groups as natural
phenomena and direct them, without moralizing, toward the social develop-
ment of its members. We are quick to perceive overidentification or
competitiveness by a club leader with members of his group. Why is it
so much more difficult to carry over these attitudes in our work with
boards and board committees? Perhaps because our own interests and
prejudices are involved, and we have our own values and professional
objectives.

Nor is this by any means to suggest that we surrender or compromise these principles and become mere technicians. Social workers are "enablers," but this has never meant giving up their responsibility for furthering the cause of justice, human dignity, and freedom. On the contrary, the optimum relationship with our board leaders and members calls upon us to exercise the strongest adherence to our professional principles. What is more, this is expected of us by our boards and lay leadership, and the professional who compromises his dedication loses their respect and confidence and forfeits the opportunity to develop proper relationships with them.

The professional may be criticized and chided for being unrealistically idealistic; but he is expected to stand up for his principles. His dedication and professional integrity are his armor, and any crack in that armor is sometimes focused upon with more criticism than if found in the attitudes or actions of volunteers. There is often a subtle or unconscious testing going on, by lay persons, of the professional's ethics and principles - a process by which the layman learns and develops his role without having to seek professional guidance openly.

In many respects the professional's role is a frustrating one. He has his own needs for status, recognition, and power. If he seeks to satisfy them within the agency structure he competes with lay members of the board and volunteers. For such satisfactions he must seek outlets outside the agency - through professional and civic groups where his participation is on an equal level with his colleagues, and where he is himself a volunteer. In his own agency the professional has an advantage in influence by virtue of his very role. He spends more time there, is more familiar with what is going on. He has an advantage through education and training. For the sake of healthy role relationships in his agency, recognition and status-seeking on his part must be underplayed, and there should be no suggestion of competing with volunteers. But recognition and status outside the agency - through professional organizations, churches, and community groups - help the professional to maintain and extend his prestige within the agency itself.

The Agency Belongs to the Community

Perhaps we tend to overlook the fact that the board of directors reflects the attitudes and opinions of the community with respect to the services, philosophy, and objectives of the agency. We are sometimes frustrated and annoyed when certain board members, especially power people, do not see objectives in the way we do, or do not agree with our social work principles. Yet the ideal board is not one whose members are all knowledgeable, progressive, democratic-minded, or dedicated to broad social work concepts. Such a board might well set up a false and unrealistic climate vis-a-vis the community's real attitudes. If the board does not genuinely reflect community opinion and the readiness of the community to accept the objectives and methods of the agency, the policies it adopts may be rejected by the community.

The dedication to professional social work principles cannot be compromised. But it must be realistically tempered and qualified by a basic understanding that the agency is a community agency - that it belongs to neither lay leader nor professional; that the role of the professional is that of a technician and an enabler, a professional leader with positive values and social goals; and that policies and objectives must be worked out with mutual respect through a process of accommodation and education which operates in both directions.

In the policy-making and operation of our agencies, both board members and professional staff have their unique roles to play. The understanding of how these roles differ and what their essential ingredients are will help boards and staffs to work together toward the attainment of our social objectives.

ANOTHER LOOK AT THE EXECUTIVE-BOARD RELATIONSHIP*

James M. Senor

This paper seeks to examine a particular aspect of the relation-
ship between boards of directors and executive directors of private
social work agencies. It notes the popular view in social work lit-
erature that regards the relationship as a partnership, but suggests
that this view is not valid, that it is contradicted by the reality as
well as the organizational theory of the managerial level - the execu-
tive being subordinate to the higher level control, the board of
directors. While holding that the relation is not one of partners, the
author nonetheless submits several propositions descriptive of situations
that permit the executive to maximize his power at the expense of the
board.

The literature dealing with the relationship between the board and
executive of private social work agencies describes it as a partnership
in administration, each - the executive and the board - bringing unique
skills, experience, and knowledge into the arena of administrative
responsibility. Typical of these descriptions is that of Ray Johns, who
defines the relationship as one of co-equals in a common enterprise.
"It is that of equal partners. . . . It is not that of superior and
subordinate; neither lay nor professional workers are . . .superior to
each other."[1] Hertel also stresses that "modern social agency adminis-
tration has come to mean partnership."[2]

*Reprinted with permission from Social Work, (April, 1963), p. 19-25.

[1] Ray Johns, Executive Responsibility (New York: Association Press,
1954), p. 221.

[2] Frank J. Hertel, "Administration Defined" in Florence Hollis, ed.,
Some Dynamics of Social Agency Administration (New York: Family Service
Association of America, 1945), p. 1. It is interesting to note that
Hertel includes membership and staff as well as executive and board in
the partnership scheme (p. 5).

It is here suggested that, these descriptions notwithstanding, the relationship is not a partnership - how can it be? The board hires the executive and can fire him at any time. He has no corresponding authority over the board as a group or over any single one of its members, or even over those persons on echelons lower than the board such as, for example, members of committees and subcommittees. It is the board that adopts policy for the agency. However much or little the executive may participate in discussions on a policy, it is the board that finally must decide what it shall be.[3] And having been determined, it becomes the executive's obligation to carry the policy out. Whether he approves of it or not, he must put policy into practice and pass it on to the rest of the staff. His recourse, if his feelings are sufficiently strong, is to resign. Partnership implies equality; this is hardly a relationship of equals!

When the Executive is Superordinate

Even though the relationship is not one of equals, and even though the board by definition and function is dominant over the executive, there arise many situations when the reverse is true, when the executive is superordinate. The author is not here evaluating whether this is wise or foolish or good or bad for agency operation, or arguing against the view that there are times when effective practice requires the executive to be in ascendence. Whether the executive "ought" to be more in a power position with respect to the board does not enter into this consideration.

Personality factors of the administrator are also ruled out. It would not be unexpected for an agency head with a domineering personality to be more apt to move into the board's province, to become involved in "considerable usurpation of functions,"[4] to respond to his inner personal

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[3] Talcott Parsons, Structure and Process in Modern Society (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1960), p. 64. Parsons used the term "control mechanism" in describing a board of directors of a "typical private non-profit organization." He sees it as controlling the managerial level (executive director), while mediating the needs of the latter with those of the outside environment.

[4] Johns, op. cit., p. 220. He acknowledges this development, but explains it as due to a growth of competence and expansion of the conception of the role of some professionals. This explanation is too kind. The writer of this article feels that growth of professional competence

drives for power and prestige. But the propositions stated here do not examine the personality make-up of the executive. All that is intended is to explore variables that cause this increase of power[5] of the executive at the expense of the board. Stated as an inquiry, the problem is: What are some characteristics of the agency and of the board of directors that increase the power of the executive director at the expense of the board?

The propositions can be categorized as those based on (A) characteristics of the agency, and (B) characteristics of the board.

A. Those propositions classified by characteristics of the agency are:

1. The more "total" the institution, the more powerful the executive.

2. When the board loses physical, social, and verbal contact with the agency, and thus when its knowledge is based primarily on what the executive communicates, it becomes weaker with respect to the executive.

3. The more an agency staff supports the executive, the stronger he is with respect to the board.

4. The more an agency program requires a highly technical staff for implementation, the more dominant is the executive.

B. Those propositions classified by characteristics of the board are:

1. The greater the latent role conflict among board members, the easier it is for the executive to increase his power.

2. The more the board members seek or expect allocations from the agency or the community in terms of individual awards, honorary titles, and other acts of distinction creation, the more the executive holds a pivotal position of power.

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would exert the opposite effect, that is, a restraint by the executive not to violate the jurisdiction of the board. Furthermore, usurpation can be traced to, among other causes, personality dominance coupled with lack of professional discipline and competence, as well as to causes offered elsewhere in this paper.

[5]"Power" is described as possessing or exercising authority of influence. Terms such as "dominance," "superior," "superordinate," "ascendancy," and "control" are used interchangeably and as synonyms of power. They describe the position of the executive. Opposite descriptions such as "submissive," "subordinate," and "losing control" indicate the board's position in relation to the executive.

The Isolated Board

The more total the institution, the more powerful the executive.
A total institution has been described as having four central features:

> First, all aspects of life are conducted in the same
> place and under the same single authority. Second,
> each phase of the member's daily activity will be
> carried out in the immediate company of a large batch
> of others, all of whom are treated alike and required
> to do the same thing together. Third, all phases of
> the day's activities are tightly scheduled . . . (and)
> imposed from above through a system of explicit formal
> rulings . . . Finally, the contents of the various
> enforced activities are brought together as parts of
> a single over-all rational plan purportedly designed
> to fulfill the official aims of the institution.[6]

Among private "total" institutions are TB sanatoria, homes for the
blind, and rehabilitation centers for disturbed and delinquent juveniles.
Other examples are prisons and mental hospitals.

The features quoted above have pertinent consequences for members
of the board of directors in at least three ways. First, because of the
nature of activities and the fact that all aspects of living occur in
the same place, the total institution is physically isolated from its
environment; this isolation is not only from that part of the environ-
ment which provides the wherewithal the agency needs to operate - staff,
funds, clients, and so on - but also from the portion that determines
its policies and is ultimately responsible for its administration and
operation - the board of directors.

Second, because of the nature of the activities, aims, and fun-
ctions of the institution, it is highly unlikely that a board member or
someone in his family would become an inmate; for the same reasons it
is improbable that inmates would be of the same social circle as the
board membe   Being out of physical and social contact, not having a
friend or relative in the agency, not likely himself to be a client -
these situations forced on the board member by the features of the
total institution stand in sharp contrast to the situation of the board

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[6]Erving Goffman, "The Characteristics of Total Institutions," in
Amitai Etzioni, ed., Complex Organizations: A Sociological Reader (New
York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1961) p. 313-314.

member in nontotal agencies. In many of the latter members of the board
are participating members of the program. The health clubs, hobby groups,
and art classes of YMCA's, Jewish community centers, adult education
organizations, and other group work, recreation, and informal education
agencies attract a high percentage of board members. Their children
often participate in scout movements and in agency summer camps.[7]

It is not unusual for social acquaintances of board members to
seek services in family counseling, child adoption, planned parenthood,
and similar organizations. Thus, through direct participation, first-
hand contact by visits to the programs, and reports of family and friends,
the board member can know what is going on in the agency, what its
operational problems are, how recipients of services (or their families)
feel about them, how policy affects practice, whether administration is
efficient or inefficient. Furthermore, since the executive knows the
board member is informed or can find out about these matters, he tends
to be more solicitous of the board member's approval and is sensitive
to his reactions and evaluations. Thus, he reports often to the board
members, officially and informally, so that his interpretation of events
in and affairs of the organization will be known to them.

Isolated from and out of contact with a total institution, the
board of directors leaves the operation more completely in the hands of
the executive. Board members stay away, take a "hands off" attitude.
Information regarding what goes on in the total institution comes to
them via reports by the executive. They know only what he tells them.
He controls channels of communication and they do not have the other
sources of information so common in nontotal agencies.

Should a board member pay a visit to the total institution, hoping
to obtain a firsthand account, he would find it difficult to do so.

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[7] In a large community center for which the author worked nearly
every person serving on the agency's branch operating committee or a
member of his family took part in center activities. The same was true
for over half the members of the central board of directors. This is
not uncommon, especially in group service agencies serving the upper-
lower, middle, and lower-upper economic classes.

This is the third results of the consequences of the characteristics as described by Goffman. The schedule is rigid, "with one activity leading at a pre-arranged time into the next, the whole circle of activities being imposed from above through a system of . . . formal rulings."[8] The way of life of the residents would be so routinized and foreign to him that the board member could not obtain a real "feel" of the place, know what it is like to be a client, or be aware of the agency's operational problems.

Hence, because of the consequences of the characteristics of the total institution, the board members are on the "outside," out of touch and uninformed, and the executive is in control. Even matters of policy interpretation tend to be more in the hands of the executive here than they are in a nontotal organization. It is more difficult to contact or call board members together for an interpretation and, besides, the executive is far more familiar with the agency's problems.

A corollary proposition regarding nontotal institutions can be drawn from the above discussion. Situations arise in which members of the board lose physical, social, and verbal contact with the agency, do not or cannot participate in the program, and are not aware of what is taking place. Their knowledge of the agency is based on what the executive tells them. This state of affairs can develop through lack of interest by the members of the board, absentee board membership, deterioration to low status by the agency, or a variety of other reasons. Whatever the reasons may be, however, the proposition submitted is that, when such a situation develops, when the board loses physical, social, and verbal contact with the agency, and thus when its knowledge is based primarily on what the executive communicates, it becomes weaker with respect to the executive.

Executive-Staff Solidarity

The more an agency staff supports the executive, the stronger he is with respect to the board. In an agency in which the staff is in sympathy with and behind the executive, the latter is in a strategic position in his relations with the board members. He can more easily

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[8]Goffman, op. cit., p. 314.

resist their changes and innovations and thwart policy decisions. Opposition probably would not be open. An executive could appear to comply, but could "pass the word along" to staff that he does not favor the change or the new policy. With their co-operation through covert resistance, implementation of the board's decision could be delayed or defeated altogether.[9]

Executive and staff solidarity against the board may strengthen the executive in yet another manner, namely, by his being able to defend his special interests and keep his mistakes or weaknesses from coming to the attention of the board. Commentators on bureaucracy have observed the effect of staff protecting each other, "covering up," and presenting a united front against outside forces (clients, policy-making group, public). In discussing bureaucracy, Merton noted the tendence of bureaucrats to stick together and the consequences therefrom.

> Functionaries have a sense of common destiny for all
> those who work together. They share the same interests,
> especially since there is relatively little competition
> . . . In-group aggression is minimized . . . The esprit
> de corps and informal social organization which typical-
> ly develops in such situations often leads the personnel
> to defend their entrenched interests rather than to
> assist their clientele and elected higher officials.[10]

While Merton and Lowell were referring to a public bureaucracy, the elected officials of such are usually the policy-making group, and would correspond to the board of directors of a private agency. The same situation can exist in a private agency; the proposition is therefore submitted that the more an agency's staff supports the executive, the stronger he is with respect to the board.

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[9]Lawrence Lowell, in The Government of England, Vol. 1 (New York: The Macmillan Co., 1910), p. 179, noted how the staff and permanent undersecretary (administrator) of a ministry can control the incoming elected minister (who represents the policy-making group). By withholding information, putting blocks in his way, and frightening him with predictions of embarrassing developments arising from contemplated action, the staff and undersecretary were able to thwart plans for change.

[10]Robert K. Merton, Social Theory and Social Structure (Glencoe, Ill.: The Free Press, 1957), p. 201.

Controlling Communication

The more an agency's program requires a highly technical staff for implementation, the more dominant is the executive. Increased control by the executive comes about (1) through his almost complete control of the channels of communication between board and staff and (2) through his being part of a particular profession and affiliated with a professional association.

Board members have negligible contact with the program or staff of an agency whose service is highly technical and whose staff must be professionally trained in a highly specialized field. Unless a member of the board is also trained in this technical discipline, he cannot comprehend the day-to-day functioning of the organization. With regard to agency business, he probably does not speak the language of the practitioner and has no occasion to communicate with him as he would in the types of nontotal institutions referred to earlier. Even if the board member is competent in this or an allied discipline, professional ethics would keep him aloof. For example, a medical man on the board of a psychiatric or rehabilitative organization would remain distant from the program and refrain from discussing matters with the staff (unless he were called explicitly on a consultative basis). Doctors, and other professionals as well, have an unwritten rule not to get involved in cases in which the patient is not theirs.

Communication of staff to board and board to staff is controlled by the executive. Each can speak to the other only through him. The situation is akin to an hourglass, with the executive controlling the waist.
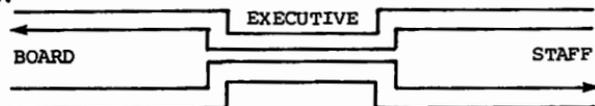
This point, and the power possibilities it holds for the administrator, has been well illustrated by Hawkes in his description of executive-staff-board relationships in a psychiatric hospital. In discussing the role of the administrator, he says:

> . . . the fact that this role is linked by implicit
> contract to both sections also creates the possibility
> of increased power and control. The mental hospital
> administrator is able to exert control over each of
> the two important groups, because to each he is the
> only representative and main spokesman of the other
> one.[11]

Putting it inversely, Hawkes adds:

> It is safe to generalize that to the extent that the
> administrator allows or encourages communication
> between the two groups to that extent he loses
> power and control both inside and outside the hos-
> pital organization.[12]

Superiority based on technical knowledge has been described also
in the field of education.

> The principal comes to the board meetings as a
> technical expert and as the day-to-day adminis-
> trator of board policies. As the day-to-day
> administrator of policy and as an expert, he
> enjoys a tactical advantage over the board
> members who are concerned with education only
> once a month.[13]

Identification of the executive with the particular profession
tied into the agency's services also tends to bear out this proposition.
If, as is often the case, the executive is trained in the same professional
discipline as the staff, his dominance over them (as a professional col-
league) becomes greater and the board's sway over the staff more remote.
This comes about through the influence of the professional standards on
which the executive is knowledgeable. In both these areas the board
members, being laymen, are on the outside.

Thompson and Bates, in their discussion of technology and adminis-
tration, have observed that technological development "is accompanied by
the proliferation of professional and technical societies and associations,
each with its unique values and codes of ethics," which can command the

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[11] Robert W. Hawkes, "Role of the Psychiatric Administrator,"
Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 6, No. 1 (June 1961), p. 101.

[12] Ibid., p. 104.

[13] Arthur J. Vidich and Joseph Bensman, Small Town in Mass Society
(Princeton, N.J.: Princeton University Press, 1958), p. 192.

allegiance of the professional. They further note that in a highly
technical organization there is

> . . . greater opportunity for the demands of the
> organization to conflict with those of the pro-
> fession, and at the same time a greater oppor-
> tunity for the individual employee to enforce
> demands on the organization by invoking sanctions
> from the profession.[14]

This observation has pertinence for the above proposition. An
executive (also an employee of the board) who is a professionally trained
technician working in a specialized social work agency can use the power
of ethics and values of the profession and the authority of standards of
the professional association against the board should there be conflict
over technical matters. For example, a board could hardly deny the re-
quest of an administrator of a psychiatric agency that a section of a
building be razed, expensive equipment purchased, or major routines of
long standing changed if these were recommended in the name of "adequate
health and safety standards."

In short, the character of an agency whose program requires a
highly trained staff for implementation has "built-in" elements that
can permit increased exercise of power by the executive over the board
of directors.

Role of Board Members

The greater the latent role conflict among board members, the
easier it is for the executive to increase his power. As pointed out by
Thompson, latent role conflict is present in various types of organiza-
tions; people carry to their jobs beliefs, attitudes, and values irrel-
evant to the task or purpose that brings about their association with an
organization.[15] Individuals differ in politics, ancestry, social habits,

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[14] James D. Thompson and F. Bates, "Technology, Organization and
Administration," in James D. Thompson et al., eds., Comparative Studies
in Administration (Pittsburgh, Pa.: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1959),
p. 180.

[15] James D. Thompson, "Organizational Management of Conflict,"
Administrative Science Quarterly, Vol. 4, No. 4 (March 1960), p. 393.

economic class, ethnic identification, religious affiliation, and many
other characteristics. Although Thompson was discussing these roles with
regard to members of ideological organizations or technicians in industry,
the army, and the like, the author submits that they exist as well at the
board level. And just as latent role distinctions can "spill over" into
official roles in technologies, they can become manifest among board
members and result in conflict. When this happens, the board becomes
divided and it is not unexpected when the competing elements seek the
support of the executive. Hence, his power is heightened at the board's
expense.[16]

The more the board members seek or expect allocations from the
agency or community in terms of individual awards, honorary titles, and
other acts of distinction creation, the more the executive holds a
pivotal position of power. Honorary titles are bestowed by many agencies,
usually to senior board members with many years of voluntary service.
Other occasions exist in agency affairs when granting an award is in
order. The completion of a fund-raising campaign, the end of a term of
office by a president, dedicating a new part of a building made possible
by a generous donation, the anniversary of election to the board of an
older member are illustrations of such occasions.

Shall an award be made, a title bestowed, a gift given? If so,
to whom and of what nature? If the allocations are not customary, these
questions must be answered, and the view of the administrator is crucial.
He is considered neutral and is invariably consulted. His opinions,
direct or indirect, as to whether someone should receive a title, award,
or the like carry much weight. Moreover, it is not unusual for the
executive to be the initiator of such sought-after agency allocations.[17]

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[16] The author worked in and lived through such a situation. Latent
role conflicts smoldered, then burst out over internal board differences
on the purposes, program and posture of a community organization social
work agency. Conflict was so intense that it carried into activities out-
side the organization. Friendships were affected and life in other org-
anizations to which competing board members belonged was disrupted. As a
noncommitted neutral, the executive was "sought" by both sides, was a
rallying and consolidation point, and had power and influence not ordin-
arily possessed in situations when latent role conflict had not erupted.

[17] Harleigh B. Trecker, New Understandings of Administration (New York:
Association Press, 1950), p. 173. As Trecker has pointed out, "The exec-
utive has a role in board and committee formulation and composition."

For these reasons and others, board members seek to remain in his "good graces." Consciously or not, they realize his power to influence the granting or withholding of acts of distinction creation, and this tends to increase his influence in other areas of their relationship with him.

Summary

Several characteristics of private social work agencies and their boards have been examined in terms of how they tend to increase the power and influence of the executive director over the board of directors in the hope of focusing attention on factors that shape the relationship between them. These do not exhaust the list of agency and board characteristics, nor do they touch on characteristics of other segments of the agency - staff, the executive himself, clientele, community - that tend to emphasize this trend of dominance, nor have qualities been scrutinized that bring about the opposite effect - overdominance of the board with respect to the executive.

