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EVALUATION OF HUMAN SERVICE ORGANIZATIONS

Within the last decade and a half, we witnessed a dramatic awakening of concern for social ills in the United States, a national commitment to do something about them, a launching of thousands of experimental programs and the spending of tens of billions of dollars on "welfare." More recently, disenchantment has grown, purse strings have been tightened, and loud cries for efficiency and economy can be heard. Where experimentation in human services was the battle cry of the 1960's, evaluation is very much the key to understanding the grant scene in the 1970's. It is no longer sufficient to promise a cure for social ills; now we must show that ills actually have been cured. Without ways of evaluating human services delivery systems that have at least "face validity," the most likely outcome is retrenchment and ultimate death of virtually all the programs that were begun with such high hopes a few years ago.

The problems of establishing face validity for human services program evaluation are legion. The methodology now being used--if indeed methodology is not too dignified a word for much of what is passing for evaluation--needs accelerated development. Funding decision makers are no longer satisfied with the expert's global assurance that everyone working on the program is doing a good job. Nor are they particularly impressed with the social scientist's application of what Guttentag (1973) has labeled the "classical experimental straightjacket."

GENERAL SYSTEMS THEORY

The present authors believe general systems theory (Katz and Kahn, 1966; Kast and Rosenzweig, 1972) provides an analytical framework that meets the rigorous standards of the social scientist but is intuitively appealing and understandable to practitioners and funding decision makers. The model in Figure 1 is adapted from Katz and Kahn (1966) and Seiler (1967).

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An organization is an energy-processing system that imports resources from the environment, transforms those resources according to a set of rules (a technology), and exports the transformed resources as outputs. More specifically, energy is imported from the environment in the form of raw material and human resources; energy is transformed in the production sub-system; and exported back into the environment in the form of finished goods, delivered services, satisfaction of actors involved in the transformation, and development of improved ways of performing the transformation to meet the needs of customers and clients.

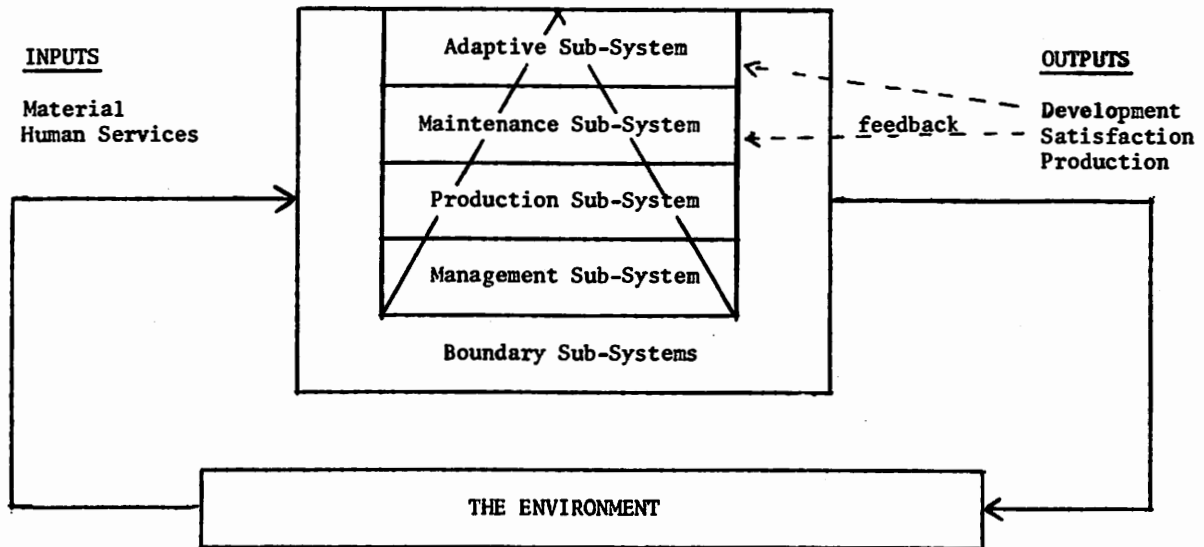
The Factory as a System

A factory provides a simple illustration of the model: sheet steel is imported into the factory after being procured by purchasing agents (boundary sub-system); production workers (production sub-system), hired and trained by the personnel department (maintenance sub-system), bend the metal into, say air-conditioning ducts, under supervision (management sub-system). Salesmen (boundary sub-system) market the finished product to customers in the environment. To complete the process, the management sub-system is responsible for insuring that the factory's processes and structure are adapted to changes in the environment (e.g., customer demands for new kinds of air-conditioning ducts).

The Human Services Organization as a System

Application of the model to human service organizations cannot be done so straightforwardly. There is controversy as to what the service organization's throughput is. For example, two opposing models of a college are: (1) the college inputs freshmen, processes them with knowledge, and outputs graduates to employers in the environment; (2) the college inputs raw knowledge, processes it into a form consumable by students, and outputs it to the students-as-clients in the

Figure 1



environment (Bell, 1973). For another example, does the hospital staff transform sick patients into cured ones, or do they transform raw medical knowledge into a form applicable to patients' needs? The general issues raised are those of organizational pervasiveness and scope--the extent to which clients are organizational members and, therefore, their activities controllable (Etzioni, 1964). In the case of most human services organizations, we argue, clients have only limited organizational membership and they should be considered consumers of the organization's productive outputs.

Let us consider a specific example to illustrate this conceptualization: a halfway house for alcoholics inputs information regarding treatment modalities, physical resources, and professional and paraprofessional knowledge and energy of the staff. General knowledge is transformed by staff into specific treatments and then output to the alcoholic clients. The productive transformation is supported by administrative practices (maintenance and management sub-systems) whose purpose is to facilitate transformation and application to client needs.

THE EVALUATION TASKS

The task for evaluation then becomes finding answers to these questions:

- 1) Is appropriate knowledge being imported from the environment?
- 2) Are physical resources adequate?
- 3) Are staff appropriately trained to perform the productive transformation?
- 4) Is sufficient energy expended in maintaining the organization?
- 5) Is the organization alert to changes in the environment?

- 6) Are appropriate responses made to environmental changes?
- 7) What is the quality of service delivered to clients?

Although we attempt to address each of these seven questions in evaluating human service organizations, heaviest emphasis is placed on those dealing with the output side of the system. An important characteristic of all general systems is that there are many paths to a desired goal or "equifinality" (Katz and Kahn, 1966). Our emphasis on evaluating outputs is in recognition of this characteristic. As a practical matter, present day funding decision makers are more interested in where a program arrives than how it got there.

The general systems model focuses attention on the equally important outputs of production, satisfaction and development. Applying general systems theory in this way helps avoid short-term maximization of production at the expense of long-term, organization maintenance and building. There is always the danger that short-term, spectacular results will be so over-emphasized that a pilot program could be evaluated as effective despite structural faults that could cause serious problems in the future years. An important question our approach seeks to answer is the sustainability of worthwhile results over the long-term.

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

A delivered human service cannot be separated from the vehicle that makes that delivery possible. The human service organization exists for the purpose of focusing organizational output on an element in its environment: a target population of clients. The goal of the human service organization is

to produce a particular environmental impact--to influence clients in a particular way. Each of the three kinds of output--production, development and satisfaction--has a particular impact on the environment, as follows:

- Productive Outputs

Productive outputs are of two types: (a) direct services and (b) information. For example, a drug treatment center delivers educational and counseling services to actual or likely drug users to increase individual capabilities to cope with drug problems. If the organization or its human service technology is novel, a critical productive output is information about the feasibility of such an organization or such a technology for treatment. This feasibility information affects an environmental element labeled "the body of knowledge," thereby enabling decision makers to make more rational decisions about the capabilities of such technologies or organizational forms.

- Satisfaction Outputs

Satisfaction outputs feedback to the maintenance sub-system of the organization. They include intra-organizational coordination, bargaining and conflict resolution. The impact of such feedback would be the increased ability of the organization to sustain the level of human service delivery. For example, a police narcotics squad becomes satisfied that refraining from arresting certain classes of drug users and diverting them to a methadone program is a viable means of meeting its goal of alleviating drug problems.

- Development Outputs

Development outputs take the form of horizon-scanning, program planning, entrepreneurship, and improvisation conducted for relevant political elements. Such activities would result in the human services organization's gaining an increased ability to deal with the changing manifestations of social problems. For example, an adolescent counselling service organization discovers in the course of its operations that immediate care for runaways should be backed up with therapy for the underlying problems that led to flight.

Organizational Effectiveness

Based on the general systems model as applied in our conceptualization, the explicit definition of organizational effectiveness becomes the summation of environmental impacts attributable to organizational outputs. An organization's effectiveness should be determined by assessing impact on the target population, the body of knowledge, and relevant political elements.

THE SUPER SYSTEM CONCEPT

By extension, the outputs must be evaluated in the larger context of the community's human services network. A characteristic of general systems is that any given system is composed of sub-systems and at the same time is a component in some super-system (Katz and Kahn, 1966). The super-system for a human services organization can be taken as the complex of organizations who have as all or part of their purpose to alleviate a given social ill, or who deal with a common target population. For example, one can conceive of a super-system of drug-related service organizations, including hospitals, counselling agencies, police units, etc. Likewise, there are usually many agencies and organizations in a community that give some form of service to alcoholics and their families.

There is a growing body of literature concerned with interorganizational relations (Litwak and Hylton, 1962; Marrett, 1971; Turk, 1973). A major emphasis of this literature is on the crucial importance of what are called boundary spanning activities that link the various organizations in a community with respect to a specifiable function. In consideration of this emphasis, the boundary sub-systems of human service organizations should be given increasing attention. Thus, the amount and quality of information exported to other organizations in the community network becomes a major element in the evaluation of an organization's productive outputs. Also, the demonstrated ability of the organization to input and process information from other organizations is directly related to the adequacy of its development outputs.

EVALUATION METHODOLOGY

As with most new fields of scientific enquiry, methodology lags conceptualization. In increasing level of difficulty, methodological problems exist in measuring productive, satisfaction, and development outputs.

Measuring Productive Outputs

For several decades, the measurement of the productive effectiveness for profit-making organizations has been simply to count the profits. Satisfaction and development, to the extent they are measured at all, ordinarily are questions of how long the profits have been made and their trend. There are a host of problems with this traditional approach to evaluation of profit-making organizations. These can be ignored in the present context, since human services organizations typically do not have the purpose of profit-making. Therefore, the "easy" evaluation methodology is not appropriate. The evaluation of the quantity and quality of a human service organization's productive outputs presents difficult, but usually not insurmountable, methodological problems.

Productive output evaluation typically involves:

- 1) interviews of present clients as to their perception of service adequacy (Ellsworth, 1970),
- 2) interviews of former clients,
- 3) interviews of service-delivery staff as to their perceptions of service adequacy,
- 4) evaluator (or where appropriate, expert panel) observations of level and quality of service delivery,
- 5) secondary analysis of service delivery records.

As to human services organization's effectiveness in supplying information to the community network, or super-system, sociometric techniques can be applied with some success. By way of illustration, a special police unit had the goals of becoming the central depository of drug activity intelligence information in its community and facilitating inter-agency flow of the information. We contacted key people (boundary spanners) in each agency linked in the drug super-system and asked them to name the three people in the community who were (1) their most likely sources of information about drug activity and (2) their most likely recipients of such information. The extent to which personnel in the special unit were named in answer to (1) operationalized the degree of goal achievement. Answers to (2) yielded data both as to goal achievement (were the boundary spanners in the community network actually depositing intelligence information?) and as to the input side of the system (were the depositors the appropriate ones to build up the file?).

