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Demystifying the Bureaucracy

by Dr. Reuben R. McDaniel, Jr.

Mystery - something not understood or beyond understanding. (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary)

Everyday each of us encounters bureaucracies. We get orders from them (don't drive over 55 miles an hour); we use them to pay our bills (hoping that the post office will deliver them on time); we probably work in one (and spend a good deal of time "beating the system") yet, most people would say that they don't understand the bureaucracy. Some of us would even say that the bureaucracy is beyond understanding. There is always a right way, a wrong way, and the bureaucracy's way and it seems as though there is just no logic to the bureaucracy's way. It is simply beyond human comprehension.

One frequently heard response to this situation is that society should do away with large complex organizations because they seem to represent the worst of bureaucratic behavior. Some people have tried reorganizing society around more simple organizations. Without denying the warmth or usefulness of small friendship groups it is not difficult to see that, despite our frustrations, the large complex system is becoming more prevalent in society.

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The reason for this is straightforward as well as profound. We have an increasing need to interact with unpredictable others and the bureaucracy turns out to be a very good way of doing this. When we dial the telephone expecting to speak to our mother, we want a reasonable assurance that we won't be connected to a resturant in Paris or a jail in Iran (assuming that mother lives in Cleveland). In fact we depend on the bureaucracy to do all of the things required to complete the call. And please don't bother me with the details; just ring the phone in mother's house. The bureauc-racy absorbs all of (or most of) the uncertainty associated with the fantastic problem of talking with mother over long distances.

Because of the importance of organized activity in a complex society it would serve as well if we could demystify the bureaucracy.

It is the purpose of this essay to help you understand the what, why and how of large bureaucratic organizations. Hopefully, with some increased understanding you will be better able to use them to serve your own ends. You will be better able to manage them so as to be more likely to achieve the goals you and others share.

An aside. I think it is particularly important for those interested in human services to understand the bureaucracy. Human service goals are very difficult to achieve at best. Failure to achieve them simply because the bureaucracy remains a mystery will be heartrending. In fact, we should be prepared to use bureaucratic organizations to further the causes we believe in and to serve those for whom we care. Some of you may feel that this is impossible; that the bureaucracy will forever remain a mystery and, therefore, unuseable. Yet, it is worth trying, if for no other reason than to see if we can unravel the puzzle and meet the challenge of understanding large systems. This essay is written to help you in this endeavor.

A bureaucracy is a special kind of organization. The first step to understanding the bureaucracy is to understand organizations; what they are, what their characteristics are, and, what the keys are to the types of organizations. When these are understood we can turn our attention to that special kind of organization - the bureaucracy.

<u>An organization is a complex social unit deliberality designed to achieve a desired result.</u>

A football team is an organization as is a bridge club, a community health center and the state legislature. Successful management of any organization requires attention to the social unit, particularly the interpersonal dynamics and interaction patterns. It also requires attention to the design and arrangement of the parts. This means that the manager must be concerned about who has what responsibilities to whom and when are these responsibilities going to be met. The manager must, above all, pay attention to the desired results. It is very easy for any organization to loose sight of its goals. Are we here to play bridge or to catch up on the latest gossip? Such confusion of desired results has probably led to the demise of many more bridge clubs than one no-trump opened with 23 high card points. (For nonbridge players - this is horrible bridge technique!) So the manager must continously nurture the goal system; the desired results of the organization. Only through attention to these three elements, the social unit, the design, and, the desired result can anyone hope to manage any organization.

All organizations have a locus of power a division of labor, substitutability of personnel and a history or memory of the past. Each of these must be understood if the organization is to be managed effectively and efficiently.

The locus of power may shift frequently or it may be widely diffused. In a given situation, however, one can identify some point or series of points toward which the power tends to move. This is the locus of power. Where the power in a group is so widely diffused as to be unlocatable, or if it shifts so capriciously as to be completely unpredictable, the organization will be extremely ineffectual and, often, unmanagerable.

The second characteristic of an organization is substitutability of personnel. In general, organizations are ongoing despite changes in membership. Although a change in membership can cause a significant shift in the nature or character of an organization, the organization will continue to function. In dealing with, or working in, any organization it is well to remember that everyone is replaceable; the organization will go on.

Organizations have a division of labor among personnel. The labor may be divided by function as between lawyers and accountants, by geography as when a community center has branches that serve various parts of a city, or by pure quantity of work as in a secretarial pool. In all cases the organization divides its tasks among its members in order to accomplish its desired results.