Since the partnership theory does not seem to be realistic, it appears that identifying and examining the many characteristics of agency board, staff, executive, and so on, as well as focusing on the nature of power and organizational variables in our society, generally would bring to light more sharply what the executive-board relationship is, what the consequences of various types of relationships are, and what the respective parties need to do and be aware of to approach the preferred relationship. In view of this, further studies of characteristics and their effects would seem to be in order.

This includes suggesting persons for nomination and renomination to the board and for appointment to chairmanship and membership positions on committees. Further, the administrator is a status source and object in most social agencies, and status accrues from being associated with him within and outside agency activities.

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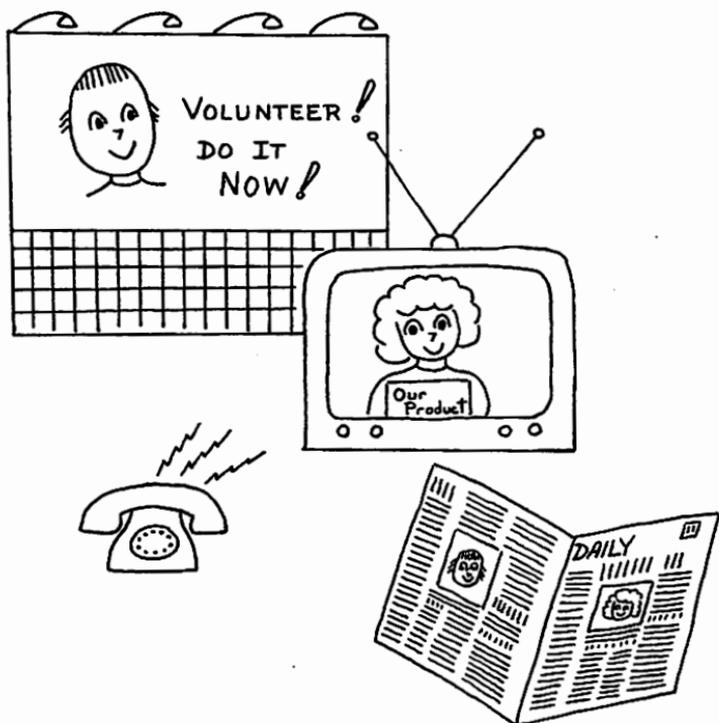
Section 6
Publicity and Public Relations

SECTION 6 - INTRODUCTION

PUBLICITY AND PUBLIC RELATIONS

Public relations is a topic of great importance to the voluntary
organization. How does an agency achieve a desirable image in the eyes
of the general public? This all-important image can immensely aid the
program in obtaining funds and volunteer help and support. The public
relations program is a total communications effort systematically
designed to transmit a persuasive message to the populace. Mass media
are usually the vehicles of transmission but a discussion, interview, or
handshake can be a valuable asset to the agency's image. A program of
public relations for the agency could include the planned use of press
releases, speakers, personal visits, briefs, and paid advertising in
order to present to other agencies, governments, private and public
institutions, and the general public information which would prove
beneficial to its operations.

It is essential to differentiate between publicity and advertising.
Publicity is information provided by the agency and published at no
charge because the message is newsworthy while, with advertising, the
agency specifies the content and pays the cost of broadcast or publi-
cation. In other words, content is controlled in advertising while the
message in publicity is presented in the words of the publisher. Both
advertising and publicity are integral parts of a total package.
Publicity, since it must be newsworthy, has to be carefully planned to
emphasize the positive aspects of the volunteer program and the services
which it provides. Press releases deal with specific activities and
are designed to accomplish a particular outcome. Therefore, it is
imperative that the objectives of the campaign are clearly outlined in
order to facilitate evaluation. Once the purpose is defined, the
audience who is to receive the release should be determined in terms of
specific characteristics, i.e., residence, age, income, and qualifications.
In many instances, the target audience may be the general public, in
which case the audience is easily defined; but at other times, as in

recruitment, the audience may be a few select individuals. Depending
on the objective - to inform, to persuade, to recruit - and the people
whom the message must reach, the agency plans its transmission vehicles.
Again, when the objective is to inform the general public of the
activities and benefits of the agency, the mass media - radio, tele-
vision, newspapers - are the best methods of presenting the information.
But as the objective and the audience become more specific so must the
method of presentation. Here, such media as speakers, specialty news-
papers and magazines, well placed posters, and personal visits may best
meet the needs. The timing of all publicity is critical. There is no
use planning and publicizing a door-to-door fund raising campaign to be
held on a long summer weekend just as it is of little value to apply for
funds at the end of a funding body's fiscal year. Finally, in addition
to objectives, audience, media selection, and timing, the effect the
publicity needs to be evaluated in order to change or modify the approach
in the future. This can be accomplished as easily as counting the number
of applicants after a cry for volunteers or the number of letters received
after a challenging editorial. Evaluation is an important component of
the publicity program. The first article, by Janet Hamilton, offers some
specific pratcial hints on developing and running a successful public
relations program.

Another method of gaining visibility for the agency's views and its
total operations is through the presentation of briefs. A brief is a
written summary of all the pertinent information, suggestions, and impli-
cations on a particular topic. The topic could range from the role of or
need for volunteer coordinators in government departments to a proposal
for increased current funding for the program. Briefs can be an expo-
sition of the views of the agency on general societal issues or the
government's policy on social services. Since a brief is to be forwarded
to a particular body or institution it must be written directly to that
party and in the expected format. The objective of the presentation and
the expected results must be clearly delineated and, again, the audience
must be carefully defined. It is necessary to consider not only the
primary but also the secondary implications of the viewpoints. e.g., the
agency's viewpoint may be favorably received by government but totally

rejected by the public. In drafting briefs, all points proposed in the development of publicity should be considered - objectives, audience, media, timing and evaluation. MacRae offers suggestions for preparing applications for grants from foundations and other funding agencies.

To this point our primary concern has been with external public relations programs in some situations the voluntary organization must include internal relations in its overall program. Relations with the board is a voluntary body established to guide the workings of the agency, it too must have as much information about the activities of the volunteer program. Many times it is the responsibility of the volunteer administrator to sell the board on use or expansion in the use of volunteers, increased departmental funding, or agency policy. In these situations, the concepts developed in planning and implementing a publicity campaign are extremely helpful.

PUBLICITY AND PUBLIC RELATIONS*

Janet Hamilton

Publicity for your various organizations can serve three different purposes - to recruit volunteers, to provide what is called community education and, occasionally, to raise funds. In order to gain publicity for your organization for any of these purposes there are a number of things to keep in mind - the audience you are trying to reach, the media that will be of the most use to you in making this appeal, the goal you expect your publicity to accomplish. One cannot put together a viable publicity program without full consideration of these factors.

Only your organization can decide what audience you want to reach for a specific purpose. If, for example, you are looking for volunteers in the Renton community to work on a project there, your efforts should be concentrated in that area. Use the local newspaper and the radio stations most often listened to by that community. Unless you specifically want to reach the greater Seattle area, don't waste valuable time and efforts on the Seattle papers or on television public service broadcasting. If, on the other hand, you are trying to raise funds or if your organization serves the greater community and you want to educate that community about your programs, then concentrate efforts where they will do the most good. Your information, in this case, would go into the metropolitan newspapers, to radio stations that reach the largest audience. You may want to make use of public service announcements. Stations are required to devote a certain amount of time to public service broadcasting and your organization might as well make use of some of that time. Public service broadcasting can be a costly and complicated affair if you don't have access to the proper resources - films, recordings, slides, etc. - so weigh your capabilities and costs against the results you hope to achieve.

Never underestimate the power of the community newspaper or the special interest publication. Almost everyone reads at least one community newspaper, even if it is a free shopper that is dropped at the

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door. In addition, there are a number of newspapers which reach special groups - Facts and Medium for the Black community are two examples. If you aren't familiar with these publications and the many others that serve other ethnic and minority communities, call the library.

Don't forget about other means of disseminating information. There are hundreds and hundreds of service organizations and community clubs throughout the area. Many of them publish newsletters. Often they will carry information that will aid you in gaining volunteers from among their readers. These organizations also seem always to be looking for speakers. Find out who their chairpersons are and offer the services of one of your articulate and well-informed volunteers or of a professional in your organization. Several of the volunteer groups with which I have worked have found this face-to-face contact so important that they have formed speakers bureaus to provide lecturers at such affairs. Always remember your purpose and the audience you want to reach. Don't waste your efforts on media that will do you no good or on the kinds of news stories that will not achieve your goal.

Whenever using any of the mass media you must remember that the average mental age of the readers is somewhere between 12 and 14. And even those who are much more sophisticated about their reading are not familiar with the lingo from every profession. You simply cannot use professional lingo to communicate with a large and varied group of people. You have to use clear and accurate everyday language (English). Editors and program directors will simply file lingo-saturated copy in the waste-can and never give it another thought.

Now let's talk a bit about the news. Readers of newspapers and viewers of radio and television news broadcasts are not often aware of the elements of the news and how they are organized. Often your volunteers working on publicity must be aware. The main elements of the news item - who, what, when, where and why (and sometimes how) - should be included in any materials given to the media. The lead of the story - usually its first paragraph - gives as many of these elements as possible. The body of the story amplifies these elements. Newspapers, of course, can often use more amplification than radio and television. You must

understand what is necessary to put together a news story before you can
provide the appropriate information to the media.

Each day, every newspaper editor or television or radio news director
has more copy than can be used. The New York Times, for example, receives
one million words of copy a day from its various sources. The average
metropolitan paper receives half a million words. A typical small daily
publishes 12,000 words of local copy each day and receives 60,000 words
from the wire services and another 15,000 words through the mail each day.
The editor must decide which events will be reported and how much space
or time will be allocated to each news item. The basis for their deci-
sions is the degree of importance of the event and the intensity of
interest they estimate their readers to have in an item. This is further
complicated by the extremely high cost of the media today. Television
time is extremely expensive. A certain number of minutes and/or seconds
must be allocated to advertising during a half hour television news
broadcast and during a 5-15 minute radio broadcast. Newspapers have
found their costs skyrocketing in recent years with constant increases
in the cost of paper and ink and salaries for their writers and techni-
cians who are now demanding pay more in line with the hours and high
pressure work demanded of them. Your subscription to a newspaper doesn't
even pay for the paper and ink. Newspapers now contain an average of
70% advertising to cover these costs. That doesn't leave much room for
the news. So your news items have to be good enough to compete.

In order to compete in the market, every piece of information
given to the media must be accurate. That means no mistakes whatsoever.
That particularly means no misspellings and especially no misspelled
names. In addition to your news releases or fact sheets, names (and
identifications - usually addresses) of persons "in-the-know" should be
provided in case any verification is needed or in case one particular
member of the media wants a source for further information. Newspapers
also like to use lots of names when space permits because the use of
names increases their readership. If they don't have the names they
certainly cannot use them. People love to see their names in the paper
- but not when they are misspelled. Be sure that all of the information

you provide is relevant to the topic. If the reporter or editor has to
spend time editing out extraneous material, the chances of your copy
getting into print are lessened.

Know the media deadlines. They differ from paper to paper and
from station to station. Any news director or editor can tell you when
they need information in order to give coverage to an event. Television
and radio stations need to know a day or so in advance of an event, if
possible, so the event can be built into time schedules. Public service
announcements often require as much as six weeks lead time. Radio and
TV seldom will be interested if there is no possibility to get an inter-
view on tape or a film to use, at least, behind the anchorman who is
reading the news. Try to schedule events for television in the morning
so there is time for film editing in the afternoon. When working with
newspapers, the deadlines even vary from one section of the paper to
another. Sunday features often have to be written by Thursday. The
Seattle Times seldom can use something if it receives it later than
10:00 a.m. unless the item is of extreme importance. The Post Intel-
ligencer prefers things in the afternoon as opposed to the evening.
Sunday magazine sections often want six to eight weeks lead time for
photographic features or articles. In any case, try to give your infor-
mation to papers well ahead of the event so there is a better chance of
getting it used. If your information is of special interest in the
business and finance section, the women's pages or the arts and enter-
tainment section, then find out the deadlines for the individual sections.
Weekly papers are another matter. Most of them want to be informed a
week ahead of their publication date - at least.

Now the real problem is to coordinate these deadlines, if you are
using all of the media, so no one is slighted. One major thing to remem-
ber in terms of public relations is to give equal treatment. By this is
meant, if you are trying to raise a large number of volunteers to work
on a specific program, don't ever ask for free public service broadcasting
time from television and then go to the newspapers and buy advertising
there.

What kind of information is most likely to be used by the media because it will have the most impact on the viewers, listeners, and readers? People read different items for different reasons. From their own special and individual backgrounds, they have special interests and they respond to the headline that an editor has placed above a story in different ways.

But for the most part, people like to read about people they know, particularly about themselves. They like to read about famous people, about spectacular events and about events that take place in areas where they live. Mostly, they are concerned about other human beings and what they are doing and what is happening to them. They almost always are interested in human interest stories, ones that make them laugh or cry or that make them furious or give them a lift. They like news about people who exhibit courage, sacrifice and compassion - news, to para-phrase William Faulkner, which suggests to readers that man's spirit will endure and prevail over the basic animal drives. There must be hundreds of stories over a period of time in any of your organizations that will fit into these categories.

This is not to say that you cannot get stories into print or on the radio, sometimes on television, about the when, where, and why of the next blood mobile. There is high interest in this kind of infor-mation. But this is not the kind of information that spurs a Sunday feature or provides an on-going publicity program for your organization.

When approaching a newspaper, magazine, or radio or television station about providing some special publicity through feature materials, be prepared to answer all questions. You can't expect the writer to make something out of nothing. An article about what a good job your organization is doing may best be told through the positive things that have happened because of its existence. You must make it possible for such an article to be written. If you are afraid of violating the confidence of a client by giving too many details, then don't attempt to tell the story of that client. Look until you can find a story which can be told without the persons involved being upset about the telling. Or use an example that cannot be traced to its source. And

if pictures are being used, don't expect the paper or the broadcast
stations to take the chances. Get a release from the parents of anyone
under age. Get a release from an adult in a picture. Be sure the
picture is taken with the full knowledge of the participants that it
is going to be used for publicity purposes. It's still possible to get
sued, but the chances are much less. If this all is too much trouble,
then use pictures that do not show faces - these never are as good - or
that show action in silhouette or any other method of conveying the
activity or mood that does not identify the participants.

We've probably said enough - maybe too much - about the media.
We should also talk about another kind of information dissemination -
getting the information to your volunteers after you get the volunteers.
All of your volunteers should know what your organization is doing, what
the sensitive areas are and what the answers are to sensitive questions,
or, at least, where these answers can be found. They should know your
organization's goals and the goals of the particular project on which
they are working and any other information which could possibly be of
use to them. Those who work on publicity especially should be knowledge-
able, not only, as I mentioned earlier, about how to deal with the media,
but also about your organization. They probably are the major public
relations element of your program. They have neighbors and friends who
may ask them questions. They will be giving answers to the questions
of the media. They can't make mistakes. When I worked for a news-
paper, this was the most frustrating thing for me in dealing with
volunteer groups. The volunteers, seldom through any fault of their
own, often didn't know enough to allow me to do an adequate news story
and often they didn't know where the information was available. I don't
need to tell you which story I didn't get finished on a busy news day.

There are many aspects of the public relations part of volunteer
programs. Some of you hire a professional staff who do some of the
things that volunteers also do. Maybe you have a well developed public
relations office or public information office and the volunteers are
helping only on special projects. Perhaps all of your publicity work is
done by volunteers. Whatever the situation, everyone has to know the
rules.

The major problem of being a writer, editor or public relations
type is that every person on the street thinks he can do a job that is
better than yours and feels duty bound to tell you about it. Almost all
human beings fancy themselves to be writers at heart - perhaps they
think it a romantic or an exciting thing to be. No one would think
of telling other professionals how to do their work but everyone wants
to tell news writers how to perform. Few people seem to understand that
news writing, editing and public relations are very finely developed
skills. Some are better at their jobs than others. But, almost without
exception, the professional knows more than the lay person. In dealings
of volunteers with the news media and in the dealings of volunteers with
the professional publicity and public relations persons on your staff,
this has to be understood. If your volunteers tell reporters how to
write their stories, chances are they will get no story. If they try
to tell the professionals on your staff how to do their jobs, there will
be hard feelings. Some of you undoubtedly have experienced this in the
past. Your volunteers need to know who makes the decisions and who gives
the orders. They need to know that you employ professional public re-
lations persons for a reason and that they are experts in their field
and that their decisions will be followed. If you don't practice this
technique with your professional staff, then I think you misuse it.
If professionals know less than the volunteers then the professionals
are a waste of money. The paid members of your staff most likely are
not working for the volunteers; they are working for your organization.
So try to avoid these frictions by making everyone aware of the rules
of the game.

Another thing to remember along these lines is the gap that still
exists between the media professionals and the public relations profes-
sionals. This is an old problem but it still exists. News writers
working for the "bona fide" media still often think of public relations
persons à la "Days of Wine of Roses". They think public relations
people are overpaid, underworked glad-handlers who are prostituting
talent for the almighty dollar. They think public relations persons
have an axe to grind and therefore are not totally honest. Public re-
lations types tend to think news writers are hacks who just don't under-

stand the importance of the organization, product, project, etc. they
are trying to sell. They often feel that the news writers deliberately
distort facts in order to get big headlines to sell more papers to bring
more advertisers - the facts be damned. We've come a long way in this
battle within our professions, but we have a long way to go. Those of
us who work in public relations-oriented jobs who deal on a daily basis
with the media have spent many long days and much mental anguish trying
to establish and then maintain our credibility with those who publish
our materials. Reporters for the media have tried equally hard to
develop our confidence in their work so that we will be completely open
and honest with them and provide necessary background materials. If
your volunteers don't understand how important this credibility is, they
can do it great damage. No good public relations person today will put
together a piece of puff for the media. But sometimes they are pressured
to do just that. Submitting non-news can ruin their credibility as a
bona fide news source. At the same time, a volunteer can really hurt
your organization by trying to tell the news writer that the story must
be on page one - the surest way that I know of to guarantee that it will
end up on page 38 with the truss ads - or by threatening to talk to
someone important if the paper doesn't cooperate. I've seen this done.
First, a decent newspaper will not bend to pressure, and second, the
editors or writer may not talk to you again about any kind of publicity
for your group.

In summary, in planning publicity for your organization, keep in
mind the audience you are trying to reach, the media tools which will
help you reach this audience, and the goals you expect to accomplish.
When you deal with people in the news media, be aware of their needs and
problems - how a news story is put together, the cost of getting out the
news, their need to have accurate and correct names and information for
their articles, and their news deadlines.

It is equally important to keep your volunteers well informed
about your program, its goals and problems. If your volunteers are
involved in public relations programs, they should be as well informed
about how to deal with the media as any salaried public relations person.

Above all, don't try to tell the public relations specialist or reporter how to do his job. And be aware of the difficulties which sometimes exist between these two professionals.

Good public relations is essential to your program. Plan and carry it out knowledgeably, and your volunteer program will be the benefactor.

GUIDELINES FOR DEVELOPING APPLICATION FOR FOUNDATION GRANTS*

Robert H. MacRae

In some measure I am an imposter. I cannot possibly fulfill the assignment outlined in the preliminary program of the Conference. It is true that I am an executive officer of one foundation, a consultant to a second and a trustee of a third. Nevertheless, these responsibilities do not enable me to tell you how to prepare your applications for a foundation grant. The reason is simple. Foundations are highly individualistic organizations. There is no uniform procedure for approaching foundations. Application procedures are almost as varied as the foundations and their trustees. Out of my experience with foundations I have arrived at only one generalization about them. It is simply this - it is almost impossible to generalize about foundations.

In spite of my honest disclaimer, perhaps I can make some observations of value to you. I hope you will remember one man's observations have no encyclopedic quality.

First of all, it is well to remember that foundations are not vast and inexhaustible pots of money. True, there are in the neighborhood of 24,000 foundations in the United States. They range in size from the $3.5 billion Ford Foundation to a modest New York foundation which soberly reported assets of 26 cents. Combined grants of all foundations probably amount to considerably less than one billion dollars annually.

This is a very modest percentage of all of the expenditures for philan-
thropic purposes in any single year. The Peterson Commission recently
concluded an independent study of foundations and concluded that foun-
dation grants represented only 9 percent of the total voluntary gifts
for the year studied.

Even though I have downgraded the importance of foundations as a
major source of funding, it is accurate to say they represent an
important resource worth your attention. The reasons are simple.
Foundation executives are generally on the alert for lively and creative
ideas requiring financing for limited periods of time. Furthermore, the
current unrest and change require responses for adaptation and change.
And, I should add, foundations are under compulsion to expend annual
income.

Now to your central question. How do I go about getting a foun-
dation grant? Although there are no generally held procedures for pre-
senting applications, let me suggest several useful steps to you for
approaching foundations.

Determine the names of the foundations which operate in your city
or state. The most complete resource for information is the Foundation
Directory published at intervals by the Russell Sage Foundation. This
volume lists approximately 8,000 foundations representing about one-third
of those in existence. Foundations are classified alphabetically state
by state. While there are some so-called National foundations that accept
applications across state lines, the majority of foundations tend to
limit their grants to their city or state. It is probable you can find
the Directory in your public library or the office of the community
welfare council. If you are feeling flush, you can buy a copy for $12.50.
I should add that a new edition is now in preparation.