Measuring Satisfaction Outputs

The same data sources used for productive outputs can usually be tapped to yield information about satisfaction outputs. For example, service delivery staff are interviewed to ascertain how much effort they expend in maintenance activities such as recruiting and training of new staff. Also, staff may be administered attitude questionnaires. Another key sub-evaluation technique might involve an assessment of the adequacy of the organization's administrative practices, which should result in the staff's being supplied with appropriate resources to maintain a reasonably steady level of operations.

Evaluation of satisfaction outputs is usually less straight-forward and reliable than evaluation of productive outputs. We have experienced some difficulty in persuading funding decision makers (1) that the methodology reliably and validly measures satisfaction and (2) that the effort is worthwhile. The second point has proved to be the more difficult, but we believe the general systems approach outlined above strongly implicates satisfaction outputs as equally important with productive outputs.

Here again sociometric techniques have been an effective way to support evaluation of human services organizations. For instance, a halfway house for runaway teenagers had to satisfy

several other agencies in the community that the facility was doing a competent job in order to insure a flow of clients. The question was one of whether or not the clients were perceived by the various boundary spanners to have received satisfactory service. Otherwise, the referral of clients would be stopped. In addition to asking boundary spanners in each of the other agencies in the community super-system to name the three people who were their most likely sources of information about dealing with teenage runaway problems, we asked them to (1) name the three most likely agencies to which they would refer runaways, (2) give us case history data on the last six referrals, and (3) tell us the most likely alternatives for any referrals actually sent to the agency under evaluation. We were then able to conduct what we call a network role analysis, which led to an authoritative statement as to the program's satisfying the goal of maintaining itself in its super-system.

Measuring Developmental Outputs

As to methodology for evaluating the effectiveness of a human services organization's developmental outputs, we have found it useful to conduct two sub-evaluations. The first involves an internal assessment of how quickly and appropriately the staff responds to changes in its environment. The second involves an assessment of the acceptability of information generated by the organization--the quality of its contributions to the community network and to the body of knowledge. Although there are substantial problems in operationalizing the first sub-evaluation, we shall focus again on the sociometric approach to the second.

A recent example can be found in an evaluation of a community-wide planning super-agency of alcoholism agencies. The super-agency's developmental goal was to create a linkage of direct service agencies. We went to a sample of alcoholism agencies in the community, some of whom had already accepted planning services from the super-agency and some who had not. Respondents were asked to "name three people in the community who are your most likely sources of technical information as to making appropriate referrals." We were able to construct base-line sociograms as to the exchange structure in the community network for two classes of information--technical and referral. We are now in a position to measure rather precisely what the impact of the super-agency will be in transmitting new information necessary to developing the network's capabilities to deal with alcoholism and related problems. Specifically, if the sample of agencies at time₁ still relies on the same interagency relationships for exchange as at time₀, the super-agency clearly would not be meeting its developmental goal.

SUMMARY

The nation retains a commitment to do something about social ills. We have moved, however, from an experimental phase, where programs were funded on promise, to an evaluation phase, where programs must prove they can cure ills in order to receive the most vital input of all, money. "Proof" must involve more than an expert's global assurances, but avoid the "classical experimental straight-jacket." The authors have suggested general systems theory as a framework to help administrators and funding decision makers realize that, in the long term, satisfaction and development outputs are equal in importance to productive outputs. Measuring outputs is a matter of assessing a system's environmental impacts. We have been able to apply sociometric techniques to measure each of the three classes of outputs.

It would be presumptuous on our part to say that sociometry is the final answer to the methodological problems of evaluating human services organizations. The organizations used as illustrations in this paper mainly had some degree of community integration in their goal structures. Sociometry is most applicable in these cases. Integration is often only an implicit part of an organization's goal structure. In these cases, sociometry may be perceived by funding decision makers and administrators as of secondary importance to more direct measures of productive outputs.

We re-emphasize, however, that where the importance of integration into a super system can be demonstrated, sociometry can provide flexible and convincing tools of measurement. In summary, if you want to know how well a given human services organization is meeting its goals, the boundary spanners in that organization's super-system are excellent data sources.

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VOLUNTEERS AND THE QUESTION OF AUTHORITY

It is not unusual for lower participants in complex organizations to assume and wield considerable power and influence not associated with their formally defined positions within these organizations. In sociological terms they have considerable personal power but no authority. . . The personal power achieved by these lower participants does not necessarily result from unique personal characteristics, although these may be relevant, but results rather from particular aspects of their location within their organizations. (Mechanic, 1968)

Contemporary social service delivery agencies have overwhelmingly embraced citizen volunteers in the last five years. This fantastic upsurge in voluntarism has been encouraged in order to meet the manpower shortages and lack of resources facing these agencies in recent times. However, with the influx of "free" manpower has come a host of other problems not foreseen by the promoters of the volunteer concept. The most important of these problems is the fact that social service agencies are unsure of what real authority they have over their own volunteers.

No one would quarrel that most social service agencies are indeed complex formal organizations. Equally true is the fact that volunteers are the "lower participants" in these organizations. The problem at hand, however, is the question of authority. The great majority of social agencies which have embarked on voluntarism have done so in a very haphazard, poorly planned manner without clearly defining the role of the volunteers; particularly their status and authority-relationships within the organization.

Daniel Katz and Robert L. Kahn define authority in the following way: "By authority we mean simply legitimate power, power which is recognized as so vested, and which is accepted as appropriate not only by the wielder of power but by those over whom it is wielded and by other members of the system" (1966 p.203). Cyril J. O'Donnell defines authority as ". . . the right to command or act. It implies the possession of the power to coerce, for

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obviously if there were no way to enforce an order the enterprise would become disorganized and unable to achieve its purpose" (Hampton, Summer and Webber, 19 p.466). Chester I. Barnard (1956 p.163) defines authority as ". . . the character of a communication (order) in a formal organization by virtue of which it is accepted by a contributor to or 'member' of the organization as governing the action he contributes; that is, as governing or determining what he does or is not to do so far as the organization is concerned."

The authority relationship between agency personnel and volunteers is particularly complicated for the following reasons: 1) the nature of voluntarism has changed significantly in the last ten years, 2) the role and status of the volunteer are almost never clearly defined within the agency or to the volunteer, 3) volunteers are not provided monetary rewards, and 4) volunteers frequently clash with stated agency goals and procedures and become advocates for their direct-service clients.

Voluntarism, since the early 1960's, has changed radically. Gone are the days of the "Lady Bountifuls" bringing Christmas baskets to the "poor and needy." Today's volunteer is involved in a committed direct-service capacity delivering the service of the agency. The question of authority thus becomes critical. This situation is exemplified in the Court Volunteer Movement in which volunteers most frequently serve as Volunteer Probation Officers. Since social service agencies, and, in the example, courts, recruit volunteers to provide actual agency services, the question of authority assumes much greater importance now than in times past.

The question of authority is clearly critical and most observers would imagine that the authority both for and of the volunteer would be obvious. However, this is totally false. The role of the volunteer is usually never adequately defined. Frequently the volunteer is given a job title, but rarely is he given an actual job description. Volunteer programs are usually begun because of an agency person's vague idea of saving money and yet increasing services. It is easy to jump on a bandwagon and this is exactly what most social service

agencies have done in the volunteer arena.

Many volunteer programs fail because the agency involved simply does not adhere to basic proven personnel policies. A reference has already been made to the usual situation of the lack of a job description. This situation is, on many occasions, compounded by the failure on the part of the agency to provide the volunteer with an adequate orientation to the agency and its goals. Furthermore, the volunteer never receives the amount and quality of training that would be provided for a paid staff member who is being trained to provide the same service as the volunteer.

Social service agencies fail most clearly in the realm of their authority over their volunteers by often not providing a supervisor or for supervision in any way. This statement undoubtedly sounds absurd, and yet, in many cases it is an actual fact. Social service agencies jump on the volunteer bandwagon without looking to see which way it is heading and after they are on it, they exercise little effort to direct it towards their goals through the provision of adequate supervision.

Mason Haire has said (1969 p.498) that "Pay, in one form or another, is certainly one of the mainsprings of motivation in our society. The drive for private money gain--the profit motive--provides the main ideological cleavage in the world today. Deep down, everyone assumes that we mostly work for money." The fact that volunteers do not receive monetary compensation influences greatly the agency's conception of its authority over the volunteer. In fact, the lack of financial outlay by the agency is the sole reason for the haphazard method in which most volunteer programs are conceived, planned and implemented. The single, most glaring mistake made by virtually all social service agencies is their failure to regard volunteers as nonpaid staff members. It is inconceivable that any public or private organization would hire an employee without providing that employee with an adequate job description, orientation to the agency, training and supervision. And yet, because volunteers are not paid they rarely achieve the status of paid employees and what would be normal job preparation, training and supervision for the paid employee is usually denied the volunteer.

Pay however goes beyond the distinctions which have just been elaborated. Haire continues by saying that ". . . pay is the most important single motivator used in our organized society" (1969 p.498). There are few people who would disagree strongly with this statement. However, the fact that volunteers are not paid is the single most important reason for the existing confusion in many agencies regarding their authority over their volunteers. Because volunteers are not paid, agencies frequently assume a benevolent attitude towards volunteers. The volunteer, the agency feels, is obviously motivated by altruistic goals, and hence, the agency tends to overlook the inadequacies of volunteers that would not be countenanced in paid staff members. Agency personnel simply fail to realize that their authority is real

and that because the volunteer is not paid it does not mean that he cannot be corrected and guided towards a better performance. When the agency does not assume its rightful authority over the volunteer there are two possible outcomes. First, the volunteer, through lack of guidance or a clear idea of function, becomes frustrated and soon ceases to volunteer. Or second, the volunteer defines his own role within the agency and, in doing so, assumes more personal power over his functions and actions than would normally be permitted to a "lower participant" holding a paid position.

The question of agency authority is also brought out by the fact that volunteers frequently openly disagree with stated agency policy and become advocates for their direct-service clients against the agency. David Mechanic says that ". . . higher supervisory personnel may be isolated from the task activities of lower participants, they maintain access to them through formally established intermediary positions and exercise control through intermediary participants" (1968 p.426). However, this is rarely true of social service agencies using volunteers. Volunteers are frequently able to get involved in their volunteer service to a much greater extent than most agency personnel realize. This allows the volunteer to develop human relationships with clients and then to advocate their cause to the agency.

Marjorie H. Buckholz, in her study, "Volunteers and Agency Staff: Their Different Roles in Policy-Making Bodies," states this problem clearly. She says: ". . . the citizen volunteer seems more likely to identify the needs of the people whom he knows and to become an advocate for change and bringing to bear new resources, using the strategies of bargaining and confrontation" (1972 p.25).

Ms. Buckholz further states:

With the increasing presence of citizen volunteers in a group, both the proportion of total decisions they specifically initiated and the proportion of total decisions which called for external resources (and major functional change) increased. When welfare, health, and educational agency staff were dominant within the group membership, the proportion of volunteer-initiated decisions decreased and the proportion of decisions calling for major changes and external resources decreased. (1972, p.24)

In conclusion, then, many social service agencies are faced with the dilemma of not knowing what authority they really have over volunteers which they have recruited and, therefore, legitimized. Two of the three definitions of authority quoted earlier state clearly that authority, to be legitimate, must be recognized as such by the person whose actions are governed by the authority. The third definition indicates that authority is the power to coerce. The fact remains, however, that many social service agencies abdicate

their real authority by their failure to recognize the volunteer as a nonpaid staff member. The single most crucial problem facing the future of agency voluntarism is this simple fact. If agencies recognized volunteers truly as nonpaid staff members, volunteers, in turn, would recognize more clearly and more positively the agency's authority over their actions.