The fourth characteristic of an organization is a history or memory of its past. Organizations often capture much of this history in the rules and programs used to accomplish tasks. These are usually referred to as standard operating procedures. Through these procedures, the organization remembers its past decisions, sets the pattern for present activities and anticipates future events.

The successful use of any kind of organization, including a bureaucracy, requires an understanding of these four characteristics. Where is power located? How is substitutability of personnel achieved? What are the principles which guide the division of labor? How is the history maintained? Answers to these questions are important to gaining insights into the way an organization functions to reach its goals.

While all organizations have some traits in common they also clearly differ from each other. Football teams don't operate in the same fashion as hospitals. In many ways bridge clubs and football teams look alike as organizations and they are both quite different from automobile assembly plants. Part of the hospital may look like an assembly plant, yet, part of it is (or should be) very unlike an assembly plant.

We can classify organizations in order to understand them better. The keys to the shape of an organization are 1) the nature of the critical information the organization uses to accomplish these goals. Football and bridge are alike in that the rules (information) used define a competative interaction between certain players and a cooperative interaction between certain other players. Therefore, the notion of opposing teams is the norm. On the other hand, opposing teams in a hospital or an automobile assembly plant tend to be dysfunctional and the norm is on unity of effort by all participants at all times. If the goal is better health care the organization tends to do different things, to have a different shape, than if the goal is the mass production of automobiles. So both the goal and the nature of the critical information are keys to the shape of an organization. When the shape does not fit the desired results or the information there is a decrease in efficiency and effectiveness and a great waste of energy.

A bureaucracy is a particular organizational shape and, therefore, can be effectively used under a limited set of conditions.

The best time to use a bureaucracy is when desired results are

- clear
- operational
- measurable
- challenging

and when the critical information

- is repetitive
- changes slowly
- fits a pattern
- is easily understood.

An ideal bureaucracy has well defined roles for each of its participants. There is no confusion as to the job description and performance expectations of workers. Each person has a place in the organization which is carefully differentiated from every other place. The definition of each role includes a specification of the heirarchial relationships. Everyone knows who reports to whom and for what purposes.

In the ideal bureaucracy there are comprehensive rules of behavior which attempt to anticipate possible appropriate behavior. When x happens, do y. The judgemental process is in the design of rule systems and in recognition of which rule applys to which situation. It is not expected that participants will invent responses to situations. Rather it is expected that they will know the rules and when to apply them.

In addition to well defined roles and comprehensive rules, the ideal bureaucracy has clear channels of vertical and horizontal information flows. The means of communication are often formal and written. Every effort is made to use unambigous language where meanings are clear, at least within the organization. This sometimes leads to an artificial language that sounds like gobbledy - gook to an outsider.

When people want to accomplish a particular kind of desired result and the critical information they need to use is routine then the bureaucracy is the correct organizational shape. A good bureaucracy will be characterized by high technical competence to process routine information quickly and effectively. There will be good standard operating procedures to insure rule following and efficient role relationships. Because desired results are clear and straight forward a good bureaucracy will be able to mesh individual and group goals. The clarity of the situation can lead to fairness in the treatment of all associated with the organization.

When attempting to understand the bureaucracy it is necessary to be aware of the technology that is used to execute organization tasks. It is also necessary to look at standard operating procedures to determine their appropriateness. Are procedures really related to the organization's goals or are they dysfunctional? The congruence of group and individual goals needs to be examined as well as the fairness of the system of operation.

If a bureaucracy is operating well, that is, if it is the appropriate organizational shape and it is carefully designed, then certain benefits accrue to the manager and to the organization's publics. The first is that behaviors of the system and the people in it are very predictable. Secondly, it is easy to train both workers and customers to make responses that are required for the system to function. Thirdly, there is a sense of impersonality about the system which often makes it easier to deal with. Last, it is easy to develop a structure that can withstand capricious fluctuations of the environment.

These benefits are very important to both managers and clients. When it is possible to design and operate an effective bureaucracy then goals are more easily attained for all concerned. Despite all of the jokes and wisecracks the fast food industry has utilized the bureaucratic organizational design to provide comparatively tasty and inexpensive food while taking away most of the unpredictability associated with resturants in a highly mobile society. We can depend on Kentucky Fried Chicken from Maine to California, winter and summer, large town or small. It may not be as tasty as the food at your favorite restaurant at home but you can depend on the kids eating and enjoying their dinner.