If at all possible, attempt to explore with a foundation officer,
by telephone or in a personal conference, whether your proposal lies
within the policy or field of interest of his foundation. You will save
his time and yours by such a preliminary exploration. Your proposal may
be excellent, but it also may be entirely outside the interest of the

foundation. There is no point in your attempting to prevail by argument
over a negative answer to your question. If the foundation official
says no to you, it probably means that a policy or a trust instrument
does not permit consideration of your proposal. Remember that you don't
go to a hardware store to get a doctor's prescription filled. You go to
a drug store. Just so in the case of foundations. There are foundations
solely interested in health problems, others in education, still others
in fine arts. Fortunately, there are substantial numbers of general-
purpose foundations. If you do discover the foundation official displays
some interest in your proposal, you can then inquire about the most
acceptable format for making a written presentation. If he is greatly
interested, he will likely volunteer the information for making the
most effective presentation.

If you are unable to arrange a personal conference, your initial
request for a grant may be presented in letter form. This should be a
relatively short statement which deals with three questions:
1. What is it you propose to do;
2. How do you propose to go about it;
3. How much will it cost?
In the great majority of cases two typewritten pages should be sufficient
to make the case, together with an appended budget. An applicant's in-
ability to supply the gist of his case in a brief statement may indicate
his proposal has not been fully thought through and is, therefore, not
ready for presentation. Long and elaborate program statements are not
likely to be greeted with enthusiasm. I have had proposals as long as
120 typewritten pages together with charts and financial statements.
Out of that glob of information I must distill the essence, and that is
a task the applicant should have done for me.

If your brief statement has been both concise and informative and
if the proposal elicits interest, the foundation officer may invite you
to come in for a conference or he may write you asking you to supplement
your initial statement. Try to respond to his request, but don't over-
load him with information he cannot use and does not need.

Your estimate of cost should be large enough to do the job out-
lined in the proposal. In their eagerness to secure a grant, some
applicants make cost estimates entirely too modest to perform the pro-
ject well. A reasonably experienced foundation executive, reading such
a proposal is likely to conclude that the applicant is incompetent and
obviously incapable of carrying out the project within the stated budget.
I should also add, the foundation man is also likely to recognize padding
when he sees it. Understating and overstating dollar needs are consider-
ations all applicants need to bear in mind.

The foundation may be interested in your proposal but at the same
time have reservations about the capability of the applicant organiza-
tion to carry out the proposed project successfully. An applicant
should be prepared to face a searching scrutiny aimed at sizing up the
applicant and the director of the project. In the final analysis, a
foundation has to make a bet on the competence of the applicant and his
agency. Hence, the appraisal is a crucial element in foundation decision
making. An applicant agency with established competence and reputation
is likely to have an easier time than an unknown organization. No
applicant can assume, however, that he will not be subjected to searching
inquiry.

In selecting a foundation to be approached, it may be useful if you
inform yourself about the interests and style of the foundation. Reading
an annual report, conversing with other applicants, will provide clues to
you. Have funded projects been safe and pedestrian or have they been
venturesome? Is there evidence of interest in basic research or only
action research? What are the interests and background experience of the
foundation executive officer? Questions such as these will provide you
guidance in making your appeal.

It is necessary for you to bear in mind that the Tax Reform Bill
signed by President Nixon in December, 1969, placed a number of restric-
tions on foundations. Foundations are forbidden to support certain
activities. A foundation which ignores these restrictions incurs
serious penalties. Inasmuch as the Treasury Department has not yet
prepared the regulations interpreting the new law, foundations must now

act very carefully on advice of legal counsel. In order to protect
their clients the attorneys are now likely to be more than usually
cautious. You must, therefore, expect delay and very careful inspection
if your proposal falls in or near the forbidden areas.

The law also establishes certain standards which applicant organ-
izations must meet to qualify to become eligible for foundation grants.
This is not the time and place to attempt to state these qualifications.
In fact, I do not feel competent to attempt to do so. I merely wish to
make the point that foundations now face restrictions that may make
your access to foundation funding more difficult than formerly.

One result of the new law is already evident. Many of the small
family foundations are likely to be dissolved. The tax on earnings,
the accounting required and the limitations on activities place
excessively heavy burdens on the small foundations. Many will simply
disburse all their funds and surrender their charters. Others may turn
over their assets to community foundations. In either event, substantial
numbers of your potential sources of funding will probably disappear.

One final suggestion. The care and integrity with which you
manage a grant may have much to do with gaining favorable consideration
of a later application. Final reports which are carelessly written,
which claim too much and are long delayed leave an unfavorable impression.
Failure to acknowledge receipt of grants and to make adequate reports
reflect a serious lack of accountability.

The generalizations I have suggested may not be applicable in every
instance. They will, however, provide some general guidelines until you
have gained more specific guidance about the interests and procedures of
the foundation you have selected for attention.

If you fail to secure a grant the first time, don't be discouraged.
Try another foundation. Seek advice from others with experience in secur-
ing grants. Foundations are a resource, and they are under the compul-
sion to distribute rather than hoard their earnings. They may be of help
to you.

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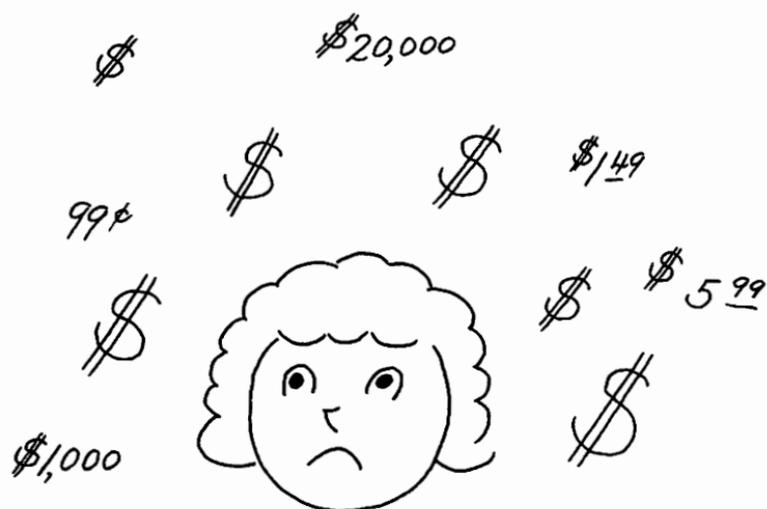
Section 7
Budgeting and Administrative Skills

SECTION 7 - INTRODUCTION

BUDGETING AND ADMINISTRATIVE SKILLS

The final section in this collection is concerned with practical budgeting and administrative skills central to the effective performance of the voluntary agency. Kahle believes that the traditional voluntary agency is overinstitutionalized and archaic in structure. His paper argues for a pyramidal - collegial structure, in which the supervisor-supervisee relationship is replaced by a unit organization structure that encourages personal growth and a free flow of ideas through all levels of the agency. The changing role of the executive and four basic managerial functions are also examined, and the need for recruiting, training, and developing competent administrators is stressed.

The core of the administrative process in an agency rests on making decisions and having them carried out. Bernard Kapell examines the nature of decision-making in voluntary agencies, stressing the collective aspects of the process, and discussing the features of participative decision-making. Crucial to decision-making is careful planning, a future oriented organizational activity. Byrd's paper develops a diagnostic approach to planning as specifically applied to a planning group of a volunteer organization.

Foundations, governments and funding agencies are beginning to insist on better controls over expenditure of the money, materials and manpower which their grants make available to voluntary agencies or programs. Too often administrators of such programs and institutions do not know how to introduce cost accountability and program budgeting into their operations. The article by Macleod takes the reader through the development of a planning and accounting system with particular emphasis on sources and uses of funds. McCurdy's paper proposes techniques whereby voluntary agencies, through joint cooperation, can begin to develop standardized systems for reporting statistical and other data useful to the rationalization and improvement of social services in the voluntary sector.

· In the final selection, Howard Hush discusses the move being made by the professional employees of certain voluntary agencies in the social welfare field. Will unions destroy or improve the voluntary agency? Who is "management"? Hush feels that these issues deserve careful consideration because they are quite explosive and could have far-reaching implications on future administrative activities in voluntary agencies.

STRUCTURING AND ADMINISTERING A MODERN VOLUNTARY AGENCY*

Joseph H. Kahle

The shortage of available manpower and the increasing demands to
provide more and better services have created a greater need than ever
for the voluntary agency to examine its administrative structure and
find more effective ways of operating. The voluntary agency has become
overinstitutionalized. Its structure is archaic. This has been partly
the result of placing administrative responsibility in the hands of
"amateur" managers recruited from the ranks of social work practitioners.

Basically, social work is carried on within agencies. The work of
the social worker is sanctioned by the agency and he in turn is account-
able to the agency for the work he does. The nature of the social
worker's professional training, the work he does when he is carrying out
the functions of the agency, and the purposes of the agency in which he
works, all combine to cause him to work within a bureaucratic structure.
When the professional is sanctioned by and accepts payment for his
services from a source other than the client, he must accept and work
within the organization's or agency's structure and rules.

Agency as Bureaucracy

All agencies are bureaucracies in one form or another. The
organizational prototype for most social agencies is a structure in-
tended primarily for business and industry. It is based on a system
of clearcut rules governing purpose, function, and practice, because
rules save effort and supposedly create efficiency and continuity.
With a clear chain of command from top to bottom, efficiency may be
maintained, but upward communication is muffled. This type of structure
is pyramidal in shape, with most of the chain of command emanating
from the executive level downward to the line worker.

The pyramidal organization tends to be static, and there is

little flow of power or ideas upward. (It is most clearly exemplified by the military services.) In social agencies, it is most apt to occur in the larger, public, tax-supported agencies, although the traditional voluntary agency, with its power and control stemming from a board, through an executive, a program director, and a number of supervisors to the social workers, also typifies the pyramidal structure. To some degree, public and voluntary agencies are beginning to adopt a modified, less static version of this structure.

In a healthy organization, one of the primary responsibilities of good administration is to recognize the value of ideas and concepts generated in the nonsupervisory force and nurture both the ideas and the source. There is constant pressure and a resultant flow of ideas from base to pinnacle. This does not readily occur in the pyramidal or bureaucratic structure, however.

At the opposite extreme from the pyramidal organization is the mythical agency that operates on the "collegial" principle, wherein all staff members are considered to have equal status, responsibilities, and qualifications. The collegial organization is an ideal, but it is nearly impossible to achieve or maintain. By its very nature, it is unworkable because it is leaderless - all social workers are not equal in capability and experience or in their ability to assume full responsibility for their practice. In addition, no organization or agency with a publicly sanctioned purpose and function can operate without direction, control, and responsibility, and it must be able to move quickly in decision-making to meet a wide variety of changing situations.[1]

An ideal, workable system lies somewhere between the pyramidal and the collegial models. The structure of such an agency resembles a broad rectangle topped by a flattened pyramid. This is the form that some voluntary agencies are beginning to take.

Pyramidal-Collegial System

The pyramidal-collegial system has proportionately less administrative structure than the traditional agency and proportionately more staff

[1] Edmund Arthur Smith, Social Welfare Principles and Concepts (New York: Association Press, 1965), p. 414-439.

available for direct services. The staff operates with far less indi-
vidual supervision than has been traditional. The pyramidal-collegial
system retains the basic managerial control of the pyramidal system but
allows the freedom and two-way communication of the collegial system.
With less supervision and with line workers organized in units, this
type of agency structure has many of the better characteristics of the
collegial system, but retains the purpose, direction, and control of
services necessary to carry out its functions.

Supervision

The process of supervision is one of the respected and respectable
contributions from social work to the helping professions, but for some
reason, many social workers have come to invest the work "supervision"
with a special meaning and a negative emotional response. Many of the
newer members of the profession view themselves as qualified professionals
and insist on independence of action and collegial status at the earliest
opportunity. Traditionally, the supervisor-supervisee relationship has
been of the teacher-pupil type with some administrative overtones. In
the past, the supervisor has been entrusted with the basic care of the
agency's staff development program and has provided the bridge from
intellectualization and theory to integration and application. Unfortun-
ately, in many agencies this relationship has been carried to the extreme
of fostering dependence on the part of the supervisee. It has not been
and still is not unusual to find agencies in which professionally trained
social workers with ten or more years of experience are still being
"supervised." As recently as 1964 Florence Hollis wrote, "It usually
takes from four to six years of experience to reach self-dependent
practice. During this time there should be a gradual transition from
supervision to consultation."[2] We can no longer afford the luxury of
leisurely development and the possible perpetuation of dependence.

It is vitally important to the social work profession that its
members develop a valid professional identity. Long-term, continuing
supervision of practitioners precludes this possibility. Supervision

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[2]Casework: A Psychosocial Therapy (New York: Random House, 1961),
p. 273.

must instead foster, at the earliest moment, the development of the
worker's independence, initiative, and ability to take decisive action
within the standards of his profession and the rules of the agency in
which he works. When a social worker has become truly professional, has
demonstrated his competence and makes his work visible to his colleagues,
he should be able to practice without traditional social work supervision.

It has been demonstrated repeatedly that workers learn most readily
when their practice and ideas are exposed to the appraisal and constructive
criticism of their peers.[3] It has also been noted that, even in the most
traditional agencies, workers frequently turn to their colleagues rather
than to their supervisors for consultation on difficult and specialized
cases. Hollis says, "It is possible, too, that more innovations in
practice emerge where workers are free to follow their own intuitions and
without the self-consciousness often engendered by supervision."[4]

Unit Organization

Within the pyramidal-collegial organization, many of the functions
formerly carried out solely by the supervisor are performed by the workers
as members of units. These units, consisting of a unit administrator and
as many as eight social workers, function effectively both in adminis-
trative matters and in staff development. They create independence at an
early stage, develop open communication and constructive criticism, and
lead to creativity and innovation in practice.

Although some orientation should be provided by the unit, a period
of individual supervision is still the most efficient way of orienting
recent graduates and new workers to the work and functions of the agency
and of gauging their capabilities. This individual supervision should
be ime limited, with the expectation that the unit will assume respon-
sibility at the earliest opportunity for the new worker's development.
The initial individual supervision can be undertaken directly by the
unit administrator or by an experienced worker designated by him. To
foster speedy development, it is imperative that the new worker be
incorporated into a unit immediately.

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[3] Jadwiga Judd, Regina E. Kohn, and Gerda L. Schulman, "Group Super-
vision: A Vehicle for Professional Development," Social Work, Vol. 7,
No. 1 (January 1962), p. 96-102.

[4] Op. cit.

Units are made up of a mixture of new workers and experienced personnel who have demonstrated their professional competence and ability to work within the framework of the agency. The unit administrator is selected by the executive in consultation with administrative staff and unit members. The administrator, who must always be readily available to unit members, is responsible for planning the work of the unit and is accountable for the administration of its activities.

In the transition period from the traditional organization structure to the unit structure, the former supervisor (now the unit administrator) assumes his long-overdue role as administrator, planner, policy-maker, and leader. He becomes the unit administrator responsible both to administration and to the unit. He becomes a participant in the process of the unit as a group. He, as well as the workers, must expose his practice to the unit's scrutiny and constructive criticism. He has much to teach, but he also can learn much from his unit. The unit administrator must have unusual strength and flexibility to make the transition.

Aside from its teaching-learning, consultation, and staff development functions, the unit serves as a forum for discussion of procedural problems, development of program ideas, and development of ideas leading to changes in and formation of policy. Much of the actual work of the unit is planned and carried out democratically. The unit assists administration with communication and program management and may serve as a sounding board or advisory panel for program ideas, policy development, and other matters directed to it by the administrator. The unit itself, using its practice experience, initiates suggestions aimed at bringing about changes in policy and direction. In other words, there is a healthy, constructive, upward-and-downward flow of communication.

One of the many problems that plague us in making the transition from the traditional pyramidal organization to the modified pyramidal-collegial structure lies in the creation of functioning units. All of the problems of restructuring an agency and all of the resistances to change can be anticipated, but by careful planning and by involving all levels of staff in the planning process, the change can be made success-

fully and relatively quickly.[5]

In order that the type of free-flowing communication so necessary in the pyramidal-collegial structure may be made to work, all staff members, including administrative staff, must be included in units. Without total participation, effective communication decreases. Without the obvious willingness of administration to expose its practices to scrutiny, staff confidence also decreases. Administrative staff and unit administrators constitute a single unit somewhat different from the worker units. Its purposes are to facilitate administration, aid in planning and policy development, and handle much of the personnel business of the agency. This unit also serves as a forum for discussion of procedural problems and for the development of program changes. The administrative unit is similar to the worker units in that its members must make their work visible and understandable to each other. In this way the administrative unit serves as a link and a communications medium between the executive and the working units.

The effectiveness of the working units depends upon the competence, flexibility, and willingness of each worker to expose his practice and accept the evaluation of his colleagues. Two factors are vital to the successful functioning of the unit: respect for each worker as an individual and trust that criticism and evaluation are practice oriented rather than personally directed.

Under the old system, workers were evaluated only by their supervisors and the administration. The relationship between the supervisor and the supervisee was not clearly defined. Evaluation was often rather bland because administration foisted the marginal worker onto the supervisor, and it became the supervisor's understanding that it was more important to keep a position filled than to run the risk of hurting the feelings of a marginal worker, causing him to leave. If the modern agency is to be successful in creating a climate in which the worker can become a fully qualified professional, it must accept the risk of losing staff members who cannot tolerate direct and growth-focused criticism of their practice.

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[5] Tsuneko K. Apaka, Sidney Hirsch, and Sylvia Kleidman, "Establishing Group Supervision in a Hospital Social Work Department," Social Work, Vol. 12, No. 4 (October 1967), p. 54-60.

In the pyramidal-collegial organization, the process of evaluating individual workers' performance becomes a function of the unit. Written evaluations are prepared by unit members. A self-evaluation is done by the individual worker. The unit administrator combines these in final form, which is reviewed and approved, disapproved, or commented on by administration. If weakness in practice is noted, definite goals for improvement and a time-table for accomplishment are made an integral part of the written evaluation.

New workers should be evaluated by the worker assigned to them for individual supervision and should also be asked to prepare self-evaluations. During the first year of employment, these evaluations should take place at three-month intervals to help the worker achieve a high level of performance as quickly as possible. The agreement between the worker and the agency at the time of employment must clearly state that a worker is expected to meet agency standards of quantity and quality of practice and must be able to function without individual supervision within a two-year period.

The unit system requires a high level of competence on the part of the unit administrators. Consequently, unit members are asked to evaluate the quality of leadership they receive and the administrative ability of and the contribution to staff development made by the unit administrator.

Administrators must be convinced that the implementation of a program requiring the highest standards of practice and the discomfort caused by temporarily disturbed staff relations are worthwhile in terms of better future performance. They must be determined to follow through on their plans, knowing they will be creating an atmosphere in which social workers become truly professional. Workers also must understand that, as a part of their employment contract, they must accept the responsibility for their own growth and professional development, the responsibility for becoming professional. The agency must provide the resources for growth but cannot accept the responsibility for the use to which individual workers put these resources. Administration assumes that graduates of accredited schools of social work have the potential

and the background for learning to provide good service. If the agency
provides the proper climate for staff development and adequate resources
for learning and the worker is still unable to profit from them, the
problem then lies with the worker, not the agency.

The modified pyramidal-collegial structure, with its emphasis on
unit supervision, is possible only when the majority of the staff have
a high level of skill. It is difficult for many family agencies, es-
pecially those in communities where salary levels are low and funds
limited, to attract and retain competent staff members. These agencies
must somehow find funds to provide attractive salaries and thus avoid
becoming training grounds for better paying jobs. Perhaps executive and
board members should reconsider their need to fill every position and
sacrifice some of their less effective staff, thus recapturing enough
money for salaries that will enable them to retain experienced, effective
workers.

Causes of Conflict

No matter what the organization, no matter what its structure, con-
flict, to some extent, is inevitable. Informal staff organization
structure may be in conflict with the formal organization aspects of the
agency. Despite the amount or intensity of preparation carried out with
the staff, anxieties and tensions are created in the transition from the
traditional structure to the unit structure. Workers' hopes for "a much
better world to come" are awakened.

When the executive formally recognizes these hopes and stimulates
the workers' sometimes ambivalent desire for independence, he can expect.
conflict. Many capable workers are fearful of cutting loose from the
known and venturing into the unknown. Others assume their competence
to be greater than it actually is and want immediate independence. It
often seems that the longer a worker has been practicing the greater he
assumes his competence to be, and the less he sees the need for account-
ability to the agency. In reality, because of the varied quality of
experience, his competence may not be as great as he perceives it to be
or his competence may be in areas not valued by the agency. There is

conflict when the worker has either more competence or less competence than is required by his assignments.

The unit's new freedom and open exchange of ideas are intended to stimulate independent judgment and action, yet this same independence of action may cause conflict between the agency and worker. Because workers are given the responsibility for a vast area that has an important bearing on the lives of the clients, and because these workers represent the entity of the agency, the organization must provide some control and support of the services that are offered and the way in which they are performed. This control may create resentment toward administration.

Experience has shown that in an agency using worker units in a pyramidal-collegial system the increased communication of ideas, pro-cedural questions, and explanations and questions regarding the reasons for controls and the need for controls will result in a reduction of conflict. It is not a quick or easy process. It requires constant attention and effort on the part of the administrators and the workers, but the resultant creativity, increased production, better quality of service to clients, and the pride and positive self-image that the workers develop are well worth the effort.

In large organizations, one often finds a perhaps inevitable separation between the professional and the managerial groups. This is another cause of conflict. It is strange that a profession based largely on the ability to understand and communicate so rarely understands and accepts the executive and managerial role. The worker finds it hard to understand the role of the executive and the pressures brought to bear upon him in the performance of his work. Contrary to popular belief, there is probably no position in which there is so little glory for the labor involved, yet, for the executive who is good at his job, the rewards come from seeing other people working effectively because his efforts make it possible.