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DESCRIPTION OF A CMHC VOLUNTEER TRAINING PROGRAM



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A good volunteer program puts the "Community" in a Community Mental Health Center.

Such a program completes the mental health team by involving the citizens of the community in the direct and indirect services of a Center. It also provides a grass roots network for attacking the myths of mental illness, and is an extremely valuable avenue for Community Education. Because of the far reaching effects, it is essential that the training program for volunteers be well planned and carefully integrated into the total education program of a Center.

Bread and Butter Approach

Some may feel that the points we outline are too basic, almost simplistic. There may be an "anyone should know that" reaction. Others, however, have commented to us that they appreciated the common-sense approach that dealt with bread and butter details and provided a checklist as they did, indeed, think through the development of their own program. We do not deal with the philosophy of such programs but, rather in cookbook style, the one, two, three -- the "how to" of implementing a program.

A Basic Formula

Any program, we felt, to be successful should be relevant, simply stated, and painless ($r + ss + p = S$).

People need to know what job they will be performing, how that job fits into the total operation of the organization, and how the material in the training program relates to that job. In other words, there must be a base point in order to measure relevance. The material of the training course should be stated in clear, direct language (skip the jargon), and even have a little fun in the process.

We tried to remember that our volunteers had come to us with good intentions of giving, and we didn't want to complicate things so that they would go away sorry for even having offered. Still, there were some rather specific things we wanted our volunteers to know since

they would be spokesmen in the community. The challenge was to keep the volunteer involved and enthusiastic and we knew it could be a fine line from feeling overwhelmed and discouraged, if we were too heavy-handed.

Job Description Booklet

Our Job Descriptions for Volunteers was an attempt to get organized and save our interviewer's time. We had not anticipated how very valuable that booklet would be and how enthusiastically received.

In order to effectively plan, we felt that we would have to be very specific about what jobs there were to be done. We also felt it important to state what times those jobs needed to be done and if any special qualifications were needed. If we clearly spelled out our expectations, we felt it increased the chances for someone to meet those expectations. Being vague serves no purpose at all, yet all too often this is exactly what happens, either because the person asking doesn't know what he wants done, or thinks it's too much to ask. Once we were able to get our staff to risk being specific and to remove the feeling that someone would think it right or wrong, we were in business.

For example, we would go round and round on such things as setting hours for the volunteer programs. When we stated the Day Reception Desk hours would be from 2:00 P.M. to 6:00 P.M. comments were that we would never get anyone for those "over dinner hours." Similar negative reactions related to Inpatient Activities Aides for Saturday mornings 9:00 to 12:00 noon because "that was a very busy day for most people." A full day weekly commitment for a Day Center Aide assignment elicited a dubious "who could give that much time anyway." It became obvious that the thinking was that only one kind of person volunteered and that was a middle-class mother with children whose primary responsibilities tied her to the kitchen and the nursery. Our stance was that the program needs should be clearly defined and firm, and then all interested people given the option of deciding whether or not

Figure 1: Excerpt from Job Descriptions for Volunteers

NIGHT EMERGENCY AND RECEPTION DESK

Times: 6:00 - 10:00 PM Daily
 12:30 - 4:00 PM Saturdays and Sundays

Commitment: Once a week for an entire 4 hour shift preferred. Every other week possible.

Location: CMHC Building Waiting Room

Direct Patient Contact: Yes

Volunteers who work Emergency are assigned to the therapist on duty. They answer the phone and take messages, channel calls, deliver admittance slips to the Admissions Office, or after a certain time, to Medical Emergency. They accompany patients who are admitted to the Inpatient Unit and do anything else that will help the therapist. They must be able to handle walk-ins, people who may be confused or upset. They will assist waiting families and also supervise the activities of children who are in the area. Volunteers are especially needed on the weekends.

they could fill the requirements. You simply couldn't run a program by panicking and shifting hours to suit each volunteer, any more than you would if hiring paid staff. Since we had many different programs with different time requirements this allowed for choice.

This booklet turned out to be an excellent tool for recruitment and for self-evaluation and placement. People can and will assess themselves quite accurately, if given the accepting atmosphere, information and opportunity to do so.

The format we used is easily adaptable to any organization in that it has allowed for easy additions, deletions, or changes for us, even in the short time we have used it. (See Figure 1).

Goals and Objectives

We preceded our statement of goals with a brief introductory paragraph which welcomed our volunteers to our team. It expressed appreciation for the interest shown in our program and in the willingness to give time and energy to participate. We hoped they would receive some measure of personal satisfaction from the involvement and find the experience an interesting and challenging one.

We noted that there would be questions regarding the Center and its programs and concerns regarding their roles as members of the Mental Health team. The training program was planned to give the volunteer the opportunity to ask those questions and get some answers.

It was emphasized that this program took into consideration the capacities and strengths the volunteer brings -- personal aptitudes and interests, as well as warmth and concern for people. It also demonstrated our commitment

to the value of continuing education as a method for bringing about increased confidence and comfort in giving service in a Community Mental Health Center.

We had three goals. They were:

- 1) to orient the volunteer to the Center and its programs and its philosophy of service delivery;
- 2) to give some understanding of mental illness and the behaviors common to it;
- 3) to develop intervention skills helpful in working with people with emotional problems.

By the end of the training program, if we were successful in fulfilling our objectives, the volunteer should be able to:

- 1) describe in general terms the overall goals of the Mental Health Center and the services it offers to the community;
- 2) identify key personnel at the Center and their roles, and to describe the interdisciplinary nature of the Center's operation;
- 3) dispel some of the common myths surrounding mental illness and be an advocate of programs in the community by using knowledge of current treatment methods and services for people with emotional problems;
- 4) define and describe the goals of the volunteer program, the volunteer's specific role in that program, and relate these to the over-all mental health program;
- 5) define in an operational way what is meant by the term "mental illness" in relation to general well-being and the capacity to adapt and to cope with the problems of every day living;
- 6) define in a general way what is meant by the term "crisis";

- 7) define and describe the legal rights of patients regarding incarceration and confidentiality;
- 8) describe and demonstrate acceptable methods of dealing with certain common behavior patterns, such as crying, confusion, hostility, aggressiveness, restlessness, suspiciousness and "crazy behavior";
- 9) relate to patients, staff and visitors in a manner that is helpful, natural and comfortable;
- 10) observe patient confidentiality at all times;
- 11) participate in discussion groups to explore values, attitudes and changes within the volunteer;
- 12) participate in self-evaluation of job performance.

The Two Level Plan

The training program needed to meet two specific kinds of needs -- the immediate and the long-range.

We acted on all applications promptly so our volunteers were interviewed and assigned with as little delay as possible, hence very quickly working and feeling useful. We did not delay placement for training. Training began at the same time as placement and was in two parts.

To meet the immediate needs and to allow the volunteer to quickly feel comfortable on the job he was assigned to a supervisor who would give on-the-job instructions and he was required to attend one orientation session at which time a packet of carefully prepared written materials were reviewed. The packet included a booklet describing the Center and its Services and another cartoon publication, "What everyone should know about Mental Health." It had a map of the hospital complex, outline of the catchment areas, organizational chart. It included a statement of the objectives and goals of the training program, the nine monthly program topics for volunteer training, and a list of common jargon and abbreviations used in a Mental Health setting. It also contained color coded "Questions and Answers About CMHC" for each program.

The "Questions and Answers" included such things as, "Who makes up the Mental Health Team?" "Team?"; "What are volunteers called here?"; "What privileges do I have as a Volunteer?"; "Where do I park?"; "Where is the cafeteria-- what is the charge?"; "How do I enter the building--how do I leave?". It continued with, "Where do I check in--why is this necessary?"; "Whom shall I call if I cannot be on duty on my assigned day?"; "How can my babysitter or family member contact me in case of emergency?"; "How can you tell the patients from the staff?"; "What should I wear?"; and "How important is personal appearance?". More apprehensive questions were, "What do I do if a patient tells me he's going to do something bizzare, like kill himself, what do I do?"; "What do I do in case of fire?".

These were written as an assignment by volunteers who had worked in the area. The object was to gain their thinking and give the kind of information they wished they could have had their first day on the job. It was authentic.

The second level dealt with the long-range goals of enhancing the growth of the volunteer once on the job.

This was done by planning a series of monthly meetings geared particularly to volunteers but open to paid staff and students. We always respected our volunteers' very busy schedules. We planned ahead, gave ample notice so they, too, could plan, and avoided any unnecessary meetings. Always we had a planned agenda including time for discussion of specific problems. Training meetings were held in the evenings so that all our volunteers -- day, evening and weekend -- could plan to come, thus avoiding costly duplication of repeat sessions. Because of the regularity, we were able to readily schedule needed professional staff or students. The mixed participation was a learning experience in itself; it was an opportunity for interaction and breaking down biases by developing a dialogue. The second Monday of the month for three hours in the evening, October through June, was "Volunteer Night" for us, and people came to expect it and look forward to it.

Program of Monthly Sessions

We staged our program carefully. We wanted it so interesting that the volunteer wouldn't want to miss it. We didn't hesitate to pull out all the stops.

We used variety and humor, both in the content and in the method of presentation, and appealing titles. Our speakers were selected not only for their knowledge but for their showmanship qualities as well. How they projected became very important. We used people from the community, but took care to use our own staff talents as well. There were large group meetings for didactic presentations and small groups for discussion. There were actors, role playing, simulated games. We ran the full gamut of methods with no holed barred.

We carefully avoided talking "at" our volunteers and emphasized the importance of individual involvement. The personal exchange of experiences and feelings was essential to the success of the program. We encouraged people to share openly, and provided the climate of trust in which one could feel free to do this.

Evaluation was built into the system. A brief but pointed evaluation sheet asked if certain goals had been reached, following each session. The immediate feedback was important in order to keep a finger on the pulse of how things were going. At the end of the total course an examination was given to measure how well most people met the objectives.

The topics for the full training sessions were:

"Everything You Always Wanted to Know About Mental Illness, but Were Afraid to Ask"

What is Mental Illness? What is the cause? What are the warning signs? Can it be treated? Cured? What is neurosis? Psychosis? Why the persisting myths? What do we have to offer people wanting help here at the Center?

"A Plea for Help--How Do You Know?"

Suicide prevention workshop materials for those engaged in crisis intervention situations or settings. Information regarding the problem and techniques for actual intervention.

"A Case for Patient Rights--New Thinking and Direction"

What are the rights of persons to request or refuse service? What if the person is suicidal, what is society's responsibility to protect him? Can you hold someone against his will? What can families do if a person is dangerous to himself or others? What are a 48 hour and a five day hold? What is the difference between an admission and a commitment? What concerns do we have about confidentiality? What about the Volunteer and the things he sees and hears--what rules apply to him?

"Addictions--A Generational Problem? Techniques for Treatment"

Is it only the "turned on" generation that has had to deal with addictions? How do you recognize a drug reaction? What about the person who's been drinking, are there any dangers? How do you get information from these people? How do you give information, explore alternatives and solve problems? How important are your observations? Is empathy enough? What can the volunteer do?

"My God--What Do I do? He's Acting Crazy."