This is accomplished by the appropriate use of the bureaucracy. All of the characteristics are present. To understand any fast food organization is to understand the critical elements in bureaucracies. It might be useful at this point to list these critical elements because demystification of the bureaucracy is simply knowing these elements.

Any organization:

1. complex social unit
2. deliberately designed
3. desired result
4. locus of power
5. substituatability of personnel
6. division of labor
7. history or memory

The Bureaucracy:

8. clear, operational goals
9. routine critical information
10. well defined roles
11. comprehensive roles
12. specified channels for information
13. high technical competence
14. good standard operating procedures
15. meshing of group and individual goals
16. fairness
17. predictability
18. trained workers
19. impersonality
20. structure

There we have it; twenty keys to demystifying the bureaucracy. Only with appropriate attention to each of these keys can one understand when, where and how to use bureaucracies to accomplish the things one wants to accomplish. Likewise, it is only by attention to these keys that one can avoid misuse of bureaucracies. Certainly some bureaucratic organizations may not have one of these keys (such as fairness) or they may not use the key appropriately (such as high technical competence), but the well managed bureaucracy will strive for excellence in each of these key areas. The effectiveness and efficiency of the organization will be a function of managerial success in this effort.

There are other organizational shapes. For example, collegial organizations which depend on shared values, shared information and consensus seeking are better when critical information is nonroutine and when goal systems are fuzzy and shifting. At the point where goal systems are divergent and critical information is very nonroutine then political organizations characterized by bargaining and negotiation are much better than bureaucracies for getting things done. However, when goal systems are clear and agreed upon and critical information is routine then the bureaucracy is the appropriate organizational shape. Careful attention to the goals and critical information is required to select the correct organizational design. Certainly the misuse of organizational shapes is a major cause for organizational dysfunctions.

It has been the purpose of this essay to help in demystifying one of the most common organizational shapes - the bureaucracy. While they may often be not understood they are not beyond understanding.

For those wishing to explore further the mysteries of organizations in general or bureaucracies in particular the following paperback books are recommended. Each presents a clear and understandable theoretical perspective. At the same time each is a handy reference for the practicing administrator.

Galbraith, Jay, Designing Complex Organizations, Reading Mass.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, (1973), 150 pages.

Knight, Kenneth E. and Reuben R. McDaniel, Jr., Organizations: An Information Systems Perspective, Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company, (1979), 191 pages.

Lawler III, Edward E. and John Grant Rhode, Information and Control in Organizations, Pacific Palisades, California: Goodyear Publishing Company, (1976), 217 pages.

Perrow, Charles, Organizational Analysis: A Sociological View, Belmont, California: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company, (1970), 192 pages.

Thompson, Victor A., Bureaucracy and the Modern World, Morristown, N.J.: General Learning Press, (1976), 141 pages.

Community-Based Volunteers

by Barbara Ekstrand

Most of what has been written about the administration of volunteer programs can be adapted to all types of programs; however, I feel the programs that have volunteers working alone in the community deserve special consideration. These volunteers are not required to sign in at a particular place or time, they have little reason to identify with the agency/institution's building or quarters, and they are often not seen for months at a time by the coordinator. These factors create unique concerns. Special procedures for orientation, supervision and recognition are essential to a well organized volunteer program without an agency setting.

Although the volunteer may never have to physically come in to the agency to perform an assignment, she/he must be oriented to the goals of the agency and should be familiar with all the services offered. This orientation for new volunteers is a must and, if possible, should take place at an agency site. It could be a conference room at the agency, the Chapter House of the Red Cross, the camp of a youth agency. This will give the volunteer some feel for the type of agency she/he will be providing services for and will help the volunteer to better relate to the client who may be spending time at the site.

The initial orientation should also include a tour of the facilities, introductions to appropriate staff and take-home materials explaining agency programs with which the volunteer could be involved. This orientation is especially important for a volunteer in an off-site job, because the community-based volunteer will not be as apt to soak up information and knowledge on an ongoing basis as does the volunteer serving within the agency's setting. The initial contact she/he does have with the agency will have to be intense and yet at a level of understanding for a person who may begin her/his relationship with a very limited knowledge of what the agency is all about.

Supervision of volunteers is especially challenging when dealing with community-based volunteers. Supervision includes knowing what and how the volunteer is doing, the amount of time spent by the volunteer on an assignment, and whether or not the volunteer needs some help or additional training. The coordinator has the obligation to know what the volunteers are doing, on the one hand, and yet, the volunteers should not be made to feel that they must report every little action to the coordinator. There is a fine line between effective supervision and over-supervision. Volunteers who feel they are spending more time reporting their activities rather than actually carrying on their volunteer assignment will probably become turned off to the volunteer program.