Role of the Executive

The executive must concern himself with planning, budgeting, and

adhering to the rules and regulations established by his board and by
funding bodies. His decisions will affect the future of the agency and
each staff member. He is ultimately responsible for the performance of
each agency employee. The worker, facing clients, is rarely involved in
these responsibilities and does not often see himself or his work in the
context of the agency in relation to the total community.

Traditionally, executives of most social agencies have achieved
their positions because of their abilities as social workers rather than
as managers. Those few executives who are really effective have had to
develop managerial skills largely from experience. Too many are unable
to free themselves from their identity as caseworkers and accept and
identify with their roles as managers.

It is essential that the executive be a good manager if the pro-
fessional staff is to carry out its job effectively. Social work admin-
istrators are more fortunate than many administrators in other kinds of
organizations because they do understand the basic skills of their staff
and not just how these skills may be applied to production.

Four Managerial Functions

Generally speaking, there are four basic managerial functions in
social work administration. The first is the development of a scheme of
organization. The executive must determine the best way to organize his
resources to get the job done. He must keep in mind the people who are
doing the work, their competence and ability to accept change, and he
must determine who will be making the decisions. He must plan how and
when to delegate authority. He must know that delegating responsibility
and authority does not involve any loss of control or abdication of his
final responsibility. This implies flexibility and willingness on his
part to take some risks since in the long run he will be responsible for
the outcome of the program. However, without this willingness to accept
risk and to delegate authority, his program will lack creativity and
remain static.

The second managerial function is planning. This is related to the study and diagnostic process in casework. The executive studies the problem in terms of the goals to be reached, seeks various alternative solutions, determines where each alternative will lead, and then decides which course he will follow to reach his goal.

The third managerial function relates to decision-making and implementation. After the executive has made his plans, he must put them into action. This is where decision-making plays an important part and precisely where many managers abdicate their responsibilities. The executive must realize that he sets the pace for the professional staff. The executive who must make the decisions must also bear the responsibility for them, whether they are right or wrong. If he abdicates his responsibility to a committee or to a subordinate, he ceases to be a manager.

An important factor in implementing decisions or plans is the executive's ability to lead his staff in carrying them out. If he has done his work well in developing his organization and in planning, he has brought his staff along with him to this point. But at the point of implementing a decision or plan of action, this can no longer be done on a democratic basis. When decisiveness and speed are called for, delay may destroy the possibility of implementation. In the long run, the executive must accept the fact that he is the boss. Although the effective manager is approachable by all staff members and seeks out their ideas and incorporates them into his plans, once his plans are formulated, he must be able to ensure that they are put into effect.

The agency executive's fourth managerial function is control. An agency must be under the control of its administrator so that he may know where he is and whether he has achieved the agency's goals. He needs a system for accounting for service. A sophisticated service accounting system must accomplish four basic things for the administrator: (1) It must give him a method of general accountability to his board, the funding body, and the community for his agency's work. (2) It must give him the necessary information for program control. He should be able to determine the needs of the clients and the community the agency serves, what is being done to meet these needs, how effectively his

agency is meeting them, and what needs are not being served. (3) It must give him a number of measures of staff performance, both quantitative and qualitative. (4) It must indicate the level of staff development and point to the need for special areas of concentration in staff development.

These four functions fall in the area of operational research. The system should also provide a base for theoretical research if it is truly to serve the needs of the agency, clients, and administrator. A service accounting system that performs all five of these functions well will allow the administrator to demonstrate the "payoff," the effectiveness of the agency's program. This is the area in which many of us have been remiss. Because social work does not produce a "hard product," we have allowed ourselves to become convinced that what we do produce is difficult to evaluate and demonstrate. It can be done, however, and if we are to continue to receive community support, we must be willing to show the community what that payoff is.

The position of the executive in the private agency is rapidly undergoing change. More and more frequently, board members and representatives of funding bodies are asking such managerial questions as "How would you put what your agency does into money terms?" "What results can you expect to get for X number of dollars?" "Which aspect of your program pays off best for the least dollar investment?" The chairman of the board evaluates the executive in terms of how good he is as a manager and how well he controls the agency's program. A good service accounting system can help the executive answer these questions.

The executive of the voluntary agency must wear many hats and serve many masters. He must be a professional social worker, an expert office manager, a reasonably adequate accountant, a wizard at public relations, an excellent personnel officer, a topflight planner, a financial go-getter, and a chief executive. Basically, the executive must be tough. To be good, it is essential that he be continually a little dissatisfied with what he is doing, but at the same time be happy in his work. He cannot be a victim of the "Peter Principle" and seek or allow himself to be promoted to a position that places him under intolerable pressure.[6]

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[6]Laurence J. Peter and Raymond Hull, The Peter Principle: Why Things Always Go Wrong (New York: William Morrow & Co., 1969).

As an executive he is caught between pressures from his board, funding body, community, and staff. If he does not have toughness of mind and the ability to absorb pressure and hostility, if he cannot live with the decisions he must make, he should realize he is in the wrong position, and, as Peter advocates, either step down a notch or find something else to do.

In view of today's situation, which requires great flexibility from agency administrators who are contending with an extremely wide variety of community pressures and problems and the need for agencies to change to meet these changing community demands, it is imperative for agency boards and for the social work profession itself to review agency structures to make them more workable. There is a serious shortage of competent managerial skills in many voluntary agency executive positions. Almost thirty years ago Bertha C. Reynolds pointed out the need for "a training course in which preparation may be made, and in which adminis-trative problems may be worked through in a professional relationship to a supervisor who will give the security of a shared responsibility. When we bury the illusion that an executive must seem to be one of the gods, we may have field-work for executives-in-training and take it as much for granted as field-work in case work."[7]

Perhaps these ideas seem a bit dated, but the need for an adequate recruitment, training, and ongoing development program for voluntary agency executives still exists. What fragmented efforts are being made are carried out after the fact - after the executive assumes his respon-sibilities. It is time that schools of social work and national voluntary organizations got together to develop a program to prepare strong, mature, creative voluntary agency executives for their responsibilities.

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[7] Learning and Teaching in the Practice of Social Work (New York: Farrar & Rinehart, 1942), p. 320.

DECISIONS! DECISIONS! DECISIONS!*

Bernard M. Kapell

As individuals, each one of us is always making decisions. We make
at least a dozen, sometimes several dozen decisions a day. Many are in
our personal lives; some are relatively major decisions, many are minor.
We make them without measure in our work.

We may consider our personal decisions our most important ones, but
very often the decisions we make on the job condition the kinds of decisions
we must make in our personal lives. Notwithstanding the considerable
differences between making personal decisions and decisions we make in our
work-a-day life, the principles behind decision-making, per se, are the
same in one's private life as they are in one's professional environment.

This article does not deal with personal decisions. It is concerned
only with Decisions, Decision-Making and Problem-Solving in our work
situation as volunteers and staff in the agency or organization with which
we are associated.

Decisions, in a real sense, are prognostications about the future.
What we have to realize is that when we think about the future we are no
longer dealing with validated ascertainable facts. The process of fore-
casting evokes hesitation and doubts. It also generates controversy and
often compromise. We begin to see half rights and half wrongs. We get
caught up in much plodding work with only an occasional sudden brilliant
insight to relieve the tedium. Often we are tempted to leave well enough
alone. Sometimes we have an urge to rush in where angels fear to tread.
And always we know that there is no certainty except in retrospect.

Since we cannot consult a Delphic Oracle, we must condition our-
selves to think in terms of the future. Possible future obstacles must
be foreseen. To make decisions in terms of existing conditions only is
to face the problem of rushing from one crisis to another.

We live by a constant flow of day-to-day and moment-by-moment decisions. The ability to make wise decisions and to get them accepted requires a skill that can be equated with an individual's personal success and leadership qualities. The possession of this skill is frequently the barometer by which one can measure the volunteer's capability for the assumption of greater responsibility for a staff worker's promotional potential.

The professional literature is weighted down with interpretations of the decision-making process and how volunteers and staff make decisions that influence their own work situations and the activities of those with whom they interact on the job. We shall examine some aspects of this subject.

Decision-Making in the Organization

The core of the administrative process in an agency rests on making decisions and having them carried out. What decisions are made, and how they are made, determines the quality of the administration. The most basic decisions an administrator or a supervisor makes are those related to Delegation, Assigning Responsibilities, and Giving Authority Commensurate with those Responsibilities. These are all central to his ability to function efficiently and effectively.

The flow of decision-making places the responsibility for carrying out assignments on the person or persons who was employed or assigned to that job on the basis of training and/or experience. If delegation of responsibility is thoughtfully made, and if authority is likewise delegated, most of the operating decisions will be made at the operating level. There is a decision-making role for the Executive or Supervisor, but it is reserved for those problems where there is difficulty in interpretation, when unusual circumstances obtain, or where the nature of the decision is commensurate with his own responsibility and authority.

Decision-making and action are inevitably intertwined in all organizational behavior. The very reason for making a decision is to chart a course of action. Therefore, every volunteer and professional staff

member may reinforce his decision-making skills if he has a better under-
standing of the process by which decisions are made.

Chester I. Barnard, in his book, The Functions of the Executive,
made a perceptive and cogent statement on the decision-making process:

> "The fine art of executive decisions consists in not
> deciding questions that are not now pertinent, in not
> deciding prematurely, in not making decisions that can-
> not be made effective, and in not making decisions that
> others should make."

We can transpose Mr. Barnard's statement into a set of positive precepts
to chart our own style and manner in making and timing decisions:

- Decisions should be made only if they are pertinent to the
  concern of the individual making the decision, and to the
  concern of the agency involved.
- Make only those decisions that are now called for. If there
  is time, delay your decision; new facts may become available
  or circumstances may change.
- Make only those decisions on which effective action can be
  taken.
- Make the decisions which are your responsibility; if someone
  else is charged with responsibility for making a particular
  decision, permit him to do so.

The Nature of a Decision

In a logical transaction let us now consider the question: What
is the nature of a decision?

All behavior involves a conscious or an unconscious choice of
certain actions, or decisions, as we call them. When a person follows
one course of action he has rejected other courses of action. Every
action is selected from a set of possible alternatives. Some choices
are merely reflex actions; others call for study or deliberation. Some
choices require a simple response; others call for a series of steps
which calls for a plan or design.

The work of voluntary agencies, no less than the work of other organizations, involves decisions of many types, and demands continual choice-making. Ideally, volunteers or staff members are selected or appointed on the basis of established qualifications. Someone has made a judgment that the individual is capable of executing the responsibilities that go with the job. That individual either has the background and experience to make the choices - or decisions - that the job requires or can and should be trained to make them.

Making decisions is a joint process in any organization. Few decisions are really made by any one line in the hierarchy. Every decision is likely to affect many other people, and most decisions are based on what other people think and what they do. The decision-making process is far more collaborative than is generally realized, because decisions tend to build on previous decisions which have been effective or which have already started the course of action to meet the problem or situation with which the agency or organization is coping.

In the Voluntary Agency field good decisions are frequently joint decisions, because they are based on knowledge and opinions of several persons who are involved, and they are therefore more likely to be correct decisions because they combine the reflective thinking and judgment of more than one person. Decisions made on this basis are more likely to gain acceptance, and probably are therefore more effective. Every decision contains some element of the value-system of the decision-maker; but decisions should be based on the goals and objectives of the Department and the Agency or the Organization. What a person is trying to accomplish will influence what he decides to do - what course of action he selects.

The choice may be made from a number of goals or objectives. Occasionally, the decision-maker can reconcile two of these objectives but generally he has to select one over others. The possible effect on the agency's program must be taken into consideration, and at this point the volunteer or staff member may have to involve his supervisor. At this point the decision is appropriately shared at a higher level in the hierarchy.

Decisions are always inter-related. It is almost impossible to make one decision in an organization without affecting other decisions. For example, in making decisions about budgets the agency is undeniably greatly influencing not only its staff but also the people being served and the type and quality of the service which it will provide to the community.

Decisions in one Department or on one level of the agency almost invariably affect other Departments and/or other levels.

Staff in positions of lesser responsibility, by their choice of alternatives, shape the decisions of their superiors. In some cases they may even help shape organizational policy.

Participative Decision-Making

Having introduced the values of joint decision-making, this is a good point in time to examine participative decision making in some detail. Behavioral scientists have stressed that wide participation in decision-making is both valid and desirable in all types of organizations. We believe this has high applicability to voluntary agencies, because in their very essence they work on a participative basis. Three basic reasons are easily identified:

- Participation involving volunteers and staff insures that the agency maintains its relevance to the community it serves. Participation stimulates the professional growth and improves the morale of both volunteer and staff.
- Participation utilizes each person's individual abilities and skills to a greater extent and thus achieves more significant input to the decision-making process.

Sometimes a conflict develops between the ideal of wide-spread participation and the need for a prompt and appropriate decision. It is postulated that the participative process can unduly delay needed decisions. Participation, like democracy, takes time, and some decisions must be made promptly to avoid more serious problems. Clearly, too, some participants lack the necessary experience and ability to share in making

certain decisions. We must, therefore, recognize the negative factors and guard against them to make sure that they do not impede the positive values of participation in the decision-making process.

It is true that our decision-making must be reasonably prompt if our work is to be effective. However, the very purpose of many of our decisions is to assist staff members to develop professionally and to grow on the job. Thus the participative process is vital if the decision-making process is to be effective in furthering the goals and objectives of the agency.

Dr. Norman R. F. Maier, Professor of Psychology at Michigan University, and a well-known researcher in the field of human behavior, has taken a realistic look at participative decision-making and has developed a concept for appraising which decisions should be made by the participative process and which are more appropriately made by the "leader" - the supervisor, the administrator, the department head, etc.

According to Dr. Maier, decisions that require group acceptance should be made by the persons involved, if possible, and not by the supervisor - no matter how capable he may be. However, realities dictate that there are decisions which must be made where there is no place for group consensus; the person or persons possessing the relevant knowledge or specific factual information may be the most qualified to make that kind of decision, and this is the supervisor, at whatever level he may be.

Making effective decisions, therefore depends upon the nature of the problem. Decisions that concern feelings and attitudes profit from group participation, whereas decisions that depend on objective facts requiring specialized knowledge can best be made by experts. The common error is either to assume that group decisions are superior to leader decisions regardless of the problem, or to assume that people who know the most should make all decisions for others.

Dr. Maier maintains that the first consideration in decision-making is to decide whether the success of the decision will depend primarily upon the support it receives or on how effectively the objective facts are obtained and utilized. This requires skill in diagnosis.

In the event that both objectives are needed, either persuasion or dis-
cussion-leading skills will be essential. It follows, therefore, that
we cannot entirely avoid the need for management skills in decision-
making.

In summation, then, participative decision-making is critical to
the effective functioning of a voluntary agency because it improves
morale, stimulates professional growth, utilizes each staff member's
abilities and skills, and maximizes the work output of the entire staff,
meanwhile releasing the supervisor's time and ability for those decisions
and functions which are correctly his.

Decision-Making as Problem-Solving

We will now consider decision-making as it relates to the problem-
solving process. The ability to make a decision finds its greatest ex-
pression in the problem-solving process. A decision is not really a
decision until it is expressed in action. The entire problem-solving
process can be viewed as an exercise in decision-making - decision-making
with a purpose. A problem-solver is one who makes a sequential series of
decisions and is therefore a decision-maker. The several factors inherent
in the process need to be followed. These become apparent as the problem-
solving process is analyzed. For purposed of brevity, these factors are
listed in a step-by-step order:

- Problems are not solved if they are not recognized, or if they
  are ignored. They do not go away of their own accord. One has
  to be aware that a problem exists.
- The problem must be defined, and this requires objective thinking.
  It will help uncover the real problem much more quickly. The
  actual problem is seldom that which is most apparent, and very
  often objective analysis is required to pinpoint it accurately.
  A person who permits his emotions and feelings to become
  involved risks becoming a part of the problem instead of being
  the problem-solver.
- The relative importance of the problem must be assessed, and a
  target date set for its solution. When that target date is
  reached the solver must make his decision on the basis of the

information at hand, even if he realizes that he does not have all the facts. This is the risk he must take, because not to try for any solution may in effect create a bigger problem.

- The problem-solver must know the objectives which he is striving to attain in the solution of the problem. He must have a clear sense of what precisely has to be accomplished. He will then be in the position to establish standards against which he will measure the alternatives that he will have to consider.

- The problem-solver must attempt to acquire the most complete, meaningful, and relevant data that he can assemble to help him frame the alternatives. One simple, effective device for acquiring information is to learn the art of questioning. Learn to ask, "Who, What, When, Where, How, and Why?"

- Having assembled the relevant information, the problem-solver now subjects it to creative analysis. He translates this information into all the possible alternatives, no matter how unusual they may seem at first glance. Alternatives are not summarily dismissed.

- The competent problem-solver avoids jumping to obvious conclusions. Additional facts or a closer examination may establish that the obvious is not so obvious. He guards against stereotyped conclusions and personal biases or prejudices. He also makes sure that his current reactions are not unduly colored by the conclusions of a previous experience.

- The problem-solver helps himself in his task if he can examine all the options in the light of what might happen if each were exercised. A useful question for this kind of self-testing is, "What could happen if such-and-such were done, and what could happen if thus-and-so were not done?"

- He is now ready to list all alternatives, including the alternative to do nothing. He is not satisfied with two or three alternative solutions, even if one or two look good. He continues his examination until he has uncovered the maximum number of alternatives. A good rule for any problem-solver is to list all the possible solutions before making a decision.

- These alternative solutions are now subject to critical
  analysis. It is at this point that many of the creative
  and theoretical opinions prove to be impractical. Under
  certain circumstances consideration should be given to
  consulting a qualified fellow-professional for his opinion
  and judgment. An interested listener may provide valuable
  feedback which will give the problem-solver additional
  insights.
- The next step is to make the decision, and the best sol-
  ution is selected.
- The decision must now be implemented. What the problem-
  solver has done so far is to "make the decision" about what
  solution is best for meeting the problem. He must now put
  it into effect. Failure to act upon his decision is to have
  gone through an exercise of possible enlightenment but
  consequent frustration.

Conclusion

This paper has reviewed the impact of decision-making in our work
lives, decision-making in an organization, the nature of a decision, and
participative decision-making. It has also delineated the steps involved
in decision-making as problem-solving. The intent was to present a brief
overview of this skill area as it applies to our agency output.

Business leadership is very concerned with effective decision-making,
because its profits depend upon sound decisions. Should not service-
oriented agencies, not in the business sector, be equally concerned? A
trust has been placed in our hands; good decision-making and problem-
solving adds up to wiser expenditures of monies, more effective job
performance and greater service to the people the agency serves.

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PLANNING WITH VOLUNTEERS*

Richard E. Byrd

(A Consulting Design)

The purpose of this paper is to describe a consulting design which focuses on three elements:

Consultant's behavior
Conceptual process of planning[1]
Relationship Process[2]

The focus on the consultant's behavior will be primarily limited to the initiating or entry behavior at each phase in the developing life and work of the planning group. The conceptual process of planning is that process suggested by the National Council Department of Christian Education for Strategy Planning Conferences as detailed in "Findings", September, 1959.[3] The relationship process is based on "Climate for Trust Foundation",[4] a theory of defense-reduction to enable productive social interaction. This three-fold approach is adopted because previous designs have not always included the three relevant elements or indicated the necessity for considering them.

This design is most appropriate and useful for consultants working with the planning group of a volunteer organization. The planning group presumably has no executive power. Its power would lie in its ability to present and execute programs which would be attractive or which would service its constituents appropriately.

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[1]Inductive or scientific method of thinking.

[2]Parallel development of group relationships.

[3]Official publication of the Department of Christian Education of the National Council of the Episcopal Church, 815 Second Avenue, New York, New York.

[4]Jack R. Gibb, T-Group Theory and Laboratory Method, NTL, John Wiley & Sons, Inc., New York, 1964, p. 279.

The planning group for a volunteer organization faces a quite different task than that of an executive group. Such a group must not only plan, but must discover in itself some or possibly all of the available resources for implementing the plan. In this case, the consultant must be aware of the need for mobilizing support for plans as planning proceeds. To put it another way, he must be sensitive not only to the plans proposed, but also the the degree of commitment to the plans. The need for this sensitivity, and for the planning group to work in such a way that at the conclusion of planning there will be a workable plan and people who will work at the plan, conditions the framework within which the consultant must work.

A consultant in this design is a person skilled in small group work. His skills must include sensitivity to what is going on between people beneath or behind the words and actions. He needs to have concern for the individuals involved. Because he has been asked to help them plan, he needs to be committed to their doing a vital job. Because he is primarily a catalyst for the planning group his personal needs for status or appreciation will come second. He will, however, need constant reappraisal of his own motives and feelings. All these things are a priori for the proper use of the consulting design offered in this paper. Further reading on the consultant[5-9] should be done by the inexpert consultant using this design.

The first two phases of this design have a diagnostic focus and the latter two phases a prognostic focus. Awareness of the two foci is important because they can help us see the real simplicity and unmechanical

[5] Jack R. Gibb, The Role of the Consultant, The Journal of Social Issues, Volume XV, No. 2, 1959. Ann Arbor, Michigan.

[6] Richard Beckhard, The Leader Looks at the Consultative Process, Looking into Leadership Monograph No. 10, Leadership Resources, Inc., 1025 Connecticut Avenue, Washington, D.C.

[7] Lippitt, Watson and Westley, The Dynamics of Planned Change, Harcourt, Brace & Co., New York, 1958.

[8] John C. Glidewell, The Entry Problem in Consultation, The Journal of Social Issues, Vol. XV, No. 2, 1959.