What do you do if. . . someone cries, is confused, gets angry, is agitated, is hearing things, is glassy-eyed, loses control, makes a pass, is obscene, or worse yet, doesn't talk to you? Any of these things can happen any place or any time, but when it's a Mental Health Center, why does it seem so different? Practical ways to handle situations.

"You Are the Patient --How Does it Feel?"

Pretend for a moment, you need help--how will you get it, where will you go, who will you call? You're in group therapy--family therapy--individual therapy--medication clinic. You need to be admitted. You have no money--what can you expect?

"Who's Sick--the Person, the Family or Society, and Who Takes Care of Them?"

What is the interdisciplinary approach? How do you decide who does what? What's the difference between psychiatrist, psychologist, social worker, nurse, rehabilitation counselor--they're all called therapists. How does a private psychiatrist work with a public agency? How is it all coordinated so the client doesn't feel lost? What about the child? When does he carry a symptom that may reflect the pain of the family?

"The Eagleton Affair"

A study of how a Community feels and reacts as it looks at mental illness--its attitudes and values. What about the different treatment methods. Do some carry prohibitive taboos? A simulated game.

"Everything You Always Wanted to Know About Mental Illness, but Were Afraid to Ask. . . Reviewed."

What have YOU gained? A chance to review, ask more questions, make comments and evaluate. A feedback and exchange session to let us know what was of value and what was not, or of what may have been lost. Suggestions on where we go for future training programs.

Summary

Training starts with a careful definition of jobs to be done and how they fit into the organizational scheme of things. Training begins simultaneously with placement.

The training program is designed to meet the immediate needs of the new volunteer on his job and focuses on questions and concerns regarding the setting and the task. This is handled primarily with a packet of written material presented and reviewed at an orientation session and with an assigned supervisor who gives on-the-job instruction.

It is also designed so that it expands on these immediate concerns and provides opportunity for growing with the job; and it extends to dealing with attitudes and values and specific intervention techniques for handling behavior. Through continuing education the volunteer gains increased confidence and comfort in being part of the Community Mental Health Center team.

The formula at each stage for measuring what should be added is--(r + ss + p = S)--is it relevant, is it simply stated, and is it presented in a painless way? Your volunteers will complete the formula by adding the big S--Success--with their attendance and support.

A PERSPECTIVE ON ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT: THE OPEN LINE PROJECT

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The Status of Organizational Development

Many consultants who do organizational development seem to be moving away from techniques focussing on interpersonal dynamics toward procedures drawn from open system and psychoanalytic theories. Articles written from this perspective begin by defining an organization as an open system, i.e. a system with permeable boundaries residing in a larger environment with which it must interact. A system is characterized as an independent set of activities and resources which is required to transform imported raw materials into a finished product or export (Miller and Rice, 1967). Successful consultation based on this model is contingent on careful examination of (a) the definition of primary and subsidiary tasks and task systems; (b) the structure of the organization, including delegated authority, lines of accountability, and areas of responsibility; (c) the location of boundaries in an organization between tasks and personnel; (d) activity and relationships between groups in the enterprise and with other systems outside the organization; and (e) the nature of leadership in the enterprise and the tendency of personnel to project fantasied feelings onto authority figures.

Consultation Based on Open System and Psychoanalytic Theories

Publications articulating methodologies for open system and psychoanalytically based consultation address two main aspects of the process: stages of consultation and role expectations for the consultant.

Stages of Consultation

The first stage is commonly described as entry in which a potential consultant attempts to establish relationships and determine if a viable contract can be negotiated. The actual negotiation of a contract, stage two, allows the organization and the consultant to clarify the role of the consultant through a formal or

informal agreement. In stage three, organizational diagnosis, the presenting problems of the enterprise are examined in the context of: (a) history of the enterprise; (b) structure of the organization; (c) production technology; and (d) organizational aspirations, leadership and competition among personnel (Dayal, 1968; Greneir, 1967; Levinson, 1972; Singer, 1972). The translation of assessment into plans for change and the summary of progress and project evaluation constitute stages four and five respectively.

Role of Consultant

Four interrelated aspects of consultantship deserve special consideration. First, although no standard preparation exists for consultants, the following qualifications may be deduced from articles discussing consultation: (a) clinical training as an asset to sophisticated diagnosis; (b) collective bargaining and intergroup relations as pertinent to contract negotiation; (c) interviewing and communication experience; (d) training in research and project evaluation; and (e) of course there is no substitute for previous experience and past successes.

Another important dimension of the consultant's role is the series of tasks that must be performed. These tasks are grouped into categories which overlap with the stages of consultation previously described: (a) gathering data through listening and observation; (b) promoting and mediating communication within the organization; (c) clarifying dimensions relevant to problems and separating out confusing aspects; (d) modeling the spirit of inquiry and open communication; (e) assisting in the development of problem solutions; and (f) developing mechanisms to summarize and evaluate progress, satisfaction and outcome (Dayal, 1968; Ferguson, 1968; MacDonald, 1971; Mannino, 1972; Sheldon, 1971).

Thirdly, the discretionary aspects of consultationship such as the timing and delivery of comments, suggestions, and interventions

remain largely unexamined in the literature. Consultants are left to rely on their previous training and trial and error to develop a functional style.

Finally, two special problems in consultation should be noted. Some organizational personnel commonly attempt to manipulate consultants into doing work more appropriately done by the staff of the enterprise. Consultants often fall into this trap, but, if alert, can avoid disaster by using the experience as data in the organizational diagnosis. The second problem pertains to the authority consultants represent in work with organizations, i.e. in their mantle of knowledge and their sanction to do work. The unspecified nature of this authority makes the consultant for projected hostility, suspicion, and resistance (Miller, 1974)

Consultation to a New Volunteer Organization in Crisis

A consultation project will be presented in which the previously described framework was implemented with a new organization, staffed by volunteers which was experiencing much internal confusion. Some of the salient features of such organizations will be examined in the narrative of the project and in the discussion.

Open Line is a telephone listening and referral service which began operation in June of 1970 under the sponsorship of a Hamden, Connecticut civic organization. Open Line utilizes a completely volunteer staff of youth and adults and was initially governed by a fifteen member board of directors elected from the membership-at-large.

In the spring of 1972 representatives of the Open Line board formally requested professional assistance from the staff of the Hamden Mental Health Service (HMHS), a town-sponsored community mental health clinic specializing in both direct treatment and consultation. Three presenting problems were described by the Open Line Group: (a) there was a strong disagreement in the organization about whether the board or the trainers of volunteers had ultimate authority over telephone policies; (b) as a result of the friction the trainers had unanimously agreed to resign; and (c) there was insufficient manpower to staff the phones due to the absence of trainers to prepare new volunteers, the usual attrition rate, and other confusion within the system. At this first meeting, which constitutes the point of entry, the board members requested HMHS to assume the role of trainers and to assist in recruiting new volunteers.

After extensive discussion HMHS representatives declined the invitation because the difficulties described seemed to be a function of lack of clarity about task, structure, and internal functioning. These reasons were explained to the board members and an alternative proposal for consultation was presented suggesting that HMHS provide two consultants (the authors) to work with a group of Open Line board members in reviewing the history,

task systems, and structure of the enterprise as they pertained to the presenting problems (contract negotiation). The offer was accepted and six two-hour meetings were scheduled.

Sessions one and two were spent discussing and drafting an agreeable statement of the primary and subsidiary tasks of the organization. Ultimately, three primary tasks were defined: (a) to provide a listening service for callers; (b) to provide growth opportunities for volunteers; and (c) to maintain an arena of successful cooperation between youth and adults in Hamden.

The third and fourth meetings were used to study the structure of the enterprise, the specific presenting problems and potential interventions. The primary structural problems identified were: (a) the cumbersome size of the board; (b) the election of volunteers to the board in general rather than to specific positions; (c) the vague job descriptions with no provision for performance evaluation; and (d) the disproportionate amount of responsibility delegated to the only appointed member of the board--the director of training.

Consultants and board members subsequently examined the relationship between the basic organizational flaws and the presenting problems (organizational diagnosis). Consultants then assisted board members in translating the assessment into plans for action.

Board members had taken primary responsibility for action throughout the project and now proposed several tasks for action: clarify constitution and by-laws in light of new knowledge about tasks, prepare a simplified chart of administrative organization, devise specific job descriptions, and prepare the remaining board members and the membership-at-large to receive and adopt the recommendations.

The consultants and the subcommittee met with the entire board of directors and the full membership during sessions five and six respectively. All recommendations were accepted by both groups and implemented through the election of new personnel to the remodeled board of directors. This changeover in personnel plus the clarified lines of authority led to an expressed desire to reestablish cooperative relations between board members and the volunteers who formerly occupied the role of trainers.

A three month follow-up meeting with the new executive director revealed that the new board had been extremely functional in completing work tasks since its size had been reduced from 15 to seven. New and more specific job descriptions and provisions for performance evaluation had also been widely used and helpful. In addition, two trainers had reassumed their former roles and redesigned the training curriculum into a more efficient procedure. The shortage of manpower still seemed somewhat problematic but those who were working were regular and dependable.

Discussion

Several summary statements may be helpful in clarifying the relationship between the

literature review and the Open Line Project.

1) It seems feasible to use the open system and psychoanalytically based framework to address problems which are primarily presented as interpersonal difficulties.

2) On-going discussion within the consultant team proved useful in restricting consultant roles to those agreed upon in the contract.

3) Stylistic elements seem to be neglected in the literature and consultants in the Open Line Project were left largely to their previous clinical training for assistance in choosing intervention strategies.

4) In the organizational diagnosis phase, Open Line volunteers were required to do much of the work. This established the precedent of the clients doing much of the work needed to rectify problem conditions.

5) Several characteristics of new volunteer organizations in crisis are noteworthy as they contributed to this project.

a. In early sessions, Open Line as a para-professional mental health resource was apprehensive about losing its autonomy by receiving consultation from a professional service, HMHS.

b. Attrition has always been problematic for volunteer organizations and was present even in the subcommittee which received the consultation input.

c. Open Line, like most new organizations, had to create job descriptions from inexperience and made no provision for evaluation.

d. As an organization in crisis, Open Line attempted to pressure consultants into attending to presenting rather than underlying structural problems.

Perhaps the most noteworthy aspects of this consultation relationship were: (a) the ability of volunteers to use new knowledge in autonomous work efforts, in part related to the framework in which consultation was conducted; (b) the continued absence of systematic attempts to evaluate consultation outcome; and (c) the importance of contract negotiation.

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VOLUNTEER PROGRAM UTILIZING COLLEGE STUDENTS



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One of the most rapidly emerging social trends, and one of much concern to adults, is the tendency for youth to take over the direction of their own education and socialization process. Perhaps this movement is an expression of disappointment in the lack of relevant guidance rather than a direct rejection of adults. Supporting this premise is the enthusiasm with which youth respond to invitations to deal responsibly with local and national problems, such as political elections, preservation of the environment and civil rights. They eagerly become involved in religious areas, express themselves distinctively in dress, hair styles, music, art, dance and serve conspicuously in social movements. The positive implementation of these opportunities enriches our total cultural life.

The negative connotation, the alienation, the distrust in youth's ability to self-socialize are often flaunted by "doing our own thing" and are viewed by adults as rebellion. These negative forces attract attention and point to an insurmountable impasse between generations, but perceptive adults who invest themselves in seeking an answer can visualize a pattern of hope. The sensitive adults are winning the acceptance of youth through receptive listening and meaningful dialogue. There is a trend which indicates the maturing youth are seeking consultation of professionals to aid in developing their resources, skills, energies, enthusiasm and talents to fit them for healthy functioning in society, for it is society which will ultimately benefit. The youth are in critical need of the problem-solving expertise, of the sound stable thinking and listening of skilled professionals who will serve as emulating models.