The reporting responsibilities related to supervision should be explained to the community-based volunteer during the initial orientation. If a volunteer understands that he/she will be expected to provide some kind of report to the volunteer coordinator, and if it is explained <u>why</u> the need for some information from the volunteer is necessary, many later problems can be avoided.

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A volunteer friendly visitor offers one example of the precarious role the volunteer coordinator must perform when supervising volunteers in the community. How does one know for sure that a volunteer is fulfilling her obligation as a friendly visitor? If weekly personal contacts are recommended between volunteer and client, how are these contacts monitored? I have found that many friendly visitors, after being assigned a client and establishing a relationship, are not that interested in maintaining an association with the agency. The volunteer has assumed the role of friend, and does not feel the necessity of turning in written monthly reports on the progress of the volunteer-turned-friend relationship. In these situations, it is up to the volunteer coordinator to maintain contact with the volunteer. A phone call to ask how things are going may be all that is needed. Possibly, a more perceptive evaluation of the relationship can be obtained from the client's social worker, who can report any changes, for better or worse, on the part of the client since the volunteer has been involved.

Some types of community-based volunteers are more easily supervised, such as transportation volunteers. These volunteers are usually in weekly contact with the volunteer coordinator, and although this is probably mainly telephone contact, it is still a line of communication between the volunteer and the agency. But, again, because the volunteer is not coming into the agency to perform an assignment, every available monitoring method must be used to its full advantage. If the transportation volunteer is being reimbursed, the reimbursement form that the volunteer fills out can also be used to record the number of hours volunteered and to describe each trip, such as indicating whether the client was relaxed, friendly, hostile, or difficult.

If supervision is used by the volunteer coordinator as a method of providing help, guidelines, and encouragment to the community-based volunteer, it will have a positive effect on the volunteer. Not only can the coordinator keep tabs on what is happening between the volunteer and client, but also on the volunteer herself. Feelings of inadequacy or being "used", can be picked up by a coordinator through supervisory contacts. Perhaps a volunteer is a victim of "burn-out" from doing the same volunteer job over an extended time period. Adequate methods of supervision should be able to uncover such problems before it's too late and a volunteer is lost.

How can a volunteer be recognized for services performed if he/she rarely comes into direct contact with agency staff, other than at an annual recognition event? Again, it may seem that agency based volunteers have the advantage since they are always available to receive staff thank-you's and praise. Community-based volunteers also need to hear when they're doing a good job. This means that the coordinator must take every opportunity to recognize the volunteers in the field. When contacting a transportation volunteer about an assignment, take the time to mention that you appreciated the driving he did last week in bad weather. Or, tell another volunteer that the elderly woman she drove to the doctor told her social worker about the nice volunteer she had. Any kind of contact with a volunteer offers the opportunity to give recognition.

It should be evident by now that communications with community-based volunteers is of extreme importance. All volunteers need to know that they are wanted, that they have an important function to perform, and that their services are appreciated; but, to the off-site volunteer, a newsletter is of utmost importance. A newsletter can tie together all of the various messages given to volunteers. It provides the ongoing recognition of volunteers, gives an update on agency happenings, and can serve as a training tool. It is a sure way to reach every volunteer on a regular basis.

An obvious advantage of a community-based volunteer program is its versatility. The volunteers are not limited to performing a volunteer service in one particular location. Serving within the community may mean that more people have the potential of becoming volunteers. A high school student, wanting to work with the elderly, could be assigned to visit an older adult right in her/his own neighborhood. Or, the young, housebound parent could lead a children's program at home.

The times that a volunteer performs his/her assignment in a non-agency setting may also be more flexible. An agency might only be open from 8 a.m. to 5 p.m., Monday through Friday. However, volunteers in the community can oftentimes choose their own hours, meaning that a much wider variety of people have the opportunity to do volunteer work, including students and employed persons.

Managing a volunteer program that has volunteers performing assignments in the community requires strong planning and ingenuity from the coordinator but will result in a satisfied group of volunteers.