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nature of the design, even though - through the detailed analysis which
follows - one might seem to be involved in a highly complex and mechan-
istic process. What we are about here is to simply describe life under
certain conditions and to seek to discover how to help it be more creative.
No group should have this design applied mechanically step by step to its
life.

The consultant must be aware of the fact that if in the diagnostic
step it becomes evident that the organization has no sense of purpose or
necessariness, then such plans as long range goals can't be dealt with
until the group has articulated the necessity for or the purpose of the
group for which it is planning.

Finally, all the consulting designs and theory that can be produced
are no substitute for a consultant's sensitivity, personal conviction in
his ability to help, and confidence in his client's ability to be captain
of his own ship and planner of its fate.

Conditions for Planning

There needs to be an initial planning meeting with the chairman or
persons most concerned. At this time the consultant seeks to discover:

A) the nature of past planning and how and by whom it was carried
out; what other consultants served this group previously? How
did they function?

B) the nature of the present situation regarding
1. the chairman's expectations
2. how the consultant sees himself as functioning
3. the area under the client's administration
4. the relationships of the members of the planning committee
to one another

C) the group represented by the members of the planning committee,
making sure that all who really affect the planning process
intent to be with the group for the entire time of the consul-
tation. If there is a person or persons who have actual policy
control over the planning group but who is/are so implicitly
accepted as to not even be considered relevant by the client,

then this could cause all planning to be short circuited. The
consultant's task is to probe for this possibility. Often an
authority figure such as a bishop or archdeacon will from time
to time pass on edicts or tasks superseding any planning the
responsible group might do. He needs to be involved in the
developing goals of the planning group and affect them during
the stages of formation. In this way he will get more of his
ideas implemented than when he simply passes down directives.
Furthermore, the group - besides benefiting from his leadership
- will gain more authority to help it carry out its assigned
responsibilities.

D) a desire that planning be done. The whole group needs to desire
such planning. It is of no consequence that a chairman or bishop
decide such a meeting should be held. Or if that has been the
case, when the consultant is contacted he needs to suggest that
the planning group prepare for the consultation with a prior
meeting so that

1. the planning group accepts the task as its own, and

2. begins to pre-involve itself in the process.

Nothing can destroy or inhibit a consultation more quickly than
planners who have been persuaded or coerced into a consultation
they feel is unnecessary.

E) as all who affect decision making in this group should be present,
so also should none be present who are not directly responsible
for the decisions to be made. Guests do not have the same
commitment as those who are being held accountable for policy.
The bias of a guest presents difficult data to deal with. But
if there is no way to avoid a guest, be very careful to have his
role defined for him and to the group.

F) an appropriate amount of time should be set aside for the consul-
tation. The criteria for deciding the amount of time to allot
are:

1. the extent to which the planning group wants to plan the
specific means by which it will fulfill the goals it deter-
mines. This step is often shortchanged because of the
inadequate allotment of time for the average consultation.

2. the deepseatedness of any interpersonal antagonisms amongst
    the planning group members. Really deepseated antagonisms
    may demand a great deal longer time to resolve. In any case,
    it can be assumed as a rule of thumb that any planning group
    of six to twelve persons needs a minimum of eight working
    hours just to begin identifying the real underlying concep-
    tual and relationship problems. For this reason a "living
    in" planning group of ten persons should plan to spend 48
    hours together. A larger group should plan a proportionately
    longer period. Groups larger than twenty (including the
    consultant) are too large for consensus planning and should
    be separated into smaller units. Another design for planning
    should be used for such a large group.

Phase I (Diagnostic Step)

Consultant Action: In the first phase of the consultation, the con-
sultant needs to be as open about his role and his feelings as he thinks
the group will accept at face value. If a consultant attempts to be too
open initially, the group will perceive this as some sort of manipulation.
"Nobody acts like that, I wonder what he's up to?" If he says very little
he will be regarded with suspicion. The consultant, then, from the very
beginning is called on to tell how he sees his function even though many
will disbelieve him and question his motives, assuming he has brought the
answers in his brief case. Recognizing dependence as a normal phenomena
at this point, he needs to offer a procedure (small groups, recording on
newsprint, phraseology of questions, etc.) for the group to begin its work.
He may act as temporary chairman or let the regular chairman perform the
function. Which role the consultant plays depends on the expectations of
the group and previous conversations between consultant and chairman.
Sometimes the group needs the support of its own chairman. At other times
the chairman wants and needs to get out of the coaching spot and into the
line-up, so he welcomes having the consultant temporarily assume his
functions. It really makes little difference during the first two phases.
However, as we shall see, the last two phases present a different problem
and call for the chairman to assume his normal functions once again.

Table A - PHASES OF CONSULTATION

Ingredient	Diagnostic Step		Prognostic Step	
	Phase I	Phase II	Phase III	Phase IV
Consultant Action	suggests norms, general procedure, define role ↓	Feeling entries ↓	Offers procedure ↓	Reality tests Resource ↓
Conceptual Process	Concerns	Underlying Problem	Strategy or Long Range Goals	Tactics
Relationship Process	Membership Concerns	Facade Reduction	Goal Integration	Inter-dependence

Conceptual Process: During this phase we list the "binds" of the people the planning group has responsibility for. This process can be described as listing concerns, identifying "hurts", having a problem census, or identifying symptoms of "maladies". If a consultation has been well planned and the group is highly cooperative, a data gathering instrument used by the group itself prior to the consultation, or used with the constituents for whom the planning group are responsible, can provide information out of which the planning group can infer real concerns. Sometimes the planning group has taken time for interviews with their constituents which provide solid information. Sometimes a simple identification by people who remember what has happened in the past is of great use in this phase of planning. In any case, no concern is too minute to be registered. As we begin we can assume no criteria of deciding on the value of anyone's concern.

Relationship Process: No matter how long this group has existed or how chummy they seem with one another you will almost always find a few new members in the group. Often they are unclear as to why they have been asked to attend this meeting or belong to this group. There are usually others who over a period of time have come to the realization that they have little influence on the decisions of this group. Others in the group have unconsciously assumed leadership and pair with one another to make decisions. Still others are coming with dissatisfactions about the group's

not being concerned in the past or at present with their pet projects. If the group includes any paid worker there is almost certainly (in the church) vagueness not only about his or her role in the planning group, but even as to what he or she does week in and week out. There will be great variation in the sense of responsibility people feel towards the planning group. A representative from a woman's group has usually been tacitly encouraged to feel less responsible than the leadership training chairman or the treasurer of the church for the program of the whole organization.

There is, therefore, in the midst of these conflicting types of membership some distrust and accompanying denial of distrust. There will be resistance to initiation of action from some people as well as suspicion of motives, quibbling, cynicism, protective pairing, and dependence on the consultant to "get things going!" There will be caution which is readily seen in the careful phrasing of statements about concerns. In other words, there is covering of feelings and perceptions. Individuals tend to flatter each other, show great concern over hurting someone's feelings and so avoid open conflict. Decision making is impossible because much of the group's real feelings and perceptions are being inhibited by other forces such as those identified above. Obviously what is described here is not "bad" - it just "is".

As the other members of the group have unresolved problems surrounding their membership in the group, so does the consultant. Group members will have to find out that the consultant's motivations are not to change them or their plans but to allow them to create conditions in which they might more effectively make their own plans.

Table B - SUMMARY OF PHASE I

Ingredient	Behavior or Reaction
Consultant Action	Suggests norms of openness, consensus planning, continuity attendance, etc. . . . . Defines his role as he understands it, reveals motivations at a level perceived as appropriate. Accepts procedural dependence.
Conceptual Process	Group identifies: what's specifically happening to its constituents that causes concerns; what apparentl concerns constituents; who is involved; examines available data

Relationship Process   Conflicting expectations of consultant; unclear
about membership; cynical; lacking in trust; "over"
polite, dependence feelings and counterdependence
towards consultant; resistance to planning process;
protective pairing; suspicion of motives of each
other

Phase II (Diagnostic Step)

Consultant Action: It is the consultant's responsibility to support
persons in the group who are trying to move from phase one and conceptual
concerns to the more hidden underworld of interpersonal conflicts, mis-
understandings, lack of trust, feelings of inadequacy, feelings of
affection, etc. He supports these people by being sensitive to the
expression of feeling. Someone says, "I'm bored!" Others jump on him.
The consultant can either support him by saying, "Now wait, I'd like to
know what Joe is bored about. Maybe others feel the same!" Or the
consultant can reveal how he feels about the planning up to this time or
even tell his feelings of irritation or appreciation of individuals in the
group. Supporting others' expression of feelings is perhaps a safer
method. This method is less threatening, and therefore gives more freedom
to a group that is not yet ready to face its hidden motivations. The
second method in which the consultant reveals his feelings directly puts
him in a position that can very nearly make a group deal with him and so
ultimately with each other. The group might still avoid his confrontation,
however, if it does not wish to go into the second phase.

The process of a group accepting expressions of feelings usually
has to begin with the expression of negative feeling. The reason for this
is that groups accept a superficial positiveness which even makes in-
sincere compliments acceptable, but implies that negative expressions are
disruptive and not useful. This is nonsense. Negative feelings are data.
A consultant needs to help the group get to the available data in order to
make sound decisions. The expression of negative feelings (data) can
sometimes open the door so people can feel free to express previously
inhibited affirmative ideas and feelings. Therefore, when the group
seems ripe but refuses to take the dive into feelings, the consultant's
task is to lead them gently and quickly into the feeling area. He needs

to give support with expressed feelings of his own to people who get under
too much fire and to press for further data from a person revealing some
feelings painful to the group when the group tends to back away.

As the consultant helps the group sort out its feelings and connect
the meaning of the feelings to the conceptual problems that were identi-
fied and continue to be identified, he helps them also to see these
feelings as objective data. He can, if he isn't overcome by the emotional
level, connect feelings with conceptual data and show how related the two
are through recording on newsprint or through summary. The consultant's
job is to help the group plan, not necessarily to enable them to increase
self awareness or understand religious issues. If this latter happens,
it is a by-product of the planning. Religious issues are always present
in the course of planning but the consultant is simply trying to help the
group reveal enough hidden feelings in order to plan together in a con-
sensual manner. The consultant never forgets the goal. It must be
remembered, however, that the planning process belongs to the group. The
consultant presses toward the contracted end but is sensitive to the
direction the group really wants to go.

Conceptual Process: In this phase ideas and patterns of relation-
ships alternately become subject matter. The conceptual level is con-
cerned with the related causes underlying the already listed concerns.
Lack of motivation, often identified as an underlying cause, cannot
really be used as the group's whipping boy. Lack of motivation may be
the inference, but other specific stimuli are producing the situation.
These stimuli are what the group needs to describe. Lack of training is
another often named cause or disease. But what is preventing training
from taking place? Do people really want training? Do people really
want adult education? Do clergy want help? This difficult process of
sorting must take place and is often painfully slow.

Relationship Process: What happens between people during this
phase is key to any possible planning that takes place in phases 3 and
4. There is a necessity for people to reveal their feelings about past
associations, failures, unresolved interpersonal conflicts or even the
immediate conflicts or irritations that have grown. The need of the

group to deal with immediate happenings can become acute, especially when some member or members are being particularly obnoxious. The most important fact to remember is that people need to reveal undercover feelings and these must be resolved enough to enable members of the group to say what they think in order to identify consensually what really are underlying problems. This freedom will insure a solid foundation for future planning.

This phase needs to be seen as a time when leadership will apparently break down. The consultant doesn't lead procedurally, and the group tends to resist any leadership because it implicitly feels a need for reality communication to take place. There may seem to be a partial paralysis which slows down group efficiency. At this time previously hidden feelings can emerge and the group often says it is surprised. Statements like "Joe, we didn't know you felt that way!" or "Mike, why haven't you said something about this before?" are common to this phase. The group realizes that unseen and relevant information was present all the time. Some members of the group may feel this kind of data is irrelevant or just personal business more appropriately taken care of outside the meeting. Those who resist open conflict are often those who resist doing "too much navel gazing". They support forces against too much revelation. But they also provide the counter force to those in the group who feel we must know everything about everybody. In the midst of this struggle between overpersonal and counterpersonal factions, only the group itself can answer the question, "What do we have to know about each other in order to work together?" Members of the group can be helped to see that every conflict in the group is their problem and that they have a ministry to those in direct conflict. The consultant can train the group to help others clarify issues in relationship as well as conflict of ideas.

Often hostility to the consultant or what he represents comes out for the first time. An open expression of feelings through a reduction of facades becomes possible. Some people who have not talked begin to be sought out for relevant data. Conflict is recognized, dealt with and used to understand the underlying problems facing the group as

planners. There is a beginning of reduction of competitive behavior, reduction of apathy, increased work orientation. Where earlier consensus looked impossible, now decisions on many underlying problems, or even simple decisions like when to eat or meet and how to move procedurally, come easily and consensually.

A word of warning here may help the consultant to understand the complicated nature of this phase. It is possible that he may discover that interpersonal blocks in this group are so great that the rest of the consultation time is needed for dealing with this. If the group wants to forego planning to deal with this, then they must be helped to do so. It is also possible that even if they "went ahead" they could not really produce strategy that would be supported by others. In other words, the whole planning process can be and might have to be short-circuited in this phase because the resolution of interpersonal conflicts is too great a problem, or even perhaps a problem that can't be faced at this time.

Table C - SUMMARY OF PHASE II

Ingredient	Behavior or Reaction
Consultant Action	Supports expression of feelings, reveals own feelings, encourages dealing with authority problems, drops facade, sets objectivity norm, calls for data, ties conceptual and relationship data together.
Conceptual Process	Slow sorting of conceptual problems and relationship conflicts and lack or regard for each other. Little conceptual progress on a lineal level.
Relationship Process	Members reveal failures, unresolved conflicts, irritations at each other and consultant. Often there appears a complete lack of leadership or acceptance of leadership. Frustration, hostility and fear of exposure dominate.

Phase III (Prognostic Step)

Consultant Action: When the consultant feels the second phase is coming to a close he should have a serious conversation with the chairman of the planning group regarding the chairman's functions in Phases III and IV. Because the chairman is often the focal point of many unresolved

feelings and needs to enter quite fully into the give and take of Phase II, it is possible that during the second phase he may have abdicated his role to some extent. The consultant needs to help the chairman see that the next two phases are crucial for this group working together with him as chairman. If the chairman will once again assert the role of task setter and chairman, it will release the consultant to offer what information he has, but not to be a source of necessary strength to the group. In other words, the consultant now helps this group learn to walk again as it begins setting goals which it will have to implement when the consultant is no longer available.

The consultant has a definite responsibility to help the group move from Phase II to Phase III. A suggestion has already been made that the consultant does not give procedural help during Phase II as this would support those who were against the expression of feelings, giving tacit punishment to those who most need feelings to be dealt with. If feelings are not dealt with, planning could become impossible. The consultant needs to understand that unresolved feelings block progress. If the consultant allows the group the freedom to express feelings, although great frustration may result, he can then offer an appropriate procedure when it will be used and useful. When the consultant feels the group has worked through enough of the relationship concerns he tests by pushing hard with a procedure to get to goal setting. Often the group will perform this function, but when it doesn't he must.

One way the consultant can help the group begin Phase III is by calling out the "silent" ones or the "independents" (people who have not been dependent on or hostile to the consultant). He might say, "Mr. X, you've said very little. What would you like to see us do?" Or the consultant may simply say, "I see some possible goals for this group for the next two years." Then he could offer one possible goals which would stimulate others to do the same. Or yet another way would be to suggest meeting in smaller groups to begin goal setting, then having reports with joint goal setting, coming out of the collation of the small group reports.

Another consultant responsibility is to constantly test the reality of the goals that were set earlier. Remarks such as "In what way will this goal solve any present problems?" or "Who will give you the support necessary?" or "How will you know when that goal has been accomplished?" "Can you count on the Bishop?", etc. The consultant may also help the group say in a clearer way what it is after, always pushing the group to use their own words in order to prevent them simply from agreeing to what the consultant is suggesting. This warning points to the possibility of a new dependence on the consultant which this phase can produce. Because it is a really new phase, in one sense the group is starting from the beginning and the group will naturally look to the consultant for ideas.

Conceptual Process: When enough of the real underlying problems have been consensually identified, the group can begin to set long range goals to attack these problems. A genuine consensus on the underlying causes is a prerequisite to further planning.

The goals which the group now seeks to develop must meet two criteria:

I. They must be concrete and measurable. A goal stated in such terms as "We will improve teacher training" is not an achievable goal if change is to be measured. However, a goal of "training 500 Vacation Church School teachers to plan daily lessons (or to increase diagnostic skills) in the next two years" is measurable and concrete.

II. They must be limited to realistic possibilities. If, for example, the goal is "for every clergyman in the diocese to have three weeks of training in communication skills in the next calendar year", it is concrete but does the diocese have the trainers to do the job? Does the diocese have the money to support the venture? Is there a way to convince all the clergy of their need?

Or a parish vestry might decide that two years from "now" Christian education will be done by parents and the Sunday School closed. Who's going to train the parents for their new responsibilities? Do the parents have time? Will they

take time? Will they go to another church?

Note: too many goals, although each one be realistic in itself, can make the planning group's task impossible. The planning group should put many concrete, measurable goals up to be considered but be prepared to pare down to the few to which they can give time and not just lip service when implementing time comes.

Relationship Process: During the previous two phases of development a group can satisfactorily work out its relationship, reducing defensive behavior, and can push on with the task of planning. Hopefully, trust has been building. Now the group tacitly accepts expressions of feeling. It doesn't feel manipulated by anyone in the group, including the consultant. There tends to be immediate feedback on ideas and feelings. At the beginning of Phase II, people would make long speeches with which others would neither agree nor disagree. Now someone makes a statement and another member supports and builds on the suggestion or registers his disagreement.

Now that concerns about each other have been reduced there is an integration of people's intrinsic goals into real goals of the planning group. Some of these people never thought that what they felt was important would ever be a part of the planning. This assumption is based on the fact that we all belong to so many groups where goals are imposed by leaders or peers by coercive or persuasive methods. In this group goals are explicit and verbalized. No one looks to the chairman or to anyone else for approval, but finds satisfaction in having his appropriate work found important to the group.

Now there should also be a spontaneity of ideas and feelings not present before. People, not being so defensively self-concerned, are now free to concentrate on the conceptual process. Now the group will vacillate from work to play with ease. Whereas earlier some "playboyed" and others resented it, now the group will tend to laugh together and work together. Members will now seek each other's opinions. People who appeared to be entirely out of the group during the first and most of

the second phases will suddenly "come alive". The group will often be
pleasantly surprised at the vast resources the silent members contribute
during this phase.

Table D - SUMMARY OF PHASE III

Ingredient	Behavior or Reaction
Consultant Action	Helps chairman assert his role, offers ideas, procedures to begin planning. Tests the reality of the goals.
Conceptual Process	Group sets long range, concrete, measurable goals limited only by time and resources.
Relationship Process	The group becomes task oriented but doesn't ignore feelings. People don't feel manipulated to someone else's ends. There is building on one another's ideas. Play and work are integrated. "Quiet ones" are sought out.

Phase IV (Prognostic Step)

Consultant Action: The consultant during this phase is simply a
member of the group. He offers his procedural suggestions or resources.
He confronts members and openly shares his negative, affirmative and
ambivalent feelings. He completely avoids the functions of the chairman.
The group starts, stops and takes breaks without his approval or disapprova

The consultant continues to test the reality of suggested tactics
through questions like, "Do you feel _____ will really respond to
that?" or "I just wonder if that will do the job!" or "Jane, what do you
think about this tactic?"

Finally, time will run out on the planning group. If there is time,
however, the consultant may well ask for feedback on what he did or said
that people found helped or hindered the group's progress. It is not
wise to push this too hard, as members can begin to feel the consultant
is looking for compliments. If, however, some are willing to say some
things then the consultant can learn from this. Also, this gives anyone
a chance to bring into the open any guilt felt about something he said
or did earlier to hurt the consultant and to see how it contributed to
the gestalt and was not simply a "bad" thing.

Conceptual Process: The formulations of this phase are closely related to Phase III. In point of fact, the tactics to be developed in this phase have probably been implicitly considered in Phase III as the group tests the reality of certain goals. Now, however, the group consciously establishes means whereby the goals can be implemented.

Most of the time the planning group should think up as many tactics as it can. It should think of things that might ordinarily be unthinkable. Relative merits of tactics might be better discussed after a sort of listing of conservative and avant garde tactics. Initial discrimination between what is or is not possible can prevent the planning group from new and exciting ideas.

Because this group exists to service a volunteer organization it is very probably that the goals were set in three general service categories: Consultation, Training or Resources. When the planning group identifies a need that the organization is not aware of, it sees the organization asking specifically for help in discovering the nature of its present situation. Thus the service required is a consulting service. The need for this kind of service is continually present in a growing, changing organization. The tactics may be to develop resources or trained persons capable of doing this job or to hire outside help to do the job. The tactics may deal with when and who should act as consultants. Or the tactics may be to establish a committee to develop times, places and resources to meet the demand for consultation. Service consultation helps to orientate and project new behavior and intentions.

Another service area is that of training. The constituents may be seeking to do more adequately the jobs they have been asked to do. On a local level, the jobs of vestryman, president of the women's group, or teacher demand skills. The diocesan demands are parallel. Whatever their jobs, some kind of training opportunities will need to be provided. The tactics may be to offer these opportunities or to research what specific problems exist. Another tactic may be to contact outside resources for help.

The third service could be to provide resources in the form of written materials or persons to support the other services. This service would include tactics which were simply putting people in touch with the right persons, developing a library, bibliographies of film-strips, etc., or the planning group can see that relevant materials were developed depending on its financial resources and mandate.