In adhering to the above concepts and in keeping with the policy of Veterans Administration that volunteers enhance the morale and well being of its patients, a stimulating and rewarding program of using college students as volunteers has been developed by the Social Work Service of Veterans Administration Center, Jackson, Mississippi. The program has evolved into two facets, community oriented and agency based. In the community area, students visit

veterans placed in community nursing homes by Social Work Service staff; whereas, the agency based level involves the use of college students in a career internship.

Community Program:

In October, 1970, a proposal was made to the undergraduate class of social work in the Sociology Department of Mississippi College, a church related school located on the periphery of the greater Jackson area, that students volunteer to visit regularly the veterans placed in nursing homes in the Jackson-Clinton area. Goals and ground rules were mutually formulated, with students being allowed and encouraged to participate. The goals included: performing a service to a chronically ill and/or a geriatric individual; learning the dynamics and attributes of the aged, of the chronically ill person; contributing fruitfully to a community, human-service oriented agency; learning the broad and general policies and operations of a community nursing home and of a bureaucratic public agency; acquiring general knowledge of the profession of social work to assist in career selection.

During the academic year 1970-71, twelve students spent 162 hours in visiting eleven patients in four nursing homes. By and large, students paired in their visiting arrangements, but on occasion a student developed an individual plan, particularly in the case of special needs of either the patient or student. Monthly evaluation conferences were held by the Volunteer Coordinator for feedback, help in conceptualizing experiences, handling problems, and for further planning.

The mutually gratifying experience motivated expansion of the program, when in the fall of 1971 a similar arrangement was put into effect with the Sociology Department of the University of Southern Mississippi, Hattiesburg, Miss. This school was logical for participation as there is a heavy concentration of veterans in nursing homes in that area, placements being made by the Social Work Service staffs of Veterans Administration Centers of Biloxi, Miss., and Jackson, Miss. To date, 29 students

have been involved in visiting a total of 25 veterans in two nursing homes.

Compatible with the concept that a successful program remains so only with continuous stimulation, plans are currently being formulated to broaden the community program to include other colleges in the area adjacent to the Jackson VA Center, with potential outreach into all areas of the state. Implementation of the expansion plan will require the assistance of other Social Work Service staff members, logically the outpatient field workers. Thus, another positive return from the program takes the form of staff development.

Agency Based Program

In October, 1970, Social Work Service was approached by the Director of the Sociology Department of Tougaloo College, a predominantly black private school geographically located near the Jackson area, asking that students be accepted during an inter-semester for career orientation. Since this school does not have an undergraduate social work sequence as approved by the Council on Social Work Education, clearance was obtained from Management to accept the students as volunteers. In January, 1971, three students engaged in 120 hours of activity in the Social Work Service, supervised by two staff members on Psychiatry Service. During the fall semester, two other students spent one-half day each week for six consecutive weeks. The latter schedule was obviously less rewarding than the former because of the lack of continuity of time allowing for a variety of experiences. However, the plan set a precedent which has continued for this school and which in the fall of 1972 enlarged to include career internships for selected students from the Sociology and Psychology Departments of Millsaps College, a church affiliated school situated in Jackson.

Specific goals and educational objectives are provided by the respective schools, with special emphasis being placed upon the application of classroom theory to life situations in community agencies. The student is expected to identify the role of the social worker and of other disciplines who participate in the treatment of patients. The ultimate purpose of participation in the internship is to provide the student with direction in choosing a professional career which is human service oriented. The students during the 1972-73 term spend 10 hours weekly at the agency and in turn receive three semester hours of academic credit.

During the fall semester, 1972-73, there were two Millsaps students and one from Tougaloo, supervised by three social work staff on Psychiatry Service. At the beginning of the spring semester, the number doubled from each school and three more staff members became their supervisors. In addition, three graduate students from Louisiana State University School of Social Welfare are affiliated with the volunteer students in a supervisory role with consultation being offered by the staff member--as an innovative experience offered the graduate students in their

block field placement. The volunteers begin with broad observations of the varied programs in the agency and gradually progress into experiences and activities commensurate with their capacity and motivation. Staff supervisors prepare evaluations of the students for the schools and the students evaluate their placement experience, both for the schools and the agency.

Known tangible results of the career oriented program reflect one student from Tougaloo enrolled in graduate school of social work, two students employed in social agencies, one Millsaps student hired by the Psychology Service of the VA Center as research assistant and two others being considered for employment, with still another student making definitive plans to enter graduate school in fall 1973. As for advantages to the agency, staff members are gaining experience in supervising students, relationships and community ties are being strengthened, and hopefully the concept of positive modeling in the education and socialization process with the young will have perpetuating dividends. This program also has the potential of expansion to include students from other colleges in the area and to involve staff social workers on Medical, Surgical and Admission Services. All volunteer activities are closely coordinated with the staff Social Work Service Educator and are in keeping with the philosophy and the climate of a teaching hospital affiliated with a medical school. Also, the students are duly enrolled in the VA Volunteer Service, their hours are kept and reported, and they are accorded all the privileges of any hospital volunteer.

Recommendations for Students in a Volunteer Program

Some general recommendations might be made from the vantage point of having coordinating a three year program which has had many and varied rewards.

- 1) Students respond to the opportunity to participate in problem solving and significant decision making.
- 2) The placement of a student in an assignment should relate to his preference as well as to his particular needs, interests and motivations.
- 3) Student experience should represent continuing opportunities to learn and to grow.
- 4) The student schedule should represent commitment but also should provide flexibility for variations in time, interest, and academic responsibilities.
- 5) The assignments inside or outside the agency should include opportunity for the student's evaluation of his goals and for change in future goals as he becomes more experienced.
- 6) The student should be allowed to advance progressively in levels of responsibility, skill, learning, experience and professionalism.
- 7) There should be provisions for regular evaluations from supervisors and for supportive feedback from co-workers, professional leadership

and for recognition from the agency and community. Also, students should evaluate their own experiences for self and agency appraisal.

Summary

In keeping with the concept that youth is searching for positive leadership from professionals and in adhering to the policy of the Veterans Administration that volunteers enhance the morale and well being of its patients, Social Work Service of Veterans Administration Center, Jackson, Mississippi, has developed a volunteer program utilizing college students. The students participate both in the community and in the agency under the supervision of staff members. The results of this three year plan have been mutually rewarding through meeting the goals of the schools and the agency which include aid in selecting careers, strengthening community relationships, developing staff, and in providing a unique service to veterans.

VALIDATION OF A SELECTION DEVICE FOR VOLUNTEER PROBATION OFFICERS

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Introduction

One extremely important yet grossly neglected area of research on volunteerism relates to the development and validation of instruments useful in distinguishing and selecting potentially "successful" from potentially "unsuccessful" volunteers. The present study is concerned with the evaluation and validation of one such instrument recently developed at the Oakland County Juvenile Court in Pontiac, Michigan.

Early in 1971 the Oakland County Juvenile Court was awarded a federal grant from the Law Enforcement Assistance Administration to develop and expand its already existing Volunteer Case Aide Program. Basically, the program entailed the recruiting of community volunteers to work on a one-to-one counseling basis with delinquent and neglected Juvenile Court wards. The secondary goal of the Oakland County Volunteer Case Aide staff was to develop an instrument that would ultimately be capable of assessing and predicting the potential competency of the volunteer.

In carrying out this second objective, it was first hypothesized that the general competency of the volunteer could be assayed and predicted by analyzing the continuous decision-making process occurring in the volunteer-youngster relationship. An attempt was then made to replicate the decision-making process in a pencil and paper instrument by employing the critical incident technique developed by Flanagan (1954).

The critical incident technique does not provide solutions. On the contrary, it obtains a record of certain behavior. In the Oakland County study, the specific behavior analyzed was the volunteers' verbalizations of their counseling experience with adolescents.

More specifically, the Oakland County research staff brought small groups of volunteers together to discuss the relationship with their assigned adolescents. These focus panel sessions were loosely structured with volunteers being asked to discuss such topics as:

1) Situations or events in the relationship with their assigned child where things went extremely well; and

2) Situations or events in the relationship where things went extremely poorly.

Volunteers were asked to go into considerable detail on these and other similar topics, describing the exact situation, indicating what was said, what was done, how they felt about what was said and done, and what might have been said and done differently. Each of these sessions was taped and the volunteers' verbalizations of their counseling experiences were analyzed in detail. As a result of these small group sessions, an initial sample of 51 "items" was generated, developed and edited. Each item represented a relatively typical critical incident situation which mirrored a problem occurring in the client-volunteer relationship. The reader would then be asked to select one of four plausible alternative solutions to the problems presented. Below is an example of a typical item:

Your youngster, a 15-year-old girl (already on probation for truancy), is in a court detention facility as a result of being truant from home over the holidays. You have worked with her for several months previous to the truancy but she never initiated a contact. Today you receive a call from her. She says she has run away from the court facilities. She pauses, and then tells you that she just can't say what is on her mind. How do you respond?

a. You tell her you can't help her much if she continues such maladaptive behavior and urge her to turn herself in;

b. You ask her where she is and, if she will give you a chance, pick her up and talk with her about what she should do with her truancy situation;

c. You try to find out where she is and then tell the police to pick her up; or

d. You discuss with her over the phone the probable consequences of running away from the county facilities and the options now open to her. You also encourage her to think it out carefully and decide what is best for her.

The next problem which confronted the Oakland County project staff was the determination of a scoring procedure for the 51 items and a preliminary indication of the usefulness of the items. Because of criterion problems in relation to measurement of successful casework outcomes, an indirect measure of success was devised.¹ In the words of the Project Director, Dr. Richard Traitel (1972):

"A procedure had to be devised whereby we could determine what the 'correct' alternative to each situation was and if a sufficient number of the appropriate respondents to that situation agree on a 'correct' answer. We had here the problem of determining a preliminary criterion group for the instrument, and an obvious choice for a group would have been 'successful' volunteer; their answers in agreement would reflect the competency factor which we are interested in measuring. Unfortunately, there seems to be no acceptable direct way to measure 'successful;' no single objective criterion for this concept. Therefore, another tack was taken. It was assumed that an indirect reflection of this competency and success would be the variable of 'experience' as a volunteer. The more successful and competent volunteer is likely to be more experienced."

Therefore, the Oakland County staff randomly selected a criterion group of volunteers from a pool of active volunteers with at least six months experience working with youngsters in the program. This group was composed of sixteen males and twenty-five females, with a mean age of 37 years and a mean educational level of 15 years of school. The group was then administered the 51 items previously described. Analyses were then performed on the frequency of selection for each of the four alternatives per item. As a result of this analysis, 32 items were generated for which the criterion group agreed upon a particular alternative beyond the chance level. These 32 items were allotted to parallel forms of 16 items each; the forms being further matched on relevant situational variables.