Assessing Skills as a Volunteer Administrator: A New Approach to Certification

by Sarah Jane Rehnborg, CAVS

If you were asked, "What is that you do as a volunteer administrator?" how do you suppose you would answer? That you recruit, train, and place volunteers. . . .that you interview and guide them. . . .that you speak publicly on behalf of your agency by carrying its message to the community. . . .that you keep records and spend a great deal of time on the telephone. . . .that you recognize the achievement of volunteers through formal dinners and events? While each of these responses may be accurate in part, none of them fully answers the question.

The answer is incomplete, in part, due to the complexity of the position itself. Eva Schindler-Rainman and Ron Lippitt (1975) in their book The Volunteer Community describe the role of the volunteer administrator as being more than just that of administration. They describe the position as a new multi-faceted, challenging and versatile role. It includes the following kinds of 'hats'. The administrative hat, the public relations or community relations hat, consultant hat both within the organizations and to organizations in the community, and a training hat, which includes the training of relevant and appropriate staff and volunteers (p. 103). Budgetary constraints currently faced by many organizations require some administrators to wear a fundraising and fiscal management hat. An advocacy hat has grown increasingly important in working with vocal and concerned community groups. Survival needs have prompted the acquisition of a power and influence hat. The role continues to grow and with it, the answer to the question of what the volunteer administrator does continues to expand.

Another reason why the answer to the question is oft times incomplete relates to the skills and experiences of the person answering the question. Because there is no one method to prepare for a position in volunteer administration, persons enter the field with a wide variety of backgrounds. Some volunteer administrators have acquired their jobs from the ranks of committed and active volunteer within the agency. Others have been assigned the role while already employed by the agency in a different capacity. Some persons are hired to perform the task of volunteer administration according to the varied, and often ill conceived, specifications of the employing agency.

During a workshop held recently in the state of Pennsylvania, I had the opportunity to ask a group of volunteer administrators about the life experiences which they felt prepared them for their job. The responses were as varied as the individuals present. Answers ranged from "raising 6 children" to courses in writing, and other formal and continuing education programs of every possible description. Volunteer experiences from board and committee responsibilities, to fundraising, to political campaigns, to church work and to work with handicappers were considered significant preparatory opportunities for the job. Paid job experiences were also considered vital. Positions in nursing and case work were found helpful, as was good supervision, opportunities for career change, and the chance to try out the administrative responsibilities of organization and coordination. Personal attri-

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butes of smiling, liking people, enthusiasm and lots of motivation entered into the responses.

The position is complex and multifaceted. The preparatory development of individuals for the position is equally varied. There is no doubt that the richness of backgrounds of the persons working in the field has contributed to its vitality. The complexity of the position contributes to the excitement of the persons in these jobs and to the numerous accomplishments of volunteers working within service providing agencies. The position is dynamic, the opportunities are unlimited.

The question then becomes how does a professional group with such a wide variety of backgrounds, and with such diversity of job responsibilities begin to develop itself - set standards for job performance and educational development - identify a basic body of knowledge - credential its practitioners - help persons enter the field - and above all maintain its flexibility and innovative spirit?

One might conceivably argue that there is no need to address any of these questions. Afterall, we have functioned reasonably well to date, why formalize (and seemingly rigidify) something as natural as the desire to voluntarily provide services to others and to contribute to our community?

However, a cursory scan of the literature in the field of volunteer administration, the public press, and in many cases, our own programs tell us that we are facing a crisis in the human resources available to perform services. We can no longer afford to operate our programs on good intentions and nice people alone--we must begin to look at the skills that are required to perform our jobs, at the way we organize and administer our programs, and to set the direction for the educational programs that will develop and enhance the skills of the practitioners. If the practitioners, and the associations which represent them do not initiate this process, you can be assured that others will intervene on our behalf. If we do not address and begin to manage our own growth, we will be forced to live with the solutions provided for us by well intended, but frequently ill informed observers.

It was precisely these concerns that prompted the Association for Administration of Volunteer Services to review and revamp its Certification program. This article reflects the outcome of very extensive study that has taken place over the last year and a half, on the issue of professional certification. The study has culminated in a new professional Certification program for volunteer administrators based on the competencies necessary to perform the tasks of administering volunteers in a wide variety of settings. It represents only the first of many steps in the definition, description, and formal recognition of the field.

Certification: What is it?

> Certification is:
> The process by which a nongovernmental agency or association grants recognition to an individual who has met certain predetermined qualifications specified by that agency or association. (HEW, 1977, p. 4)

It is a voluntary practice whereby the professional chooses to subject his or her credentials and experiences to the review of a body of peers in order to achieve certain recognition for professional accomplishments. It is also one of the most powerful tools of any organized occupational group in attaining and maintaining the professional status of its members. (Eboch, 1969).