Relationship Process: Unless new interpersonal problems that were not resolved in Phase II have emerged, the group should be operating with some real interdependence. Normally there would be an informal structure with many functions of the chairman now assumed by members of the group. Members expect occasional testing from the chairman on whether there is consensus but he is now for the most part simply a group member.

A symbol of the phase is the maximum flow of communication. Control is exerted by the nature of the immediate task, and the intrinsic motivations of the group. There also is often a greater unpredictability of other members' behavior and opinions. Positions firmly taken at an earlier time now are resilient and often changed apparently without a great deal of continued debate.

Members of the group who formerly felt no responsibility or adequacy for any action or concern but the one they represented will now volunteer to serve on committees to accomplish tactics that the group deems necessary. There will now be a sharing of burdens. Members can be honest in asking one another to serve and the member asked knows he can refuse without others silently reproving him. This kind of give and take symbolizes this phase. There will, of course, continue to be hostility, anger, laughter, joking, affectionate language and all the rest. If, however, the group has adequately dealt with earlier problems these happenings will not increase members' facades but will be dealt with openly and in due course.

In summary, planning is a serious, disciplined, and at its best, democratic process. There are no gimmicks to help planning be less painful for participants or consultant. Emotional involvement by definition means bruised egos but also better planning and real satisfaction

for planners and consultant. This design tries to take into account
that emotional involvement. But it does not represent a sieve through
which the consultant can force people. Rather, it is a guidĕ along a
winding path. The consultant needs to take off his shoes and be
sensitive to the rocks on that path.

Table E - SUMMARY OF PHASE IV

Ingredient	Behavior or Reaction
Consultant Action	Simply a member of the group. Offers interpersonal skills and procedural help. Shares feelings, tests reality.
Conceptual Process	Think the unthinkable ways to fulfill goals. Develop means, conferences, committees to "do the job" within resources, time, people, and money.
Relationship Process	Informal decision making process, maximum flow of communication. Interdependence of roles in the group is reflected in various interchange of responsibility for implementing tactics.

PROGRAM BUDGETING WORKS IN NONPROFIT INSTITUTIONS*

Roderick K. Macleod

A minor aspect of the honorable tradition of eleemosynary activity has been that you could not, and did not need to, account for the cost of services being provided. You could not because they were qualitative and intangible; you did not need to because funds were provided by gifts, grants, endowments, and so on. For the last several years this tradition has been called increasingly into question as the desire for cost information and accountability grows and as the control bases for cost accounting come more and more into focus. However, there has not been much recorded practical experience on which to judge the utility of cost accounting in institutional management.

This article is a record of one such practical experience - broad enough to have general application but small enough to be fully described in a few pages. It is written for businessmen who, as trustees or directors of institutions, find themselves as frustrated as I was at the inability of some administrators to deal effectively with costs or even to keep track of what was happening financially. I hope it encourages them with the thought that it can be done.

Program cost accounting is in its third year of functioning at the South Shore Mental Health Center in Quincy, Massachusetts, a community agency with about 100 professional staff members. The agency derives its funds from a variety of sources for a variety of reasons; its professional staff is employed on a variety of terms, and there is no objective or numerical measure of the value of its diversified services. It therefore has most of the cost accounting problems of nonprofit organizations.

The first two of the following sections are written for those who are not familiar with either cost accounting or program budgeting. Both are essential to understanding the utility of program cost accounting.

Anyone who knows these subjects should skip to the point in the article where I describe how we put them to use. It begins with the section, "Working in the dark."

Cost Accounting

Defined as a body of techniques for associating costs with the purposes for which they are incurred, cost accounting was developed primarily for determining product costs in manufacturing processes. It is also used to determine the cost of services or activities.

'Nonprofit' uses

In profit-making enterprises cost accounting is an essential aid to maximizing profits. While this incentive is not present in nonprofit institutions, cost accounting has at least these three other important purposes: efficiency and cost control, planning and allocating resources of people and funds, and "pricing" for cost reimbursement.

Efficiency & cost control: People often (some would say always) get careless about what they are doing, and if you are paying them, that means extra costs. If you know how much it costs to do something under optimum conditions and if you can measure the output of that something fairly accurately, then you can determine actual costs per unit of output and keep track of how efficiently the job is being done.

Of course, you have to be careful that cost saving is achieved without sacrificing quality of output. This is the reason why many institutions have felt that cost accounting is a bad influence. They say that the quality of service is too precious and fragile to be subjected to the pressure of cost accountability and to the drive for efficiency.

However, cost accounting can be used to set standards and to measure performance against them in a number of institutional activities without threatening the quality of service. Clerical and record-keeping operations, library services, nursing services, and storekeeping are examples of operations involving clearly defined results and enough labor to make

there is no better way to verify the accuracy of estimates than to account for actual costs and then to compare them with the estimates.

While cost accounting has to be painstakingly accurate to be useful in measuring and controlling efficiency, a much wider range of imprecision is tolerable for planning purposes. A decision to expand a facility or to move in one direction rather than another will probably be affected by a 50% change in the relevant costs, but seldom by a change of only 10% or 20%. This is why it is useful to cost professional services even though a legitimate respect for professional freedom of action requires acceptance of a substantial probability of inaccuracy.

Cost recovery pricing: The most compelling reason for undertaking the effort of cost accounting is the chance to get paid for what one does. In profit-making enterprises this incentive is obvious. In nonprofit institutions it is becoming obvious as they take on activities for which someone (usually the government) is willing to reimburse them. Medicare is one example. Another is the contract research work that many organizations undertake; cost accounting is at the heart of disputes over whether they are receiving adequate reimbursement.

When dollars change hands, accuracy is extremely important to both parties, but it is of a different order from that required for measuring efficiency. If they wish, the two parties to a cost reimbursement contract can agree on completely unrealistic or arbitrary definitions of cost. It is then necessary only to follow these agreements faithfully to obtain satisfactory reimbursement.

Usually, the simpler these agreements, the better, however much they may differ from principles of "real" cost determination. But continued use of unrealistic cost definitions ultimately makes the recipient of funds dependent on them and forces him to distort his actual experience to fit the reimbursement pattern.

Problems in use

Associating costs with products or activities is simple enough conceptually, but in practice there are several problems for which there

worthwhile the effort of directing them efficiently.

Food service is another good example. A meal is either served and eaten, or it is not, and the size or portions and nutritional value can be measured and controlled. (Cost control and efficiency are accepted goals, even though it is recognized that pleasing the person who eats the meal is a highly qualitative and subjective thing.)

Another area which has received some attention, though not as much, is maintenance, including grounds keeping and housekeeping. Most main-tenance activities can be quite clearly defined and the standard of quality made explicit. It is possible, for instance, to determine the optimum time for mowing a lawn, clearing a drain, making a bed, or repairing a boiler. For the most part, these estimates are used to schedule tasks and monitor performance, but they can easily be converted into dollar costs, when there is reason to do so.

So-called "efficiency experts" have earned a deservedly bad name in some quarters, and the feeling persists that work standards constitute another technological chain fettering the human spirit. Sensibly used, they need not be. It can be far more satisfying to work toward a well-defined and attainable goal than to work under the pressure of a never-ending backlog and an unknown and never-reached standard of excellence.

Furthermore, pride in one's work can be served better by the existence of standards authorizing the worker to call for help when a deviation appears, rather than obliging him to sink or swim. Standards should be a sensible way of organizing and carrying out tasks, not a means for applying pressure to reach unnatural levels of performance.

Resource allocation: A great deal of planning is done without cost accounting, and a great many insititutions survive without planning. It is generally agreed,however, that careful planning and resource allocation are important elements of good management and that precise estimates of costs are necessary for careful planning.

Costs can often be gauged accurately enough for use in planning without going through the labor of accounting for actual costs. But

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are no very satisfactory answers.

The most troublesome of these is what to do about costs that are common to several products or that do not vary with the amount produced. All the alternatives proposed or in use involve some means of prorating these overhead costs, joint costs, or fixed costs. The most common method is to relate these indirect costs to one or more of the direct costs, such as labor hours or labor dollars.

Whatever method is employed, users of cost data must keep in mind that the allocation is somewhat arbitrary. Troubles arise when they start thinking of these aggregates as "true" costs.

Another problem is caused by costs incurred at one point in time that underwrite activities and production over an extended period of time, such as expenditure for buildings and equipment. Plant costs are incurred before use in production, but other costs for which payment may be made in the distant future, such as employee pensions and deferred maintenance, must also be taken into account in determining the cost of current activities.

There are many theories concerning which of several methods of depreciation, amortization, or accrual is best and whether and how provisions for technological change and inflation should be made. As with overhead costs, however, all methods make somewhat arbitrary allocations.

Nonprofit institutions have traditionally ignored these capital costs, usually on the grounds that they were funded by gifts or grants. This tradition is being questioned increasingly as institutional managers try to compare costs of different activities and, particularly, as they find the government and others willing to pay for the "cost" of an activity, but demanding that the institution determine what that cost is.

Still another problem, one particularly troublesome to institutions, is determining what it is that you should compute the cost of. When you make widgets, it is easy enough to figure. In the service sector, providing meals and giving gamma globulin injections are clear-cut units of output. But it is not easy to define a satisfactory "production" unit

for medical care, education, and many other kinds of social services.

There is a good deal or agonizing over this question, perhaps more than is necessary. It is useful to know the cost per patient-hour of medical treatment or the cost per student-hour of education, although they are not units or output. An hour of a doctor's care or of a professor's teaching is an input, not an output. The real output here is health or knowledge, and we do not yet know how to measure either well enough.

It is important for an organization to have accurate unit cost data for planning and evaluating the use of its resources. It is also important to be careful how the data are used for cost control. The real product could be seriously impaired by an attempt to minimize the cost per hour.

Program budgeting

Traditionally, budgeting in institutions has been a purely fiscal function divorced from social service planning. Customarily, about once a year, the financial or accounting staff looked at the institution's expenses for heat, light, telephones, professional dues, and so on and guessed how much these might increase the next year. Sometimes the staff went so far as to ask the professionals what staff they expected to add or subtract, and at what change in cost. The result, the budget, was submitted to the board of trustees.

I wonder how many trustees have shared my experience of masking feelings of impotence and ignorance as I solemnly reviewed the lists of figures. From time to time I would ask why a figure differed from the corresponding one a year earlier.

If the income did not equal the outgo, I refused to approve the budget. But as soon as the budget was in balance, I approved it, without any real reason for knowing that the year could or should come out that way.

The process actually has worked quite well, and I do not mean to

suggest that it be abandoned. After all, some sense of financial responsibility is better than none. And the trustees' review of the budget serves to remind dedicated professionals of the facts of life that they like to ignore in their pursuit of worthy social goals. Something better is available now, however.

The idea of program budgeting as an aid to planning the allocation of resources in a complex nonprofit organization is clear and very attractive. Actual practice, however, has been impeded by ignorance, caution, and preoccupation with technique.

Disciplined thinking . . .

The principal conceptual innovation in program budgeting is disciplined thinking about what it is that an institution is producing. It follows logically that it is useful to budget the costs associated with those products and to evaluate the social benefits realized in relation to costs and alternative uses of funds and other resources.

Professionals have always thought to some degree about the programs they were engaged in, but usually without going so far as to associate costs with them. It is obvious, for example, that "patient hours" breaks down into diagnosis and prophylaxis as well as treatment and that a college's arts and sciences program includes instruction in physical sciences, social sciences, and the humanities. But professionals have generally thought it unnecessary or impossible to weigh the relative merits or costs of parts of such programs; so nobody tried. Current financial stringencies are making such "impossibilities" not only possible but also compelling.

Even rudimentary thinking about products brings useful insights. One notes that professors do not just teach students; they teach several different kinds of students, they engage in research and consulting, they publish, they help other departments, they talk, they politick, and they join in community and social service activities. The levels of capital investment and nonprofessional support services can be seen to vary from one activity to another. The interdepartmental impact of a new discipline can be glimpsed.

Sometimes, but not often, it is clear that results do not warrant the cost and that resources should be allocated elsewhere - such as converting a half-empty obstetrical ward into a geriatric ward.

In most allocation decisions, however, the relevant cost data and their relationship to the level of expected results are not at all clear. A factor even more critical to a decision is often overlooked: the implicit commitment to supply substantial additional resources in the future, as when a bequest for a new laboratory is gratefully accepted without the recipients' understanding the necessity for eventual expansion of all related and ancillary activities.

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Program budgeting permits disciplined organization of the economic data relative to a decision involving the allocation of resources. Using it, one can gather costs by program, evaluate the impact of a program's expansion or contraction on directly and indirectly related costs, and estimate with some degree of confidence the program's future economic demands.

In its highest form, as developed and advertised by the Department of Defense, program budgeting also involves measuring and comparing the value of the output of various programs in terms of social utility. This is a dazzling concept, and we can look forward with great eagerness to the day when we can gauge the value of a heart surgery unit versus that of a better cancer treatment unit or the social utility of a degree in physics versus that of a comparable degree in psychology. Nobody can do it yet. But this fact should not detract from the great contribution program budgeting can make right now.

Program budgeting offers these aids to managers of service institutions:
- The conceptual discipline for defining what the institution is doing.
- The process of sorting out expenditures so as to identify the direct and allocated costs.

- The process of relating the various types of funding to the
  purposes for which they were intended and of identifying the
  uses to which unrestricted funds are being put.
- The means for estimating with confidence the cost consequences
  of expanding or contracting any program and the related impact
  on other programs and facilities.
- The means for examining the financial implications of a program
  over a span of time.
- The concept (and, sometime in the future, the means) of
  measuring the results of programs by some common denominator.

There are plenty of problems in employing program budgeting. Among
them are getting professionals to submit to accountability, securing
reliable data, defining programs sufficiently, and finding an adequate
measure of output. The discovery that these matters can be dealt with
fairly directly, and that it is worth doing, is the main message of this
article.

Working in the dark

The South Shore Mental Health Center began many years ago as a
small children's clinic. When Dr. David Van Buskirk took over as
director in 1967, it had expanded to the point where it was providing
the nine communities in its area with substantially all kinds of mental
health service except overnight and custodial treatment.

The services were carried out by about 100 professionals under a
bewildering and seemingly unlimited variety of individual arrangements.
Some of them worked full time, but most of them had other jobs or private
practices.

The principal source of funds was the Commonwealth of Massachusetts,
which employed physicians, psychologists, nurses, social workers, and
other professionals to work at the Center in civil service "blocks" of
time. The communities, represented by an association of citizens, were
responsible for securing the funds for facilities and administration and,
since the state salary scales were inadequate, for supplementing the

professional salaries. These funds were obtained primarily through billing
the communities served at a certain rate per patient-hour, and secondarily
from patient fees.

The Center also enjoyed an erratic flow of money from grants and
research contracts, principally through the National Institute of Mental
Health. Sometimes the grants were for additional work, and the Center
served merely as fiscal agent. Sometimes they were for participation in
work that was the normal part of the Center's business, so that the funds
served in effect to relieve the communities of part of their financial
burden.

The Center also received money funded by groups or government
agencies for various programs. These included community education,
retarded children's schooling, a rehabilitation workshop, and several
training programs.

In spite of, or perhaps because of, the complexity of the Center's
operations and the funding of them, the agency's financial management
prior to 1967 was extraordinarily simple. A budget was prepared annually
in which each category of receipts and expenses was estimated and made to
balance. Toward the end of the year, the director and his assistant
adjusted their salaries (usually downward) to make the outgo equal the
income.

The board of trustees had only a general idea of the way in which
the Center's activities were funded and no idea at all of the important
relationships among the sources of funding. Through hindsight, it appears
probable that the administrators of the Center did not either. They were
exceptionally dedicated people; and they paid dearly for their lack of
financial acumen in the form of almost daily crises, overwork and low
salaries.

Demand-cost squeeze

Dr. Van Buskirk's first months at the Center must have been a time
of great anxiety for him as he struggled to understand how things worked,
in the face of a nearly complete lack of information. He did manage to

put together figures on the number of hours given to patient diagnosis and treatment.

To develop the "cost per patient hour", a statistic widely used in the health profession, he divided the total operating cost by the number of patient-hours. The result dismayed him. It showed that costs per patient-hour were rising at a rate of about 25% a year.

Because the funds provided by the state could be expected to increase by no more than 10%, if at all, the communities served had to bear the rising costs alone. Since the nine communities had previously paid about one third of the total cost, the leverage effect was dramatic; the Center was faced with asking them to increase their appropriations to it by 65% to 75%. In a period of strong taxpayer resistance, that prospect was nearly intolerable.

The director recognized that an important reason for the soaring costs per patient-hour was the rapid expansion of other demands on the professional staff. The South Shore community was beginning to accept the long-held conviction among mental health professionals that early detection and prevention of emotional and mental problems is far better than is any amount of treatment. Instead of concentrating on seeing patients, the psychiatrists, psychologists, and social workers were beginning to spend more of their time with the front line of community social servants - school guidance counselors, teacher, police officers, court officials, and ministers.

The result was both a decline in the number of patient-hours needed for preliminary screening of applicants and an increase in the Center's total cost. Clearly, the cost per patient-hour was an inadequate and misleading statistic.

Dr. Van Buskirk had other incentives to innovate. He found that programs for which he was responsible were ballooning. The rehabilitation "sheltered workshop" project, for example, grew within a year from a small experiment to a well-established quarter-million-dollar operation, even before the board of trustees knew it existed.

Demands for new programs came from all directions and usually from persons with little interest or ability in helping to determine how they would be paid for. For example, the drug abuse problem, to which the suburban communities had awakened, began soaking up the time of the Center's professionals. "Hot line" and other counseling services were springing up all over the area, their founders assuming that the Center would take care of any and all treatment referrals.

Moreover, the professionals were asking controversial questions about the relative values of different activities. Should they give priority to services for adults or for children; to aftercare and group services or to conventional doctor-patient treatment; to social services or to clinical services? There was no information available to aid the administration in evaluating any of these problems; the director was forced to make decisions solely on intuition and judgment.

Developing a system

At about that time, a college senior came to the Center for three months as part of her work-study program. She had no accounting background or qualifications for the job Dr. Van Buskirk gave her, other than the average college student's ease with numbers and concepts. But before she left, she had helped the director install a program cost accounging system. Perhaps an important reason for this extraordinary accomplishment is that neither she nor the director was burdened with the professional accountant's knowledge of how difficult it is to set up a new system.

The first step was to define the programs that made up the Center's services. After much redrafting of lists of functions, the director settled on five main categories subdivided into a total of 26 separate programs. These main areas were clinical services, community services, retardation and rehabilitation services, training, and research. As an example of the detail involved, clinical services included five programs: children's services, adult services, after-care services, disturbed children's nursery and kindergarten, and court-requested evaluations.

For the most part, the distinctions among programs were clear.

The only important artificial separation involved the training function.
As in most professional service activities, nearly everything that went
on had important training elements, and the trainees contributed greatly
to the Center's work. Dr. Van Buskirk decided arbitrarily that trainees'
direct costs would be allocated to the programs in which they worked,
while the cost of time spent by professionals and teachers in instruction
and guidance would be charged to training.

Staff time

The next step was to ask the professionals to report how their time
during an average week was allocated among the 26 programs. A simple
form was drawn up, listing the programs and asking for the individual's
estimate of the percentage of time he devoted to every one that took
more than 10% of his time. Experience with this document inadvertently
carried the project through three of the obstacles most commonly cited
as rendering program cost accounting difficult, if not impossible:

1. It dispelled the notion that professionals simply will not
hold still for rendering themselves accountable. This is no doubt the
case when meticulous, detailed, and frequent reporting is required or
when the ultimate value of the effort is not fully understood. However,
spending 15 minutes three or four times a year with a simple form is not
overly demanding, especially when a respected superior has explained the
importance of the results.

The value of top professional involvement in communicating the
importance of the project cannot be overemphasized, and it is a likely
reason for the success of this endeavor. The Center's professional head,
not the nonprofessional administrators or accountants, initiated and
carried out the project. He spent at least an hour with the professionals
from each program, explaining what he hoped to achieve and discussing
their own needs. The professionals were understandably more willing to
give him their confidence and cooperation, and he, having a well-defined
goal, was able to keep the project from getting bogged down in procedural
details.

2. It taught us how to deal with inaccuracy and subjectivity in the initial time estimates. It is true that an annual or even quarterly estimate is unlikely to be very accurate, and it is also true that some of the staff might report their estimates of what ought to be happening, rather than what really is happening. We found these faults tolerable for two reasons.

First, other potential inaccuracies - e.g., those introduced by overhead allocation - require a generous tolerance for imprecision in the use of the results. Also, because the estimates of the programs' social utility are necessarily vague and subjective, no other factor entering into decisions about them, such as cost, need be measured with any great precision. I must again emphasize that even a rough idea of the cost of a program is so useful that arguments about precision are reduced to the level of quibbles.

Second, every program or activity has someone responsible for it, who watches it with great professional affection and jealousy. If he understands the value of the resulting information, he can be relied on to identify gross errors of omission and commission.

He can also be relied on to respond to the test of output. The head of a program may tolerate for one or two periods, but not indefinitely, a cost allocation disproportionate to results. The Director made what amounted to a contract with each group of professionals to produce a given level and mix of services for a given level of cost, and as long as these were forthcoming and up to standard, he did not worry about the continued accuracy of the original time estimates.

3. Reporting in terms of percentages avoided problems arising from the use of other yardsticks. Accountants like to have reports prepared in precise units like hours or days, and the director had to resist the temptation to seek the orderliness inherent in using units one can measure, count, control, and balance out.

He was forced into the choice of percentages because at the Center there are too many varieties of part-time participation to permit any

common denominator except "percentage of time devoted to Center activities."
This choice avoided the often-heard complaint that professionals cannot
report time because they do not work conventional hours. Whether a
professional customarily works 18 hours a day or 4 does not affect his
percentage allocation.