The purpose of the present investigation is to broaden the scope of validation of the Critical Incident Response Test by collecting response data on the instrument through its administration to a group of student volunteers presently involved in a federally funded (L.E.A.A.) Companion Counseling Program at the Wayne County Juvenile Court in Detroit, Michigan. Similar to the Oakland County Volunteer Case-Aide Program, volunteers in the Wayne County project worked with delinquent youth on a one-to-one counseling basis. However, all volunteers in the Wayne County program were students receiving academic credit for their involvement from Wayne State University and Wayne County Community College. Using this group of college student volunteers, this study was concerned with the following areas of investigation:

1) To determine the validity of the Critical Incident Response Test for a sample of experienced student volunteers in the Companion Counseling Program at the Wayne County Juvenile Court;

2) To investigate the potential differences in response pattern for items of the Critical Incident Response Test between experienced and inexperienced student volunteers;

3) To determine the nature of the total scoring differences on the Critical Incident Response Test between experienced and inexperienced student volunteers; and

4) To determine whether or not separating the experienced volunteer group into black and white sub-groups had any effect on the mean scoring differences on the Critical Incident Response Test and to determine the nature of this potential effect.

Population

The total sample of student volunteers was made up of 82 undergraduate students from Wayne State University and Wayne County Community College. There were equal numbers of experienced (N=41) and inexperienced (N=41) volunteers. A description of the total sample of experienced and inexperienced volunteers on age, sex, race, school and experience is presented in Table 1.

The group of experienced student volunteers tended to be younger, have more years in school and have more black students and more females than the inexperienced student group.

A comparison of black and white experienced volunteers is presented in Table 2 for the variables of age, sex, school, education and experience. While both groups had an equal amount of counseling experience, the black student volunteers were somewhat older and had one less year of college. There was a slightly higher percentage of males in the white volunteer group.

Method

In January, 1972, both forms of the Critical Incident Response Test were administered to the inexperienced student volunteer group during the first class session of the winter semester. These students had been recruited for the Companion Counseling Program but had received no orientation or training prior to the administration of the CIRT.

The experienced student volunteer group was administered the CIRT in March, 1972, after completing four and a half months of involvement in classroom lectures, counseling and contact with their assigned adolescents.²

Procedure

The frequency of response for the four possible alternatives for each item of the CIRT was computed for the total experienced group and again for the total inexperienced volunteer group. Chi square tests were then

Table 4: Chi Square and Significance Levels for Critical Incidence Response Test Items (Inexperienced Group)

Item	a	b	c	d	N	χ^2	P
1	9	18	12	5	44	8.1	.05
*2	0	0	3	41	44	109.0	.01
*3	0	0	30	13	44	55.0	.01
*4	0	37	7	0	44	78.4	.01
*5	1	41	0	2	44	103.0	.01
*6	0	0	10	34	44	70.2	.01
*7	27	3	5	9	44	32.7	.01
*8	1	2	14	27	44	40.5	.01
*9	0	19	25	0	44	45.6	.01
*10	23	6	1	14	44	25.3	.01
*11	4	3	30	7	44	44.5	.01
*12	3	31	3	7	44	49.4	.01
*13	4	5	0	35	44	72.9	.01
*14	1	0	27	16	44	45.6	.01
*15	3	0	8	33	44	61.6	.01
*16	4	4	32	4	44	53.4	.01
*17	9	5	1	28	45	39.0	.01
*18	2	9	22	5	38	23.4	.01
*19	4	1	4	29	38	51.4	.01
20	11	4	18	5	38	12.6	.01
*21	25	5	2	6	38	33.0	.01
22	5	14	15	4	38	10.2	.05
*23	3	21	12	2	38	23.8	.01
*24	0	13	24	1	38	38.6	.01
*25	22	5	1	10	38	25.0	.01
*26	2	4	7	25	38	33.4	.01
*27	9	27	0	2	38	45.4	.01
28	6	14	5	13	38	6.6	NS
29	0	18	4	16	38	23.6	.01
*30	31	3	1	5	40	59.6	.01
*31	1	30	3	7	41	55.8	.01
*32	0	15	21	2	38	31.0	.01

*These item alternatives were accepted as significant on the basis of at least 50% of the respondents choosing the particular alternative and a chi square $p < .01$.

Table 3: Chi Squares and Significance Levels for Critical Incident Response Test Items (Experienced Group)**

Item	a	b	c	d	N	χ^2	P
1	12	17	10	5	44	6.7	NS
*2	0	4	11	29	44	44.9	.01
*3	1	0	30	13	44	53.2	.01
*4	0	43	0	1	44	119.0	.01
*5	0	38	0	6	44	90.5	.01
*6	0	0	10	34	44	70.2	.01
*7	22	8	2	12	44	19.3	.01
*8	0	0	15	29	44	52.9	.01
*9	1	5	38	0	44	89.5	.01
10	17	6	6	15	44	9.3	.05
*11	5	2	33	4	44	57.5	.01
*12	1	32	2	9	44	55.3	.01
*13	2	5	4	33	44	57.5	.01
*14	1	1	24	18	44	38.0	.01
*15	2	0	1	41	44	109.0	.01
*16	5	0	34	5	44	65.6	.01
*17	8	1	1	35	45	71.0	.01
*18	4	5	31	5	45	48.5	.01
*19	1	0	3	46	50	121.0	.01
*20	7	8	27	4	46	27.8	.01
*21	24	1	13	7	45	28.2	.01
*22	1	29	10	5	45	43.8	.01
*23	0	30	3	8	41	51.6	.01
*24	1	18	26	1	46	46.9	.01
*25	31	7	0	7	45	51.6	.01
*26	2	6	7	30	45	45.6	.01
*27	12	25	0	8	45	29.7	.01
*28	2	18	7	14	41	17.0	.01
*29	1	29	4	12	46	46.3	.01
*30	37	4	1	2	44	82.4	.01
*31	0	28	1	16	45	46.9	.01
*32	0	17	27	1	45	49.5	.01

*These item alternatives were accepted as significant on the basis of at least 50% of the respondents choosing the particular alternative and a chi square $p < .01$.

**Ns vary from item to item because subjects were drawn from a larger group of fifty volunteers. The total sample of experienced volunteers (N=41) described in Table 1 are those who answered all test items with one choice for each item as instructed. Some students failed to answer all items, but did answer most of them. Therefore, some subjects were included in this item analysis, but not in the analysis of total mean scores.

computed for both groups on the frequency of selection of each of the four possible alternatives. The purpose of this computation was to determine those items which were answered in a non-chance fashion (i.e., other than equal distribution of choices across the four alternatives).

Two requirements had to be met before an item was judged significant: a significance level $<.01$ and a frequency of selection of the particular alternative greater than 50 percent.

Next, total scores for both forms A and B were computed for the experienced and inexperienced volunteer groups. Then, mean scores and standard deviations were computed for experienced and inexperienced sub-groups. T-tests were computed on the mean scoring differences between the experienced and inexperienced groups. This was done to determine the ability of the total scores on the Critical Incidence Response Test (rather than individual items) to distinguish between experienced and inexperienced student volunteers.

Finally, the total experience group was separated on the variable of race. T-tests were computed on the mean scoring differences between the racial sub-groups. This comparison was made as an attempt to determine the possibility of variables other than "experience" affecting the potential between group scoring differences on the Critical Incidence Response Test.

Table 1: Comparison of Experienced and Inexperienced Student Volunteers

	Experienced Group (N=41)	Inexperienced Group (N=41)
Average Age	26	29
Race: Black	18	36
White	23	5
Sex: Male	26	21
Female	15	20
School: WSU	24	0
WCCC	17	41
Education (mean years)	14	13
Experience (months)	4.5	0

RESULTS

Validity of the Critical Incident Response Test for the Wayne County Sample

Table 3 presents a breakdown on the frequency of selected item alternatives for the experienced student volunteer sample. The results indicated that for 30 of the 32 items, the experienced volunteer group agreed on a particular response alternative at a beyond chance level. Only two of the items (Item 1 and Item 10) did not reach significance. Furthermore, for all of the 30 significant items, the most frequently chosen alternative was the same as that chosen by the Oakland County development sample. Thus, for the Wayne County student volunteer group the Critical Incident Response Test displayed a high level of concurrent validity.

Table 2: Comparison of Black and White Experienced Student Volunteers

	Black (N=17)	White (N=23)
Average Age	32.8	25.4
Sex: Male	9	17
Female	8	6
School: WSU	5	19
WCCC	12	4
Education (mean years)	13	14
Experience (months)	4.5	4.5

Comparison of Item Response Patters for Experienced and Inexperienced Student Volunteers

Table 4 presents a breakdown of the frequency of response alternatives for the inexperienced student volunteer group. The results for the inexperienced group indicated a significant level of agreement on individual response alternative for 26 of the 32 items. Items 20, 22, 28 and 29, while reaching significance for the experienced group, did not show a significantly agreed upon alternative for the inexperienced group.³ Item 10, conversely, was significant for the inexperienced group but not for the experienced group.⁴ Item 1 did not reach significance for either group. The remaining 26 items were significant for both the experienced and inexperienced groups for the same response alternatives in all cases.

Thus, while there was somewhat greater variation of item response choices for the inexperienced group, the overall differences did not result in a powerful level of discrimination between the experienced and the inexperienced volunteers.

Comparison of Mean Scoring Differences Between The Experienced and Inexperienced Groups

Table 5 presents a t-test computed on the total mean scoring differences on the CIRT between the experienced and inexperienced volunteer groups. The results indicated that the experienced group scored significantly higher on the CIRT than the inexperienced volunteer group. Thus, while the individual items of the CIRT had little discriminative power between groups, the experienced volunteer

Table 5: Mean Scoring Differences Between Experienced and Inexperienced Volunteers

Group	Mean	SD	t
Experienced (N=41)	22.1	3.58	2.92*
Inexperienced (N=41)	19.5	4.35	

* p = .01

group, when compared to the inexperienced group, did display significantly higher total mean scores on the CIRT.

Mean Scoring Differences Between Black and White Experienced Volunteers

Table 6 presents a t-test computed on the CIRT mean scoring differences between white and black experienced student volunteers. The results revealed that the white experienced volunteer sub-group scored significantly higher on the CIRT than the black experienced sub-group. This finding would seem to suggest the possibility that factors other than "experience as a volunteer" might have influenced total scores on the CIRT, since the white and black students had exactly the same amount of experience.

As an indirect check on this possibility, a t-test was computed on the mean scoring difference on the CIRT between the experienced and the inexperienced black volunteer groups (see Table 7). The results of this comparison revealed no significant mean scoring difference on the CIRT between the experienced and inexperienced blacks. It should be pointed out that these sub-groups were quite similar on the background variables of age and education, and with the exception of five experienced blacks, all came from the same community college.

This finding would seem to lend support to the hypothesis that variables other than just "experience as a volunteer" were important in determining the higher total mean scores for the experienced volunteer group. It will be recalled, in this context, that the black experienced volunteers tended to be older and have less education than the white experienced volunteer group. It is possible that the greatest amount of education for the white volunteers bolstered their scores on the test, resulting in the significance between group scoring differences.⁵

Furthermore, it could be hypothesized that the age variable might be a factor affecting test scores since the younger white experienced student volunteers might have been more capable of identifying with situations involving adolescents like those presented in these test items.⁶ Or, it is possible that the black student group might have approached certain items on the CIRT with unique problem solving sets. These approaches, while possibly quite adequate, might have led to item choices different than those considered correct by the almost entirely White Oakland County development sample. In conclusion, whatever

Table 6: Mean Scoring Differences for the Experienced Group by Race

Group	Mean	SD	t
Black (N=18)	20.4	3.77	2.34*
White (N=23)	23.6	2.43	

*p = <.01

extraneous variables may have affected test performance, the assumption that "experience as a volunteer" was the primary cause of the significantly higher test scores for the experienced group would seem questionable to say the least.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

From the results of the present investigation, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1) The critical incident response test displayed a high level of concurrent validity when administered to the experienced Wayne County student volunteer group. For 30 of the 32 items, the experienced Wayne County test group agreed beyond chance on the same response alternatives as the Oakland County development sample.