The practice of credentialing professionals through certification is not new. While its origins stem back to the early apprenticeship programs where young men acquired skilled trades, its dominance is a 20th Century phenomenon. Medical licensure* in the early 1900's set the stage for professional credentialing practices; however, the real growth of professional credentialing is much more recent.

Many explanations have been offered to explain the growth of credentialing practices. The need to protect the public from incompetent practitioners and the desire to implement uniform standards of acceptable job performance lead the arguments for credentialing professionals. (Eboch, 1969; HEW, 1977; Roemer, 1974; Shimberg, 1977; Shimberg, Esser and Kruger, 1973). This argument also contends that credentialing professionals helps "to protect the members of professional groups against improper and undue interference in professional activities by people who are not properly trained [in the practice]" (Grad, 1974, p. 39).

The transition from a goods-producing to a service producing economy provides another rationale for the boom in certification practices. (Rockhill, 1976) Where the "Good

Housekeeping" seal of approval was the mark of a well produced and useful product, now certification and other professional credentials are the mark of the well trained and competent service provider.

"Professional obsolescence" provides a persuasive argument for the practice. (Lindsay, Morrison and Kelly, 1974) The rate of change in society, the explosion of information and technological advancements readily makes the formal education of a practicing professional "obsolete" in a very short period of time. Certifying the professional, and then demanding periodic checks on methods of practice through validation of certification, assures the public that they are receiving first rate services.

A more fatalistic viewpoint offers an additional rationale for certification. Man's basic propensity to reward achievement, to categorize information and to classify and certify excellence is basic to his very nature. To resist this human quality is tantamount to an exercise in futility. Therefore, it behoves us to employ the best of our collective knowledge to ensure fairness and validity in setting standards and measuring performance. (Mattran, 1976)

The theories describing the evolution of the practice are not without merit. Man does in fact reward achievement and recognize accomplishment. A rapidly changing contemporary society needs to assure the continued competence of its professionals. Statistics verify the transition to a service providing society and some form of assurance about the competence of the service provider seems to be necessary. Each of these rationales speaks to the need to protect the public from incompetent professionals. To provide this protection minimum standards of professional practice must be determined and methods need to be established to assure that professionals meet these standards.

Less laudatory however, has been the way the practice of certification has been implemented. The critics contend that the credentialing process is largely meaningless, as practiced, as it tends to discriminate along social status and racial lines rather than according to differences in level of performance, skill or competence. (Rockhill, 1976) Standards for certification are frequently based on educational levels, hours of continuing education, longevity of professional practice and membership in professional associations. Although competence is the stated outcome of such measures, technical knowledge is usually the only criteria on which examinations are based. Certification is considered a measure of a professional's "standard of perseverance" and unrelated to issues of service delivery or client interaction.

These criticisms are not ill founded, nor have they been leveled without a great deal of investigation. However, to disregard or discontinue the practice because of poor methods of implementation is also not warranted. Rather, we should learn from our collective mistakes and attempts to revise certification standards in ways that address the basic philosophy behind the practice: protecting the public from the incompetent practitioner through the development and implementation of standards of practice.

It was with this understanding that AAVS pursued the project of revising its current certification program.

A PERFORMANCE-BASED CERTIFICATION PROGRAM FOR VOLUNTEER ADMINISTRATORS

Competence and the Ability to Perform

The dictionary defines competence as being capable, sufficient and able: having the requisite skills, abilities or qualities. The competence of a professional is judged by his/her ability to perform the functions and tasks of the job. If the person can meet or surpass the performance standards for a particular position, the person is generally considered to be competent. (Klemp, 1979)

Historically, competence on a job was determined by the individual's ability to meet certain performance standards. Apprenticeship programs were designed to teach the student particular skills under the watchful eye of a master until some criterion of performance was attained. More recently, competence began to be attributed to how much a person knew and accumulated knowledge was taken as an indication of a person's ability as a professional. For example, an honors graduate from business school was automatically deemed competent as a manager by a perspective employer. While knowledge is, of course a key element of an individual's ability to perform, it is far from the whole picture. Knowing or knowledge, can help in the performance of doing, but it cannot be substituted for the action (the doing) of performance itself.