From the time-allocation forms, the college student made the
necessary calculations for assigning the appropriate fractions of each
professional's salary to the programs he was engaged in. Some of the
professionals were not on the Center's payroll at all because they were
assigned to training or research projects by colleges and other organi-
zations in the area. For each of these individuals, the director com-
puted a salary equivalent that was recorded in a memorandum account as a
source of funds from his particular organization. The corresponding "cost"
was then allocated among the appropriate programs.

Income & outgo

The Center's expenses were analyzed and segregated into those that
related directly to programs and those that made up general administration
and overhead. The total costs turned out to be 80% program-oriented
salaries, 11% other direct costs, and 9% general overhead (including ad-
ministrative salaries).

Because none of the decisions to be made would hinge on a variation
of cost as slight as 10%, the overhead allocation problem was determined
to be insignificant. Rather than trying to refine the process, the
director simply allocated the 9% of overhead costs to the 26 programs in
proportion to their salary costs.

The director had a lot more trouble with allocating the portion of
the Center's total cost (15%) that related to the nine separate training
programs. Is training an end product of the Center, or is it a necessary
element in maintaining the levels of professional skill in the other
programs? It is both, of course. Also, as I have noted, it is impossible
to distinguish training from the service programs where the training takes
place.

We decided to treat training first as a separately accountable endeavor and secondly as an integral part of the other service programs, following the principle that a substantial element of training is essential to a high level of professional service. Each training program was therefore either assigned to the service program where it took place or prorated among the several programs to which it related. The full cost of each training program was allocated without reduction for related grants received; the grants were considered part of the income directly relating to the service programs.

The remaining step was to figure out who was paying for each program. Money received for specific purposes was first assigned to the appropriate program: grants, stipends, the "equivalent salary" of contributed workers, fees received from patients and from agencies such as school boards - all went toward the programs for which they were received. Then the appropriate fraction of the state salary paid to the professionals who had indicated participation in these programs was identified and treated as a source of funds.

The difference between the total program cost and these identified funds had to be made up from the amounts billed to the communities served. One of the simpler examples, the finances for running the disturbed children's nursery and kindergarten, is presented in Exhibit 1.

Exhibit 1. Costs and sources of funds for operating the disturbed children's nursery and kindergarten

	Amount
Costs	
Professional salaries	$18,500
Direct costs	1,950
Overhead	2,200
Training, specifically identified	3,600
Total	$26,250
Sources of money	
Wheelock College training grant	3,600
State salaries, specified	12,650
State salaries, unspecified	9,500
Total	$25,750
Community funds allocated by the Center	500
Total	$26,250

One other element of the new system required some thought: iden-
tifying units of service that would facilitate projections of the cost
effect of a change in program. This was easy for conventional treatment
services, where an interview with a patient almost invariably is scheduled
to last an hour. In the school-type programs, such as the cerebral palsy
nursery, we could use the traditional statistic, "full-time equivalent
enrollee." The measurement of counseling and community service programs
required more thought and, ultimately, presented us with another con-
ceptual discovery.

It is a tradition in the medical profession that services are
being performed only when one is face-to-face with a patient. But in a
community service program, a professional can spend hours preparing
material; more hours in transit to and from a community; an hour, say,
with a social agency there; and then still more hours writing down the
results. If he reported only the one hour spent with the agency, the
record of effort - and cost - actually invested would clearly be
inaccurate.

From the community's point of view, however, the unit of output
received from the Center is the single hour with the professional.
There has to be a distinction between time spent for costing purposes
and the unit of time used for output purposes. When both are used for
planning purposes, one gets a clearer picture of why community service
workers' case loads seem so light compared with those of clinical workers.

What is more important, when professionals can be persuaded to
report on the basis of time invested in an activity rather than on the
basis of interview output, the true costs begin to appear; and clinical
services are relieved of the burden of carrying part of the cost of
other programs.

Solid results

At this writing, program costing is completing its third year of
operation. Since the Center's activities roughly follow the pattern of
the school year and since most of the professionals work according to a

pattern of commitment that changes very little during a year, it probably
is unnecessary to gather information and cost it out more often than
once a year, but the director does it quarterly for verification purposes.
Data on output are, of course, gathered currently and compared with the
budget.

It takes more than two months to pull the cost data together, but
not because of clerical or computational burdens. The time elapses be-
cause the process obliges the staff to discover, discuss, examine,
define, and redirect. Inadvertent shifts of effort and focus are un-
covered, as are activities that seem to be taking more time than they
are worth. Once accepted by the professionals, the costing effort
induces an element of planning that was absent before, and also foreign
to many of them.

What you pay for, you get

The most dramatic result of the first crude program costing effort
was also the most pragmatic: the Center started assessing users for the
cost of the services they demanded. This was quite a contrast with the
Center's early years, when the professionals were apologetic in seeking
payment for its activities.

The approach to the town finance committees and city administrators
used to be, "Please help us out with x thousands of dollars." Now the
Center had the information to support this position: "Here is a list of
services we have been asked to provide you and the amount that each will
cost. Please authorize payment, or you'll have to get along without the
service."

As everyone knows who is acquainted with methods of municipal
government, it is never that simple. Getting acceptance of the change
in approach necessitated much demonstration, explanation, and cajoling.
It was a delicate matter to explain to a community that, whereas in the
past its financial support had been applied generally to the operation
of the Center's programs, now these programs (many of them unfamiliar to,
and typically not specifically demanded by, the community) were to be

underwritten separately, or otherwise canceled.

In some cases the exigencies of politics required reversion to
the time-honored procedure of raising charges per patient-hour. Never-
theless, the campaign to obtain payment for particular services rendered
moved slowly ahead. The progress permitted the Center to hold the line
on charges for long-established activities.

Sometimes we "found" costs that were reimbursable under one program
buried in another. An example is the rehabilitation workshop, whose
costs are reimbursed by a state agency. Program costing turned up about
$35,000 worth of unrecognized professional and nonprofessional support
which was being provided by persons at the Center not specifically
identified with the workshop. And this discovery served to shift the
burden of reimbursement from the communities to the state agency.

Cost data in planning

The next most important product of the cost accounting effort was
the ability to examine the cost of new demands made on the Center. In
earlier days, for example, the willing response of the agency's profes-
sionals to the awakening concern over drug addiction and related mental
health problems would have included little thought for the consequences -
an inundation of unanswered and unanswerable calls for help, diagnosis,
and treatment. Now we have the information with which to sound the alarm
about needed facilities and funding while interest in the service is at
a peak.

Moreover, it is now possible to think and talk about relative costs
in setting priorities. Priority setting remains highly subjective; the
relative importance of various activities is more or less established by
the director as he listens to the demands coming from various quarters
and analyzes the interests and abilities of the people available. Having
cost information available leads to considerations like these:
- We could double our work with the police departments if we were
willing to give up 5% of our children's clinical services.
- If we are asked to participate heavily in a drug abuse program,

the resources for it cannot come from any of the programs funded
by restricted money, and the nursery school and rehabilitation
staffs are not qualified. So we would have to cut back on
clinical or community services after determining which one
would free the most money with the least loss to the communities.

- A suggestion that we join in a new community program on alcoholism
  must be rejected because we can foresee the amount of commit-
  ment that would be required if it were successful, and all our
  funds are committed to programs that seem to be more effective.

Spotlight on funds flows

A very important discovery was the interaction among the different
kinds of funds. Before program costing and budgeting, the unrestricted
money was "just used," and the forces affecting its use were unrecognized
and uncontrolled. When available funds were related to the costs of
programs, we discovered such things as these:

- Receipt of restricted money pushes unrestricted money out of a
  program, making it available for other purposes.
- Loss of restricted money, even with a concurrent reduction in
  program, sucks up some unrestricted money, if for no other reason
  than the loss of contribution to overhead.
- The same service is often funded twice, thereby relieving the
  general demand on unrestricted funds (For example, when a trainee
  - whose salary has been contributed - works on a project for
  which a grant was received, the portion of the grant money that
  otherwise would have been applied to his salary relieves the
  communities of part of their burden of providing the unrestricted
  funds for the Center.)
- Attractive service opportunities always receive "hidden funding"
  because they are supported by professionals who would otherwise
  be working on the programs for which they are being paid.

A case in point is the after-care program, which is 30% supported
by community funds and requires 10% of the total community contribution.
After-care is counseling and support of patients during their difficult
period of adjustment after release from state mental hospitals.

Mental health professionals have long felt that an after-care program plays an extremely important part in a patient's cure, and, to the extent that he is completely rehabilitated, it is an important service to the community. However, no community has specifically contracted for an after-care program.

What, then, are the ethics of using funds appropriated for certain services to finance another service not on the list and perhaps not even known to the appropriating cities and towns? Yet if you do not do it this way, how do you get the chance to incubate new services?

There are several good answers to these questions, but the point is that you have to think of the questions before you can answer them. (In this case, we recognized "hidden funding" as a fact of life and articulated the policy that new program development is a recognized overhead cost, much like training.)

Wider horizons

Program cost accounting has opened up some promising lines of thought that have yet to be explored. We wonder, for example, why treatment of adults seems to cost more per hour than does treatment of children, and work with courts and school counselors more than work with courts and police. The director has not tackled these questions because he is not sure the statistics are right. The data base must grow and "season" for a while before it can be trusted to help answer such detailed questions.

Another set of interesting questions is raised by thinking about overhead costs and their relationship to programs. Perhaps most overhead items can be associated with specific programs when they are significant enough to warrant the trouble. The chief accountant and the chief engineer can make quite good estimates of where their staff are spending their hours, and, if necessary, they can require time reports so that costs can be accounted for by program.

But why should a fully funded program bear any of the costs of the accounts receivable department? Or why should the counseling program, carried out entirely off the premises, bear as much plant and

maintenance cost as do those that use the plant?

Perhaps there is not really much true overhead in any institution; perhaps most of it is really part of unidentified additional programs or additions to particular programs. Consider the college admissions office, the development office, the alumni office, the news office, the placement office, and so on; are they overhead, or is each engaged in a purposeful program of its own?

These thoughts suggest the kinds of hard questions that can be asked about overhead on the basis of the program cost concept. What is causing the overhead cost? Is it worth it? Why do we need that over-head program? Is it paying for itself? Are we asking users to share the cost of doing something unnecessary or of something for a completely unrelated beneficiary?

On a more ambitious level, the director is thinking about freeing mental health services from the encumbrances of politics and civil ser-vice by contracting for specific outputs of service at a fixed price per unit of output. He needed accurate cost accounting before he could dare propose it.

In summary, all concerned are delighted with the results of program cost accounting. The professionals do not find it burdensome, and they know much they did not know before. The administrators and the trustees are beginning to feel they understand what is going on, and they move with more confidence, both in planning and in finding the funds.

Conclusion

The message is not that we have found program budgeting and accounting to be a good thing; everyone knows it is. My message is that it can be done. Here are my recommendations for institutional adminis-trators and trustees:

- Insist on knowing what the institution's programs are and who is paying for them.
- Insist on analysis of the costs of proposed program changes.
- Insist that the reasons for proposed changes in expenditures

be stated, and in terms of output of services.
- Insist on knowing what the institution is getting for its
  overhead.

If you insist on all of these things, it will take a program
budgeting and accounting system (at least a rudimentary one) to give
you the answers.

If you are persuasive or powerful enough to move the institution
in this direction, one additional admonition is in order: keep it simple.
Don't let the zeal of accountants and administrators for procedural order
bog down the effort in mechanics.

Your reward will be the discovery that you can be in control of the
institution you are responsible for, rather than the other way around.

AN APPROACH TO THE CO-ORDINATION OF STATISTICAL
REPORTING BY VOLUNTARY AGENCIES*

William B. McCurdy

The service statistics of voluntary social agencies are in a de-
plorable state today, as most social workers readily acknowledge. What-
ever the terms in which practitioners, supervisors, administrators,
board members, community planners, and researchers [1] express their views,
their feelings about the problem are essentially the same: frustration
at the demands of statistical recording and reporting and disappointment
that the end results are not more effective.

A key factor in creating and perpetuating problems in service
statistics is the absence of any effective co-ordination among statistical
reporting systems. A more orderly, co-ordinated approach by the numerous
organizations that sponsor reporting systems not only is desirable but
may indeed be of considerable importance to the field. Co-ordination
will not be achieved, however, by relying on the normal processes by
which these individual reporting systems develop, because these lead
naturally to further and further fragmentation and differentiation.
Collaboration is needed both among the organizations that sponsor re-
porting systems and between the sponsoring organizations and the local
participating agencies. Staff members of participating agencies and of
sponsoring organizations must be motivated to attack the problem, and
they must be informed of the obstacles before them.

Role of Reporting Systems

Social workers sometimes overlook the effect of reporting systems
on all phases of collecting and processing service statistics and often
feel that these systems are remote from the day-to-day statistical

*Reprinted with permission from Social Casework, (April, 1963)
p. 193-199.

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[1] See, for example, David Fanshel (ed.), Research in Social Welfare
Administration, National Association of Social Workers, New York, 1962,
p. 124.

operations of an agency. In these operations staff members are guided by the agency's own statistical procedures, definitions, and forms - recording a variety of data on such items as the opening and closing of cases, the completion of in-person interviews, the characteristics of clients, and so on. Usually a monthly summary is compiled of the total activity of each worker, of each unit or department, and, eventually, of the agency as a whole. These summaries are used, however, in compiling the reports an agency typically must make to some outside organization. Therefore, the agency's own statistical system must conform to the requirements of the reporting system of each sponsoring organization to which it submits data. These adjustments usually affect every step taken by staff members in relation to statistics.

The impact of reporting systems on the local voluntary social agency is illustrated by the experience of the 311 voluntary member agencies of the Family Service Association of America. Four national membership organizations* play a significant part in shaping the reports these agencies prepare. In addition, scores of local welfare councils, chests, and sectarian organizations require the FSAA member agencies to submit reports, and in many states agencies that combine family and children's services must submit detailed reports to a state licensing agency. It is common for an agency to report to three or four organizations, each of which uses a different reporting system with overlapping coverage, different time periods, and conflicting definitions. The number of reports required may rise to five or more for a multiple-function agency or an agency supported by several small community chests. To make matters worse, there are currently fewer efforts to co-ordinate these reporting systems than there were ten years ago.

To the agency executive, the need to satisfy multiple and conflicting reporting systems means maintaining unduly complex statistical procedures, with all the attendant forms. Furthermore, if he is to have an intelligible statistical picture of his agency as a whole, he may

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*These agencies are the Council of Jewish Federations and Welfare Funds, the Family Service Association of America, the National Travelers Aid Association, and the United States Children's Bureau. Other national organizations are also involved in reports covering some of the specialized services provided by a number of FSAA member agencies.

need to install what is in effect a separate system solely for this
purpose. This is often financially impossible.

The situation is equally frustrating to anyone interested in com-
piling even the most basic figures on any significant segment of the
voluntary field. He will find that, for statistical purposes, the field
is sliced in a crisscross fashion by function (defined in various ways),
by membership in a national organization, by religious affiliation, and
by geographical location, both of the community within the state and of
the state within the nation. Since nearly every slice has its own
peculiarities in content and definition, the result is the statistical
equivalent of a box filled with pieces of several incomplete jigsaw
puzzles.

This situation also presents many problems for the organizations
that sponsor statistical reporting systems. If they improve their
systems, they almost inevitably further complicate the already complex
reporting requirements and add to the problems of the participating
agencies. If a sponsoring organization refrains from initiating change
in order not to burden its participating agencies, its system may soon
become obsolete.

The Importance of Co-ordination

Two major arguments are advanced in favor of co-ordinating stat-
istical reporting systems. The first is based on the resources lost
to voluntary social agencies through the necessity of gathering data
for overlapping and conflicting reporting systems. Given the pressures
for service and the persistent shortage of professional staff, this
kind of waste is intolerable. It could, of course, be eliminated by
abolishing all statistical reporting, but statistical reports are im-
portant to both participating agencies and sponsoring organizations.
The organization responsible for disbursing funds, for example, needs
service statistics for the same reason it needs financial data - as a
tool for accountability. Statistics are also useful to agencies in
planning and evaluating their programs and to sponsoring organizations
in setting standards and providing effective central services. The

remedy is not to abolish reporting systems but to improve current practices.

The second major argument is based on the benefits to be gained from the co-ordination of reporting systems. Consider for a moment the increasing concern of voluntary agencies with management questions. This concern is justified by mounting demands for service, dwindling financial support, and adverse criticism from outside the field.[2] As skill in agency administration continues to increase, the demand will continue to grow rapidly for detailed, comparative operational data that, with rare exceptions, are not available now. Such data can be used by an administrator in evaluating the performance of his agency or by the members of a board in testing the planning of an administrator.

Deryck Thomson, in a recent article on service accountability, highlights the potential value of good comparative statistics and calls for "a reliable system of national service accounting. . . ."[3] Such a system could be of considerable value to administrators and board members of local agencies and to members of the community, but, as has been suggested above, it would require far closer co-ordination of reporting systems than exists today. Unless the present course of statistical reporting is changed, this goal will not be reached.

Thomson's plea for change is based on the local agency's interest. The traditional argument for co-ordination, ably stated by Emil Frankel in 1926, takes a broader view:

> The desire to have a composite picture of our various social problems seems to me a very natural one. Our efforts in social amelioration and reconstruction are multitudinous. We are ever introducing new social work methods designed to correct and prevent social disorders. The vast number of institutions and agencies doing social work are keeping records of some sort concerning their clients and their experiences.

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[2] See, for example, Voluntary Health and Welfare Agencies in the United States, Schoolmasters' Press, New York, 1961, p. 17.

[3] Deryck Thomson, "The Concept of Service Accountability and its Application Within a Casework Setting," Social Worker, Vol. XXX, June-July 1962, p. 49.

It is my ardent hope to have this enormous amount of
social data so welded together as to·show us graphically
the experience of whole communities, states, and the en-
tire nation, with social disorders and the factors af-
fecting them; to give us a picture of the direction our
social forces are taking and to show us the rate of pro-
gress, either current or over a period of time, toward
the attainment of our objectives in social improvement
through our manifold social efforts. [4]

Previous attempts to achieve these goals have, in my opinion,
suffered from a too-literal interpretation of the phrase "welded to-
gether." If this phrase has been interpreted to mean adding together
full monthly and yearly totals from every social agency, such an
interpretation would require a massive reporting structure to compile
totals for local communities, states, and the nation. A high degree of
uniformity in reporting would be imposed on the sponsoring organizations
and the participating agencies. These changes would be dictated by the
needs of the organizations and agencies. There is small likelihood that
Thomson's specialized system of national service accounting could be
developed by family agencies.

As will be suggested later in this article, however, some of
Frankel's goals can be achieved by using sampling techniques. A satis-
factory degree of uniformity can be attained in a sampling study without
collecting data throughout the year - though even this approach requires
a high degree of co-ordination among organizations, and especially
national agencies, that sponsor reporting systems.

Factors That Shape Reporting Systems

If co-ordination is so desirable, why has the current situation
developed? A. W. McMillen, Ralph G. Hurlin, and others, in their extra-
ordinary pioneering work in the late 1920's and early 1930's, strongly
favored co-ordination. Today, after more than thirty years of exposure

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[4] Emil Frankel, "Standardization of Social Statistics," in Proceedings
of the National Conference of Social Work, Fifty-third Annual Session held
in Cleveland, Ohio, May 26 - June 2, 1926, University of Chicago Press,
Chicago, 1926, p. 558.

to the potential value of good service statistics, how can the increasing
disorganization in this area be explained? The answer lies in the com-
plex of factors that have shaped the content and structure of statistical
reporting systems now in use. These factors often differ sharply from
system to system. Before any sound plan to achieve order can be intro-
duced, they must be identified and their impact examined.

Local Agency Program

The service program of the local agency is one important factor
in shaping a statistical reporting system. Different programs call for
different kinds of service statistics. When the programs of a group of
participating agencies are largely homogeneous, a reporting system of
extensive usefulness for all agencies can be developed; when they are
not, the choice lies between a single reporting plan that incorporates
the few elements common to all plans and a variety of special reporting
plans that will have limited meaning to the participants. Even for
agencies with homogeneous programs, the design of a reporting system
may be complicated if the programs are relatively complex. There is,
furthermore, a constant pressure for reporting systems to reflect the
many, often subtle, differences in agency programs. Acceding to this
pressure leads to further fragmentation and greater difference between
systems.

Local Agency Size

The size of participating agencies has some influence on the
structure of a reporting system. Size is a factor that has complex
implications. A small agency tends to be more flexible than a large
agency in its statistical reporting; in the small agency, change is
accomplished more easily, internal communication is faster, and the
volume of work is smaller. On the other hand, the small agency can
rarely afford the technical specialist in statistical processing found
in many large agencies. For this reason, a small agency often cannot
manage to handle complex procedures. A reporting system can be de-
signed for either large or small agencies with relative ease. The task
is complicated if both types of agency must be accommodated by one
system.

Statistical Skill and Resources in Local Agencies

Perhaps the most critical factor in determining the content and
structure of a reporting system is the level of statistical sophisti-
cation in participating agencies. A staff with a high, uniform level
of skill and know-how in statistical procedures can overcome many
obstacles. A staff with a low or uneven level of skill in statistics
can severely limit the detail to be covered by reports and can adversely
affect the accuracy of the reporting.

In recent years the combination of increasing technical skill and
absence of co-ordination has probably accelerated the growth of differ-
ences between systems. As agencies become able to provide increasingly
complex statistics, it is natural and desirable to change a reporting
system accordingly. If this change is made in the absence of practical
means of co-ordination with other systems, differences among systems are
multiplied.