2) On the whole, individual items on the CIRT were not powerful discriminators between experienced and inexperienced volunteers in this study.

3) Significant total scoring difference on the CIRT were found between the experienced and inexperienced student volunteer groups. However, further scoring comparisons between black and white sub-groups of the experienced group, and experienced and inexperienced black volunteers, revealed that the significant mean scoring differences between the two groups were probably influenced to some extent by variables other than just "experience as a volunteer." The results indicated that other variables such as age, and more probably, amount of education may be important in affecting performance on the CIRT for particular sub-groups.

The primary goal of the volunteer case-aide staff in Pontiac, Michigan, was to develop an instrument capable of distinguishing between

Table 7: Mean Scoring Differences for Experienced and Inexperienced Black Volunteers

Group	Mean	SD	t
Experienced Blacks (N=18)	20.4	3.77	.87
Inexperienced B Blacks (N=36)	19.4	3.97	

potentially successful and unsuccessful volunteers working in a one-to-one counseling type relationship with delinquent or neglected juveniles. In their efforts to develop such an instrument, the assumption was initially made that the more experienced volunteers would also tend to be more successful. The results of the present investigation would certainly question the validity of this assumption. Irrespective of that issue, however, it would seem clear that the next step that must be

taken is to develop and collect more objective criteria of volunteer success other than length of "experience" alone. Criterion measures that might be considered are: supervisory ratings of volunteers, ratings of volunteers by adolescents, pre- and post-comparisons of adolescent attitudes and personality measures, school grades, attendance, or even recidivism rates. Using such criteria, a true predictive validity study of the Critical Incidence Response Test must be undertaken. Such a study is presently under way at the Wayne County Juvenile Court in Detroit, Michigan, utilizing a completely new sample of student volunteers. The results of this study will be forthcoming.

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Footnotes:

¹The chief test of many delinquency prevention and rehavilitation programs is what happens to delinquency rates. This is a poor test for two reasons. On the one hand, delinquency rates are an undependable index of the amount of delinquent conduct in a community. They go up or down with changes in law and with changes in community attitudes toward children's conduct, etc., as well as with changes in the actual amount of delinquent behavior. On the other hand, insofar as the rates are dependable, they register the joint effects of many factors in addition to those with which a particular delinquency prevention program is concerned. Control over these factors is difficult to achieve (Kelley and Kennedy, 1972 p.28).

²There was no sample mortality. All who began working with their assigned delinquents were still doing so when the test was administered. Each student contacted his case at least once per week for a minimum of three hours.

³It should be noted that each of these items reached significance at the .01 level but was not selected at the required 50% level.

⁴The response alternative chosen most frequently was different than the alternative reaching significance for the Oakland County sample.

⁵It should be remembered that the inexperienced group was composed almost entirely of black students (see Table 1).

⁶However, it could also be argued that older students would be more capable due to higher maturity and experience levels.

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DO YOU HIRE AND FIRE YOUR VOLUNTEERS?

Do you hire and fire your volunteers? Or do you simply accept all or most of the well-meaning people who seek to serve in your volunteer program? If you do not hire your volunteers, odds are that your volunteer program has not been carefully planned and its chances of being of real benefit to your agency are not very good.

What exactly do I mean? Basically, it's very simple. Volunteers are valuable people and as valuable people, they deserve the same treatment as that extended to paid personnel. Too many times, agencies begin volunteer programs in the agency. Rarely does a volunteer program begin after a long and well-conducted planning period. Rather, volunteer programs are frequently talked about one day and implemented the next day.

In order to establish viable and worthwhile volunteer programs, agencies must begin to view the volunteer as a non-paid staff member. When the agency views the volunteer as a non-paid staff member the chances of implementing a successful volunteer program are greatly enhanced. New paid personnel are not hired unless there is a real need for additional staff. But is this true of the non-paid volunteer? How many volunteer programs are suffering from an over-abundance of volunteers? Too frequently, agencies, in the first instance, fail to establish a real need for volunteers, and, in the second instance, recruit more volunteers than are actually needed.

If a need exists for volunteer staff, then this need should be easily transferred to the form of written job descriptions. This is extremely important because the function of a job description is to outline the duties to be performed and to establish the minimum qualifications for the position. Well-written job descriptions should be the basis upon which agencies hire and fire volunteers. But do they?

All social agencies have written job descriptions for paid personnel, but all social agencies do not have written job descriptions for non-paid volunteer personnel. Why not? The most logical answer is that volunteers really are not very important to those agencies which do not take time to outline in writing the nature of the volunteer's function. If the volunteer's job is not defined by a written job description, then how is the job defined? Does each volunteer arrive at his or her own conception of the volunteer role? If each volunteer is allowed to define his or her own role, then the agency

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is opening itself up to potential confusion and mis-understanding on the part of the volunteer. And a confused, misguided volunteer will soon become frustrated with the agency and its volunteer program.

Not only will a well-written job description outline the function and duties of the volunteer, but it should also list the necessary qualifications for each volunteer position. Let's face it, job descriptions for paid positions serve to eliminate unqualified applicants because they list the minimum qualifications for the position. Volunteer job descriptions work the same way. An agency will find it much easier to recruit qualified volunteers if the minimum qualifications have been printed and distributed in the form of job descriptions. Hence, agencies should hire volunteers on the basis of need and on the basis of the volunteer's ability to meet the minimum qualifications for the position.

When hiring volunteers it is essential for agencies to recognize their new personnel as non-paid staff. All regular staff privileges should be extended to the volunteer staff. For instance, most of today's volunteers are recruited to perform functions and duties identical or quite similar to paid staff. New paid staff normally receive an orientation, in-service training, a probationary period and adequate supervision. The volunteer staff should receive equal treatment. Most volunteers receive an orientation, but rarely receive in-service training or adequate supervision. The main reason for this is the lack of volunteer job descriptions. The job description for every paid position will state clearly the in-service training and supervision to be received. However, since the volunteer is normally without a written job description, in-service training and adequate supervision are frequently neglected. Further, there is rarely any such time as a probationary period for a volunteer. Rather the volunteer either perseveres in spite of the agency or withdraws in utter frustration.

Finally, written job descriptions can serve as the vehicle for firing unsuitable volunteers. Hopefully, written job descriptions will help prevent this situation by allowing the agency to recruit better qualified volunteers. But when a volunteer is not performing the required tasks, a written job description serves as the basis to realign the volunteer's efforts, or if necessary, to terminate the volunteer for failure to fulfill the requirements of the volunteer position.

APPLYING ORGANIZATIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN A VOLUNTEER BUREAU

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Most of us will recall from high school days the Square-Cube Law of biological growth which postulates that as the surface area of an organism doubles, the volume of the organism will triple. Some years ago Professor Mason Haire suggested, perhaps partly in jest, that social organizations (industrial and non-industrial) experience a similar effect. That is, as the organization doubles in size, the internal structure and dynamics required for efficient functioning seem to expand by a factor of three (Haire, 1959). Whether or not the Square-Cube Law holds for organizations, all of us would agree that the persistent problem facing administrators is dealing effectively with the twin challenges of growth and change.

As the amoeba constantly adjusts its shape, size and direction in response to a constantly changing environment, the effective volunteer bureau must modify its structure, internal relationships, objectives and programmes in order to serve the needs of a constantly shifting community environment. A newly emerging field in the behavioural sciences, Organizational Development can provide a great deal of assistance to administrators of volunteer bureaus in dealing effectively with growth and change. The purpose of this paper is to describe Organizational Development, its approach and techniques and to present highlights from a successful and ongoing OD effort in a volunteer bureau.

A leading practitioner has defined Organizational Development as:

"A long range effort to improve an organization's problem solving and renewal processes, particularly through a more effective and collaborative management of organization culture--with specific emphasis on the culture of formal work teams--with the assistance of a change agent or catalyst, and the use of the theory and technology of applied behavioural science, including action research" (French and Bell, 1973 p.15)

Thus, Organizational Development is not a unified theory and is not a discipline in

itself, but it draws insights, approaches and methods from a number of behavioural science disciplines; particularly psychology, sociology, anthropology and economics. Nor is Organizational Development a packaged approach because each organization has different needs, therefore any single corrective approach cannot be applied to all organizations. Generally, however, the following elements are present in an OD application:

1) An organizational problem involving people is recognized. Organizational Development problems are those management problems for which solutions are sought generally within the scope of the behavioural sciences, i.e., relative to the individual and to groups, organizations and environment.

2) Expertise is brought to bear. Often, but not always, help is elicited from experts external to the organization. Some organizations find that some of their own staff members are sufficiently well trained in the behavioural sciences and are otherwise capable enough to institute OD programmes, and some large organizations even have permanent OD groups.

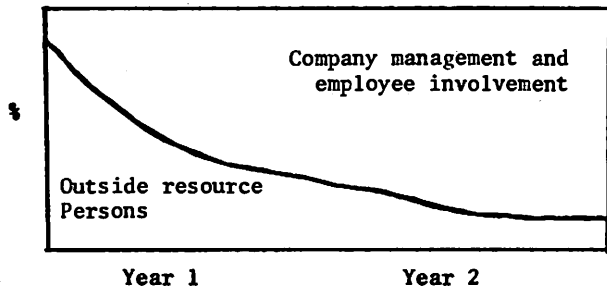
In contrast, most firms find it useful to seek the help of an external change agent; normally a consultant or university professor highly trained in behavioural sciences and having considerable experience with different types of organizations. Apart from expertise the external resource person may offer a certain credibility which might not easily accrue to the inside resource person.

In numerous examples of OD programmes, the outside change agent is heavily involved in the initial stages followed by a gradual withdrawal as persons within the organization assume more responsibility for the ongoing programme. Figure 1 illustrates a typical proportional mix of inside to outside resource people in an OD programme over time.

3) A diagnostic prescriptive approach is taken. Organizational ills take many forms and, as in the case of human illness, symptoms may be recognized. The diagnostic prescriptive approach is focussed upon recognizing symptoms of organizational illness (such as lack of goal commitment), prescribing and instituting

Figure 1

Typical Mix of Inside and Outside Resources
Required in an OD Program



treatment (such as team-building), re-examination, further treatment or treatment modification, and so on. Thus, the OD programme is problem centered, custom designed and subjected to conscious reappraisal.

4) A conglomerate assembly of knowledge and techniques is judiciously and carefully used. A host of tools are available to the OD practitioner--empirically derived insights and knowledge about human behaviour in organizations, the interview, the questionnaire survey, observer and observer-participant based analysis, stimulation, model construction, laboratory and T-group variations, cases, role play, rewards system design, tools of economic and financial analysis, and others. Careful utilization of these powerful tools and techniques calls for complex understanding or organizational processes.

Organizational Development must be viewed as more than a sophisticated problem solving approach. All OD efforts and OD practitioners seem to espouse a philosophy...work is accomplished most effectively by people who are committed to the organization; who trust and respect each other and who realize and utilize their interdependence. As is the case with all organizational programmes, the success of an OD programme depends on thorough understanding and support, especially by the executive director of the volunteer bureau and by the board of directors. By this time, little needs to be said about the necessity of securing the active involvement of those in key positions in organizations. Failure to gain full understanding and support can doom not only a current programme but may have a severe effect on the success of any future programmes which may be undertaken.