Today's emphasis on accountability has prompted a return of attention to the actual performance of the professional. The demand for "relevance" in education in the 60's coupled with affirmative action programs for women, and for minorities accentuated the focus on performance and helped to decrease the emphasis on accumulated knowledge. A more balanced perspective is emerging harmonizing knowledge (content) with use (process). (Klemp, 1979)

The focus on competencies and performance-based assessment programs is a result of these recent developments. Competencies are the composite skills, behaviors or knowledge that the individual possesses that can be demonstrated in the performance of one's responsibilities: that demonstration is observable with objectives that demand "write", "do", "describe", as opposed to objectives requiring "understand" or "perceive" which is unobservable. (Hall and Jones, 1976) Overt action and demonstrable events are important keys in any performance-based programs.

If assessment is then placed on the doing--the demonstrating--one might ask what becomes of the knowing. Clearly it remains important. While persons can perform correctly without fully understanding the reasons for their actions, the chance occurrence of correct actions is radically reduced when the person knows the reasons for performing certain actions. The synergy between knowing and doing is succintly captured by Harriet Naylor when she said

> Analysis of the theoretical and philosophical basis must come at an early stage. Otherwise training is likely to be limited to meeting urgent but recurrent needs for operational demands. I believe if we give people at every educational level understanding of the "Why's", the "How to's" come more easily. Without a valuable system of "Why's" administrative decisions are subject to whim and personal ideosyncracy to a devastating degree, even while technical knowledge is improved.
>
> We need professionals, not mere technicians, people with wide and forward vision, to coordinate otherwise unrelated factors into a functioning administrative whole. (1973, pp. 2-3)

The significance of knowing is indisputable, but when assessment focuses on evidence of the ability to do, how one has learned--or comes to know--assumes a new dimension. Emphasis is no longer placed only on the accumulation of knowledge acquired in formal educational structures where years of attendance are automatically equated with competence. The assessment of performance alters acceptable methods of learning--knowing.

<u>Values Underlying Competency-Based Programs</u>

To change our perceptions of the learning--knowing process means the acceptance of a new set of values about education and professional preparation. I am indebted to Dr. Theodore E. Andrews (1971), for work he did on a competency-based teachers certification program devised for the State of Washington. With only moderate revisions, to make the value applicable to volunteer administration, his assumptions appear below:

1. Every individual is unique and has a unique learning style.

   [Adults should have the freedom to select learning experiences conducive to their self-development and professional growth.]

2. Professional preparation should continue throughout the career of the practitioner.

   [We live in a society characterized by change. We must expect that the roles as well as the areas of competencies demanded of volunteer administrators will change. Preparation must be seen a a continuing and career-long process. In addition it is unrealistic and inappropriate to expect the beginning professional to demonstrate all of the abilities expected of the experienced professional. Therefore, continuing learning experiences must be available to all persons practicing in the field.]

3. Life experiences, local agencies and institutions, and professional associations, as well as colleges and universities should be recognized viable avenues for professional preparation.

[If preparation programs are to be relevant, representatives of all agencies and agents which are affected by or which affect education should participate in isolating areas of competence and professional standards.]

4. Preparation should be based upon performance; performance in relation to stated objectives in the world of the practitioner.

   [Since it is on-the-job performance which separates the effective from the ineffective professional, preparation experiences should be designed around, or be based upon, performance objectives and behavioral outcomes.]

5. Preparation and career development programs should be individualized.

   [If preparation programs for volunteer services administrators are to be consistent with what is known about learning and about the individual, preparation programs must permit a person to progress at his own rate and in a manner consistent with his unique learning style and personal characteristics.]

(Items 2, 3, 4, and 5 are borrowed from Andrews, 1972, p. 4)

These values and assumptions represent significant departures from previously accepted methods of professional preparation and from most standard practices of certifying professionals. Let's examine them more closely. These tenents hold that the professional is responsible for guiding and directing his/her own career preparation. Hours of attendance in continuing education programs, and formal degrees held, are no longer sufficient, in and of themselves, to constitute competence on the job. Furthermore they suggest that the individual has the freedom to determine his/her own learning needs and, the corresponding responsibility to follow through on a self-designed learning program. The professional may select to attend formal educational programs, to participate in agency related or professional association meetings, or to design a self-study program (or any combination of these methods) to learn the skills needed for the position of volunteer administration. The bottom line in the professional preparation program is the individual's ability to perform effectively on the job. It is on the basis of the evidence of the ability to perform that the professional is judged in a performance-based certification program.