Statistical Skill and Resources in the Sponsoring Organization

The size and the technical competence of the statistical staff in
a sponsoring organization are important factors in shaping a reporting
system. The number of professional and clerical staff needed depends
on many elements, such as span of coverage, geographical dispersion of
participating agencies, and content of reporting. There must be enough
technically competent persons to manage data collection, processing,
and analysis. In most systems, the staff should also be able to provide
effective specialized consultation to participating agencies. Moreover,
if a change in the reporting system is needed, the staff must be capable
of absorbing an additional sharp increase in work load.

Geographical Dispersion

Even the geographical dispersion of participating agencies affects
statistical reporting, because it affects the capacity of the sponsoring
organization to maintain effective communication. It is much more dif-
ficult to maintain a reporting system when agency and sponsor are forced
to discuss complex questions by correspondence rather than face to face.

Procedures and definitions may have to be restricted if printed instructions cannot be supplemented by verbal discussion. It is also difficult to keep a reporting system within the context of the needs of agencies when they are widely dispersed.

Span of Coverage

The span of its coverage is another factor that influences a reporting system: one that involves a hundred agencies is naturally much more complicated to maintain than one that involves ten. Resources are absorbed by the mechanics of the operation, and the process of securing consensus for a change becomes harder as the number of agencies increases. Unless these difficulties are overcome, the reporting system of a sponsoring organization with a wide span of coverage will not keep pace with the changes made in the reporting system of a small organization. In the absence of any effective method for co-ordinating the two, any improvements in either system add to the over-all confusion.

Authority of the Sponsoring Organization

How much a sponsoring organization can control a reporting system depends, of course, on how much authority it has. It may be in a position to make only a request of the participating agencies or, at the other extreme, it may be in a position to issue legally sanctioned directives, as does a state licensing agency, for example. No organization has absolute authority, and the degree of authority the sponsoring agency is able to exercise often has a direct bearing on the speed with which participating agencies accept change. Authority also has a bearing on the content of a reporting system whenever the needs of the sponsoring organization conflict with those of participating agencies.

Needs of the Sponsoring Organization

All reporting systems produce some statistics that are of prime importance to the sponsoring organizations and of limited interest to the participating agencies. The sponsoring organization may call on the participating agencies to collect statistics that, for example, are required by law or by a budget committee. Furthermore, the functional

needs of the sponsoring organization may be reflected in the collection of data related to the broad assessment of trends or to interpretation on a national basis. These special needs not only influence the content of a statistical system but also play a part in determining the capacity of a system to satisfy the interests of the participating agencies.

Tradition

Finally, a reporting system is influenced by its heritage. Once procedures are established in a reporting system, change tends to be resisted by participating agencies. Moreover, the traditional relationship between participating agencies and the sponsoring organization tend to be transferred to, and thus influence, the operation of a reporting system. A sponsoring organization with little direct authority must lean heavily on the voluntary co-operation and self-imposed discipline of the participating agencies. Their view of their responsibilities to the sponsoring organization as a whole will influence their willingness to participate in the reporting system and to co-operate in making changes.

Proposals for Change

The presentation of a detailed blueprint for co-ordinating reporting systems is well beyond the scope of this article. Indeed, it is doubtful whether enough information for such a blueprint is available at this point. It is possible, however, to propose a beginning and to suggest means of overcoming some of the major obstacles.

As a first step, effective communication should be established among the sponsoring organizations. Adequate communication would first of all, and very simply, lead to the avoidance of some unnecessary differences; for example, slight differences that now exist in intervals in age classifications. From a broader point of view, exchanging experience would contribute to a common understanding of the needs, potentials, and problems reflected in existing reporting systems. Such understanding would be useful in itself, but it can also provide the essential groundwork for a plan to establish co-ordination. In short, effective communication among the sponsoring organizations could serve

the field well even if there were no prior commitment except to examine
and explore the situation.

One major problem to which attention should also be given is the
shortage of personnel who have technical skill in statistical reporting
and detailed knowledge of the intricacies, potentials, and liabilities
of each system. The only practical source of qualified manpower is
former staff members and the staff currently responsible for maintaining
the reporting systems in sponsoring organizations. Some ways must be
found to permit members of the current staff to devote part of their
time to planning for the development of an improved reporting system.

Some staff time could be saved if technical services were made
available through a centralized structure, or simply by the exchange of
experience among sponsoring organizations. Statistical reporting
systems have enough features in common to permit many techniques
developed in one system to be adapted for use in others. The savings
in time might be substantial. Another device that would promote co-
ordination would be establishing training programs for members of the
technical staff, especially those new to sponsoring organizations.
Standards of good practice in such areas as data processing, analysis
and presentation, and design of classifications and definitions can be
identified and shared among staff members of sponsoring organizations.
Currently, no effective channels exist for promoting this kind of
professional development.

Another major problem is determining the direction in which the
content and procedures of reporting systems must change. What guide
can be used to select changes that will produce the maximum gain to
the field?

Local agency interest is the most promising guide; for the local
agency is the common element in all reporting systems. Each sponsoring
organization gains its justification from the role it plays in strength-
ening the direct services of the local participating agencies. The
agency and its needs form the common ground between any two reporting
systems that impinge on a local agency. If change is made primarily in

accordance with the interests of the local agency, both sponsors will fulfill their obligations. There is, moreover, reason to expect that changes based primarily on the interests of the participating agency can also be adapted to meet some of the different needs of the sponsoring organizations. It is hard to believe that statistics of value to the local agency cannot also be used to satisfy the requirements of accountability to a financing body, or that these statistics cannot be adapted to meet many of the particular needs of sponsoring organizations.

The initiative for establishing order in reporting must come from the sponsoring organization, but the active involvement of the staff and the board of participating agencies is required to determine their own interests. Unless ways can be devised to engage local agencies in a meaningful and effective discussion of the problem, there is little hope that any lasting improvements will be achieved. Similarly, there is little hope of success if executives of the local agencies are unprepared to take a responsible role in this process.

Techniques for Co-ordination

A discouraging array of obstacles must be overcome before co-ordination between statistical reporting systems can be achieved. The planners will need to draw upon a variety of practical techniques. Undoubtedly, additional techniques will have to be developed, but here are four techniques that now offer some promise for success.

The first is compromise. In many areas of reporting, compromise will not materially weaken the usefulness of the statistics. In other areas, the resulting losses will be more than balanced by the gains. An agency may find, for example, that if its measure of quantitative production were to be modified slightly, it would be able to compare its experience with that of many other agencies.

The second technique, sampling, is especially promising because it can meet some of the special needs of a sponsoring organization without disrupting the statistical system of participating agencies. A

sample study covering only a small part of the total operation of any one agency can include variations in definition and special detail. It does not require the agency to modify its entire statistical system. This flexibility is most valuable in a reporting system that encompasses a large number of agencies. In the Family Service Association of America, for example, any change in reporting involves statistical forms and procedures for a third of a million families each year.

A recent study by Dorothy Beck is an excellent example of the usefulness in statistical reporting by social agencies of the rarely used technique of sampling.[5] By drawing a one-day sample of applicants from all member agencies of the FSAA while the U.S. census was being taken in 1960, Beck was able to compare the characteristics of family service applicants with those of the total population. She was also able to gather extensive data on services provided by the participating agencies. The study produced badly needed, but previously unavailable, data at a fraction of the cost of achieving the same result through the regular reporting system of the FSAA.

The value of this FSAA study would have been increased further if it had been possible for a substantial number of other organizations to undertake similar studies that were co-ordinated with it. This fact is well demonstrated by the experience of the United Community Services of Metropolitan Detroit, which did co-ordinate its study with that of the FSAA. By extending the coverage of the sample, the Detroit UCS was able to assemble useful community-wide data that could be directly related to the national data.[6]

A third useful technique for co-ordinating reporting systems is to increase the capacity of local agencies to deal with statistical processing. When compromise is not possible, conflicts can often be resolved by making use of complex statistical procedures capable of producing statistics of value to local agencies and sponsoring organizations. The

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[5] Dorothy Fahs Beck, Patterns in Use of Family Agency Service, Family Service Association of America, New York, 1961.

[6] "Who Comes to Family Service," a report prepared by Shirley Terreperry, Family Agency Study Group, United Community Services of Metropolitan Detroit, Detroit, 1962.

determining factor is often an agency's capacity to absorb these
procedures efficiently.

The use of high-speed data-processing equipment presents an in-
triguing possibility for increasing the technical capacity of agencies
to process data. Preliminary results of experimental work with computer
processing of monthly statistics, carried out by the Jewish Family and
Children's Service in Pittsburgh, suggest that this technique may even-
tually be economical for the relatively small voluntary agency. The
initial programing costs, however, must be spread over a number of
agencies; the reporting requirements must be stabilized; and the agencies
must be able to adapt their systems to the procedural requirements of
machine processing.

The fourth technique suggested is to divide the responsibilities
for the collection of data among sponsoring organizations that have
overlapping coverage. As long ago as 1930, McMillen described the ad-
vantages of having councils of social agencies (through what is now the
United Community Funds and Councils of America) and national agencies
co-operate with each other.[7] It is much easier for the councils than
for the national agencies to maintain close, personal communication with,
and on-the-spot supervision of, the participating agencies. On the
other hand, it is much easier for the national agencies, rather than
the local council or the UCFCA, to stay abreast of their particular
fields. Other sharing arrangements, for example, plans involving state
child welfare departments or state mental health agencies, can also be
made.[8]

Conclusion

The proposals presented in this article require the initiative
and active participation of organizations that sponsor reporting systems.
Success, then, depends partly on the degree to which these organizations

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[7]A. W. McMillen, Measurement in Social Work, University of Chicago
Press, Chicago, 1930, p. 144-148.

[8]Morton Kramer and others, "National Approach to the Evaluation of
Community Mental Health Programs," American Journal of Public Health,
Vol. LI, July 1961, p. 969-979.

are motivated to participate in a plan for co-ordinating the statistical reporting of voluntary social agencies. Their motivation, in turn, depends on the extent of their dissatisfaction with the current situation, on their assessment of the chances of achieving a meaningful reform, and on their ability to invest their resources in the work involved. The proposals also require that, once organized, efforts for change be guided primarily by the interests of the participating local agencies. Success also depends, then, on whether the planners are able to devise changes that either benefit the local agencies or at least offset their losses from co-ordination.

Any approach to co-ordinating reporting systems is confronted by many formidable obstacles. Even a cursory review of the carefully documented plans proposed and the cautious expectations expressed in the late 1920's and early 1930's is a sobering experience.[9] Whether or not the intervening years have improved the chances for success can be determined only by trying again.

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[9] A. W. McMillen, op. cit., p. 138-149; and Emil Frankel, op. cit., p. 558-562.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING IN VOLUNTARY AGENCIES*

Howard Hush

The move toward trade unionism and collective bargaining by the professional employees of voluntary agencies in the social welfare field poses some harsh questions: Will unions destroy, or save, the voluntary agency? Will the contributors to united community funds support hard bargaining by professional employees or will they withdraw their support in protest? Who is "management" in the collective bargaining process of a legally autonomous agency supported by a united fund?

For the uninitiated in such matters, the response to these questions may be explosive, violently prejudiced or partisan, or heavily flavored with the so-called puritan ethic - and perhaps only remotely related to reality. For many of us involved in the administration of large voluntary agencies in the Detroit area, where collective bargaining is in its third year, the response to these questions is likely to be one of studied restraint and evasion.

Why are such questions, once they become a part of everyday reality, almost beyond approach? The fact that they are virtually unapproachable is, in itself, part of the problem. There is a communication blockage that is difficult to remove or circumvent. I should like to suggest some of the factors contributing to the difficulty of meaningful exchange.

1. Most professionals in the field of community and social service are sympathetic to organized labor and collective bargaining on philosophical grounds. Moreover, the profession of social work has been so throughout its history. Problems arise, however, when a philosophical, humanitarian view of workers' rights, which evolved from the needs of employees paid by the hour in an industrial, profit making enterprise, is applied to the collective bargaining process involving salaried

*Reprinted from Social Casework, (April, 1969), p. 210-213.

personnel in a nonprofit community service enterprise in which "manage-
ment" and "labor" are of the same educational and professional background
and presumably, have the same goals.

2. A collective bargaining relationship is by definition a conflict
relationship between employer and employee. The conflict is out in the
open; it is legally recognized; most of the ground rules for dealing
with the issues are set by federal or state law or regulation. By legal
definition, certain elements of an organization are "management" and
certain other elements are "labor." Furthermore, the adversary relation-
ship is not restricted to the bargaining table at a given season of the
year. In varying degrees it pervades the whole organization. It may
be minimal, it may peak at certain times of the year, or it may flare
around certain issues. But it is never completely absent.

3. In a voluntary social welfare agency, there is likely to be
lack of sophistication on both sides of the bargaining table. For ex-
ample, when members of the staff believe, as too many still do, that a
collective bargaining relationship is simply an orderly, business-like
way of employing someone to get more salary for them and that all other
attitudes, relationships, and conditions of employment remain unchanged,
they are naive. They are overlooking the fact that an outside, third
force - the union - is an entity in and of itself; it is part of the
Establishment; it has its own thrust and its own political and survival
pressures; and it has its well established techniques for protecting and
promoting its own self-interest. Staff members are beginning to learn
that a collective bargaining agreement is a two-way instrument that
defines in legal terminology what both administration and staff can and
cannot do.

4. Finally, a collective bargaining relationship does not pose
new questions so much as it puts into very sharp focus some old and
very difficult questions: What are an employee's services worth in
dollars? What values determine the worth? Who makes the judgment?

As if these questions were not troublesome enough, the problem of
employee compensation is compounded by concepts of "charity," "dedication",

and "sacrifice," which are now obsolete. Whether one likes it or not, these concepts are "out" as far as most urban employer-employee relation- ships are concerned, and one had best not try to use them to avoid paying decent salaries. At the same time, I believe that professional social workers must share with the general community and with boards of directors a substantial responsibility for their own compensation problems. Too many of them enjoy a kind of disengagement from the general community and do not get beyond the sterile complaint, " 'They' should pay 'us' more."

The dilemmas and the issues

For the staff. The dilemma for the professional employee can easily become one of a conflict of loyalties. How much of his loyalty belongs to the union? How much to the agency? How much to the client? How much to the community? To what extent should he be guided by his own hard nosed, short term self-interest? Being faced with this dilemma provides a heyday for the person who lives by confusion and enjoys conflict for the sake of conflict. But it is a nightmare for the person who likes a quiet, diligent pursuit of his goals, an orderly arrangement of his loyalties, and a minimum of organizational commotion.

There is, too, a shift in the climate of relationships among staff, administration, and board. Relationships tend to become depersonalized, rigid, and legalistic. There is more sensitivity to the concept of "ultimate authority" in administration - not the particular decision or the basis for it, but who has the authority to make it.

Perhaps the greatest problem for professional employees is that so many of them are inexperienced and naive about the ramifications of a collective bargaining agreement. For example, one member of an agency staff, who was an officer of the union and an especially active member of the bargaining team, requested a "merit" salary increase for himself after the contract had been signed for the current year. The agency administration was dumbfounded by the simple innocence of the request and lack óf sensitivity to the broad implications of collective bargain- ing for the agency and for the financing of the program. The staff

member, however, was even more dumbfounded to discover (1) that one purpose (and certainly the effect) of a collective bargaining relationship is to deny to administration discretion in individual salary adjustments based on merit, competence, or superior performance and (2) that the very contract he had just signed would not permit the agency to give him or anyone else in the bargaining unit the kind of individual salary adjustment he had requested.

For the executive director. The dilemma for the agency executive director is no less troublesome than it is for the staff. First, whether he likes it or not, he is management and he cannot avoid this role in relation to his staff and his board; he and the board sit on one side of the bargaining table and the members of the staff bargaining committee sit on the other side. Fundamentally, his role must be clear. It is true, however, that he also can retreat into isolation, a kind of legal sanctuary, if his survival is at stake.

Second, once a contract is signed, he is responsible for ensuring that it is fulfilled. The terms of the contract affecting salary, fringe benefits, insurance, working conditions, and so on cannot be modified by either the board of directors or the staff bargaining unit. The operating authority is the contract; it is not the board of directors, the personnel committee, or the agency's administrative staff.

Of greatest concern to some executive directors is the development of a kind of legally and morally justified disengagement among staff, administration, and governing board. Each of the three segments of agency operation tends to become legally defensive, more concerned with what it can and cannot do and less concerned with what it should or should not do. Particularly during the actual bargaining process, suspicion and conflict of interest among the segments are intensified. Long term common interests and goals, if indeed they exist, tend to become obscured by more immediate concern with short term goals and the struggle for power.

For the board. The initial response of the governing board to the fact of a collective bargaining procedure may be one of surprise and

disappointment. Very quickly, however, the attitude can become one of detached sophistication. Of necessity, the board has to take an official position on the issues; it must follow the rules of the collective bargaining process; it must eventually agree to a settlement.

It should not be surprising to executives (but it has been to many) to find that their boards relax quickly in the presence of a collective bargaining agreement, with some discomfort, to be sure, but almost with relief. Why? Because a collective bargaining agreement provides an orderly, legalistic resolution of issues involved in employer-employee relationships. The board becomes one step removed, more detached. It relies upon the collective bargaining machinery; it looks to the labor negotiator (usually an attorney, and a "must" for the employing agency) for advice and direction; and it depends upon the executive to administer the final contract. Just as the fact of a collective bargaining agreement influences the operation of the agency at the staff level, so it also has a pervasive effect on the relationship among board, administration, and staff.

Hope for the future

In this era of the "participation explosion," it is both fashionable and easy to play the game of confusion, of challenge for the sake of challenge, and of simple scapegoating. Nevertheless, with respect to salary issues and the collective bargaining process in voluntary agencies, the situation is not hopeless, unless we want to make it so. What are the sources of hope for the future?

We can hope for greater sophistication on the part of staff members in the adaptation of the collective bargaining process to the special agency setting. Specifically, we can hope that they will have conviction enough to challenge the outside union's "pros," many of whom know only the union contract model of the hourly rated employees in a profit making enterprise in the industrial community. They must evidence a high degree of sophistication even at the time they first consider the move toward a collective bargaining relationship. What are the issues, both short term and long term? What are the implications for staff, for agencies, and for the financial structure of voluntary agencies? What are the

alternatives to collective bargaining?

These questions are not easily answered. And the answers are likely to reflect emotions, values, and moods much more than facts or rational judgments. But at least these questions should be asked before, not after, the decision is made to seek a collective bargaining relationship. I am persuaded that it is in part because such questions were never ser- iously considered that we have a much higher staff turnover rate in the Detroit agencies, particularly among union officers and members of bargaining teams, after contracts have been signed. Also there are a few bitter souls who now say that neither the professional association nor the union seems able to deal with the compensation problem. The staff's problem does not necessarily reflect, however, the failure of unions and collective bargaining. Rather if reflects the staff's initial lack of understanding, its unrealistic expectations, and the lack of a national model for collective bargaining for public service personnel - social workers, teachers, nurses, policemen, and so on.

We can also hope that once the staff makes the decision to engage in collective bargaining it will adopt a more critical attitude toward certain concepts very important to the union movement among hourly rated industrial employees. Take, for example, the concept of seniority and the traditional trade union position that seniority should be the primary factor in determining wages, promotions, demotions, dismissals, and so on. When rigidly applied to a professional service, the seniority concept has a disastrous effect; too many of the rewards are reserved for tenure, even though performance may be mediocre. Yet young professional social workers, with a proud disdain for the Establishment and for people over thirty years of age, can sit at the bargaining table and defend the traditional labor concept of seniority when matters of self-interest are at issue, apparently unconcerned with the inconsistency.

On the part of administration and board, we can hope for sharper, more realistic decisions in the over-all management of the agency's program. The decisions must be sharper, often hard nosed, simply because the pressures of collective bargaining put the issues and the conflicts into sharper focus. I should like to offer three illustrations.

1. The assessment of professional performance during a six-month probationary period assumes critical importance. During this period, the administration may have full discretion in keeping or not keeping a staff member, but is has very little discretion after the staff member's name has been placed on the seniority list. Administration must make a clear decision, one way or another, at the end of the probationary period; no evasion, no wait-and-see attitude, and no sentimental indulgence can be permitted.

2. The salary issue must be faced squarely in a collective bargaining agreement; there is little, if any, room for an appeal to "dedication" or "sacrifice" and the like. Each party at the bargaining table has a paid advocate to defend his position. The competitive spirit is dominant. Sentiment, if any, is likely to be rhetorical or theatrical; sheer self-interest takes on a vigor and frankness strange to some of us. It is not my intent to judge or to suggest what is "right" or what is "wrong." I want only to highlight the shift in climate and the compelling pressure to face issues openly and squarely.

3. Inevitably the pressures on the agency's budget will sharpen the issues with respect to program, priorities of service, and effectiveness of performance. We can hope that, as operating costs increase because of the improved benefits for the staff, the administration and the board will become increasingly critical of the traditional ways of delivering service - particularly if there has had to be a curtailment of service. In the automobile plants, for example, as costs went higher, there was a shift to more and more automation. Probing by administration and board will cause discomfort for many practitioners - usually a conservative force in agency operation - but collective bargaining is a two-way street. If used well, it can bring benefits to clients and to the community, but the benefits cannot be taken for granted.

The crucial question

Will the outside union destroy, or save, the voluntary social agency? It will probably do neither. But it will provide a measure of the community's current commitment to the voluntary agency. It may force the

community to decide how far it will go beyond token support. In the meantime, if the union is sensitive to the issues, it will have to decide how far it will go in a gamble with the future of the voluntary agency.

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