Determining the Need for Organizational Development

Because of the unique nature of its operations, each volunteer bureau will have a different set of organization requirements, even though many of the structural characteristics may be similar. Beckhard (1969) lists ten organizational conditions that call for OD efforts:

1. The need to change a managerial strategy.

2. The need to make the organizational climate more consistent with individual needs and changing needs of the environment.
3. The need to change "cultural" norms.
4. The need to change structure and roles.
5. The need to improve intergroup collaboration.
6. The need to open up the communication system.
7. The need for better planning.
8. The need for coping with problems of merger or consolidation. (Not inconceivable for a volunteer bureau - ed.)
9. The need for changing motivation of the work force.
10. The need for adaptation to a new environment.

Obviously, not all of these needs may be present in a volunteer bureau at a given point in time nor will their intensities necessarily indicate the same action priorities.

Each Organizational Development strategy is different and must be "tailor made" to suit the requirements of the organization involved.

Methods of Bringing about Organizational Change and Improvement

A wide range of activities is available to the practitioner of Organizational Development. In the jargon of OD experts, these "intervention strategies" are really structured activities designed to bring about a predetermined goal, such as the heightening of individual awareness, the building of an effective organizational team, controlled confrontation between two organizational groups holding ambiguous or conflicting views, etc. French and Bell (1973, p.102) indicate that these intervention activities or methods may be grouped into "families." The families of OD interventions which seem to particularly useful in volunteer bureau applications are:

Diagnostic activities. These are activities which are undertaken in order to determine where the organization is now in terms of its objectives, its problems, its strength and weaknesses. Methods which are available for diagnosing the organization include the interview, participant-observation, observation, the questionnaire survey, goal setting meetings.

Education and Training activities. These activities include all the normal training and management development approaches which are too numerous to describe in detail. One continuing problem faced by the director of a volunteer bureau concerns the education of new members of the Board concerning their roles, responsibilities and terms of reference.

Intergroup activities. Work groups and diagnostic groups composed of preselected members can be constructed in order to diagnose and to work through a variety of intergroup problems. Laboratory training may involve techniques such as sensitivity training modified to the needs of the organization.

Team Building activities. These are designed to improve the operations of groups of people working together in the organization as committees or in permanent work groups. Techniques such as role play, case analysis, force field analysis can be quite useful in team building. Intergroup team building meetings may be held in order to bring together representatives from different groups which have a common area of concern. Problem confrontation exercises may then be used.

Planning and Goal Setting activities. In a volunteer bureau, the executive director and the Board must engage in activities which are directed at planning and goal setting. The outside change agent may be very helpful as a consultant in planning meetings by providing theoretical insights, offering creative suggestions, and facilitating the planning group as it establishes its targets.

Coaching and Counselling activities. A number of methods are available whereby the consultants and other members of the organization can seek to develop individual members of the organization by working with them to help them better understand their behaviour, to learn new modes of behaviour, to plan and to achieve personal goals and to derive more satisfaction from the organization. Coaching and counselling activities are particularly important in a volunteer bureau where it is crucial that the personal expectations of members are met as fully as possible.

Each of these intervention activity areas contains a wide variety of exercises and methods which might be used. The effective use of these depends on having awareness of their existence and on skill in application. The external change agent or consultant must have a wide variety of Organizational Development techniques at his command and must be able to apply these judiciously and carefully if he is to gain and hold the respect and trust of his client organization. Further, he must be able to pass on his knowledge to members of the organization in order that they may continue to use the techniques and strategies of OD in the future.

Clearly, Organizational Development is not an "easy way to manage." OD always embodies change--modifying the structure and processes of the management system in order to improve organizational performance. Very often, changes in established practices may produce personal anxiety and disharmony at least in the short run. Although disruption, anxiety and stress might be anticipated as side effects of the change oriented OD programme, they are very real problems which demand highly skilled management.

Organizational Development in a Volunteer Bureau

In order to provide a more clear understanding of how an Organizational Development programme is undertaken, this section provides the

highlights of a programme which was begun approximately five years ago in a medium sized volunteer bureau in a major Canadian metropolitan area.

Problem recognition phase

Over the course of a two-year period prior to the beginning of any organizational development efforts, a number of serious conflicts had arisen between the executive director and the Board over the determination of suitable objectives for the bureau and over the methods of accomplishing the limited objectives which could be agreed upon. The Board and the executive staff were unable to succeed in working through their problems and this had led to heavy turnover of staff, eventually including the executive director. Communications between the executive director and the Board became very strained and eventually closed off completely. At the time the bureau was having these organizational difficulties, its role was rather narrowly confined to referral activities serving the needs of about six user agencies. Subsequently, a new executive director was appointed; a person with significant social service experience but from another community.

Thus, a very significant organizational change was taking place. Previous Board-executive director relationships were severed creating a uniquely "unfrozen" state in which expectations for improvement, on the part of almost everyone involved, were heightened. Many members of the Board realized the importance of having a director who would work in partnership with them and not just as an instrument of the Board. New ideas for programmes which could be undertaken by the bureau began to blossom forth, creating a high level of discussion and confusion concerning just where the bureau should be heading. At the same time, the executive staff seemed to be having more and more difficulties with the administrative demands of its programmes. Particularly burdensome were the demands of a Volunteers for Seniors programme. The bureau, under its new executive director, was experiencing growth pains; its objectives were ambiguous, the demands on the director's time and talents were becoming very heavy, Board members were not being used effectively either as individuals or as committee groups, and the future was unclear. At the same time, Board member expectations continued to be high and the executive director had been able to build confidence and trust within the organization. Many opportunities were clearly visible.

Diagnostic-prescriptive phase

The Organizational Development effort was initiated almost by accident in 1970. Feeling the need to improve the efficiency of herself and the staff, the executive director contacted a professor of Organizational Behaviour at a nearby university hoping that perhaps a time

and motion study or some type of efficiency study might be undertaken.

The professor, who henceforth will be known as the change agent, suggested instead a preliminary meeting to discuss the organization's structure and dynamics of the volunteer bureau. As an outgrowth of this preliminary meeting, the executive director discussed with her Board the possibility of undertaking an Organizational Development programme. Shortly thereafter, the external change agent was invited to attend a Board meeting where he outlined the requirements for an organizational diagnosis. The Board agreed to undertake an interview and questionnaire study of the bureau's activities. Under the direction of the change agent, a graduating student in Business Administration agreed to conduct the study as part of his university degree requirements. The investigation took six months and examined at least the following major areas of concern: 1) The extent and adequacy of services presently being provided by the bureau to its user agencies. 2) The adequacy of the consultation process between the bureau and its user agencies concerning present and long range service needs. 3) The opportunities for further service which might be provided by the bureau to its user agencies and to the community at large (the focus here was upon assessing the broad range of objectives or missions which might be undertaken by the bureau). 4) The similarity of structure and activities between this bureau and other bureaus elsewhere (for comparison purposes, the Greater Seattle Volunteer Bureau was examined). 5) The nature and scope of the executive director's position and the various positions of other staff members. 6) The respective roles of the Board and its various committees. 7) The Board and staff relationship within the volunteer bureau. 8) The relationship between the bureau and the community it seeks to serve (particularly important was the public relations aspect). 9) Adequacy of the funding base on which the organization depends.

The report contained a number of recommendations which were offered to the Board for its consideration. The study drew attention to several organizational deficiencies within the bureau; for example, the bureau's activities had been narrowly confined to recruitment and referral and not enough attention was being paid to the agencies using volunteers. It was recommended that a programme be undertaken to inform agencies of the various services available to them from the volunteer bureau and how these services can benefit the agency. It was recommended that more emphasis be placed on the relationship with agencies including the development of a training programme for coordinators of volunteers.

The need for the Board of Directors to define the objectives of the bureau was highlighted. It was recommended that this activity be given first priority. The study pointed out that the volunteer bureau's means of support was coming from only one funding source and that other funding sources should be investigated.

At the same time, the bureau's attention was directed to a number of opportunities for enhancing its role in the community. It was felt that public relations effort could be very important in developing greater community awareness concerning voluntarism and that many opportunities for service were largely untapped. The possibility of establishing branch offices with representatives from surrounding communities was raised.

Thus, the diagnostic prescriptive phase was directed at seeking information and presenting the information to the organization so that critical areas for improvement are highlighted and that opportunities are clearly pointed out.

Developmental phase

Following receipt and discussion of the diagnostic report by the Board, the bureau moved very quickly and in a logical fashion. A problem definition session was held under the direction of the external change agent with the Board, including a number of new members, and the executive director of the bureau in attendance. A confrontation goal-setting exercise was used at this meeting to generate a list of possible goals which could be undertaken by the bureau and to establish some rough ideas concerning just what priorities might be established (Fordyce and Weil 1971, p.93-7). A three-member group was chosen from among the Board members to draft a preliminary statement of goals as a result of the input from from this first meeting. This was done, and the Board formally began to move in a systematic way towards established objectives. As an outgrowth of the goal-setting activities, the Board's role began to be redefined as a planning role. The Board established mechanisms whereby the bureau's objectives would be reviewed very carefully each year so that modifications could be made where appropriate.

During the developmental phase, as the bureau began to move towards reestablished goals, it found itself gaining in stature with other social service organizations. Whereas prior to the Organizational Development effort, the bureau was treated as an appendage--a sidelight to the decision making in many of the user agencies, the bureau and its activities were becoming a much more important part of social service planning in a large number of user agencies. The bureau began to be called on to provide a wider variety of volunteer persons, illustrating that volunteers were being used in ways not heretofore conceived.

Many of the objectives originally outlined during the goal-setting period have been accomplished and others are being pursued with vigour. The funding base has been increased, providing a great deal of flexibility in terms of service activities, the executive director has acted several times in a consultant capacity, extending conscious efforts and helping to establish and strengthen volunteer programmes in the community and in other smaller communities in the Province. The bureau is working much more closely with user agencies and has provided some short-term and

an extensive long-term training programme for coordinators of volunteers (Anderson and Dougans, (1973). Consultation services have been provided for several user agencies; for example, with provincial correction services and the School Board.

At the provincial level, voluntarism, largely through the public relations efforts of the bureau, has become a much more important part of administrative planning. Partly as a result, the bureau recently (1974) has been granted provincial funds to establish a Voluntary Action Resource Centre, designed to collect and disseminate a wide variety of information concerning voluntarism and voluntary activities and perhaps to provide extended consultation throughout the region.

During the development, the bureau has been experiencing a great deal of growth (e.g., the bureau now serves approximately sixty volunteer coordinators as compared to five or six in 1970). Moreover, the Board and the staff of the bureau appeared to be coping systematically and effectively with their increased organizational demands and have taken advantage of a number of the opportunities which have been presented them in the course of social evolution.

Present Efforts

This bureau, like others in Canada, is looking forward to further opportunities for change and development as a result of the founding conference of the Canadian Association of Volunteer Bureaus (held June 12-15, 1974). During its developmental phase, the bureau has expanded its role beyond the traditional recruitment and referral to include training, consulting, and undertaking Organizational Development activities for other bureaus, has increased its public relations activities, and has broadened its funding base. At its next annual planning and development session, the bureau will be facing the important question concerning the modification of its existing structure to incorporate the new Resource Centre. Very likely, new roles will be defined, certain old roles will be redefined, certain functions of the Board may be modified, and certain new activities will be discussed and undertaken.

In conclusion, Organizational Development is a continuing process and is not just a "one-shot" activity. It involves a lot of hard work on the part of all members in the organization, but, through this process, exciting new organizational opportunities are created for the organizational team.

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