Determining What One Needs to "Know" and to "Do"

The specification of the competencies to be learned and the performances to be demonstrated are the keystone of a performance-based certification program. And like any keystone, it is the most vulnerable point in the structure (Hall and Jones, 1976). To criticize the competencies and performance criteria once established on the lack of baseline data is not sufficient to abandon the process. Similar criticism is no less deserved in other traditional learning forms, and yet one has not witnessed a mass exodus from formal educational programs on the basis of such accusations. Formal education preparation programs have the luxury of relying on tradition, but tradition holds no corner on the market of acceptable performance on the job. In fact, it is largely because traditional measures have been tried and found wanting that competencies and performance measures have surfaced a viable and necessary approach to professional certification.

Multiple methods have been suggested for the identificaiton of competencies and performance standards--the apex of a performance-based certification program (Hall and Jones, 1976). Existing curriculums can be analyzed, competencies identified and lists compiled. One can also refer to lists of competencies used by similar occupational groups and isolate relevant knowledge area.

A job analysis, performed to isolate the tasks performed by the professional on a daily basis offers another alternative. This approach is most appropriate when viewing the job of a technician. But, when one views the job of a professional, it becomes quickly apparent that what separates a professional from a skilled technician is that the professional must carefully, and effectively apply theory--the knowing of what and when--to the actual application of the how. Identifying only the visible applications of the knowledge disguises the important rationale that determines the why of performing a particular task.

Input from the client who receives or benefits from the professional's skills represents another approach to the identification of competencies. The merit of this approach is readily evident, but not so clear is the identification of who the client actually is for many professional groups. Furthermore, it is nearly impossible to control the experiences of a client to adequately separate the effects of the professional from other variables impacting the life of the client. In the case of volunteer services administration one would be left with the job of determining if the "client" is the volunteer, or if the "client" is the person receiving the services of the volunteer. Furthermore, the programs and agencies using volunteer services, and the volunteers themselves, are so radically diverse as to make this approach not only cumbersome, but nearly impossible.

The professionals themselves can be quiered to identify the competencies they need and the tasks they perform in executing their resposibilities. Information can be gathered from three vantage points. The professional can be asked what preparation they wished they had had prior to assuming their responsibilities. Information can be gathered from three vantage points. The professional can be asked what preparation they wished they had had prior to assuming their responsibilities. They can be asked what information they need to fulfill their responsibilities on a daily basis. Finally, they can be requested to project the future needs of the professional and corresponding preparation requirements. If one allows for, and attempts to correct for, bias as well as potentially inflated expectations, this approach has considerable merit. The practitioner him/herself is on the front line and can identify important areas for consideration.

A final approach to competency identification is based on theoretical construct development. Theories important to the profession in question are identified. Competencies and performance expectations derived from the theories form the basis of the program. Curriculum building is often handled in this fashion. This approach is somewhat analogous to involving "experts" in a competency-based program. Experts usually schooled in underlying theories determine the competencies and performances which would eminate from the theories. Though meritorious this approach is not without its drawbacks. An excessive reliance on theory tends to equate competence with teh acquisition of knowledge and less with its application. The knowing/doing balance must be carefully guarded.

What the Volunteer Administrator Needs to Know and to Do

A mixture of these methods was employed in arriving at the competencies which comprise AAVS's Performance-Based Certification Program in Volunteer Administration. A thorough review of management theory enlarged to include the contemporary problems in service institution management and volunteer administration identified the constructs underlying the administrative function. A review of learning needs surveys and existing curriculum in the field of volunteer administration helped to refine the list of management compentencies and to add additional ones germane to the field of practice. A survey of 50 persons was then employed to determine the accuracy of the compentencies. Performance criteria, were added to the list of competencies used in the survey. The performance criteria are the actual measures that would be used to determine if the applicant possesses the stated competencies. The final draft of competencies and performance criteria for Certification emerged from the survey results.

The competencies and performance criteria for certification in volunteer administration fall within four major categories. Those categories are:

Program Planning and Organization

Staffing and Directing

Controlling (Evaluation)

Agency, Community and Professional Relations

A total of 19 competencies with nearly 100 possible performance criteria comprise the Performance-Based Certification Program in Volunteer Administration.

What Really Matters: The Value of a Performance-Based Certification Program to the Applicant

In an analysis of several occupational groups to determine what makes a competent professional Klemp (1977) identified several interesting findings. The ability to be willing and able to learn was more important to competent professional performance than the actual amount of knowledge held by the professional!

> It is not the acquisition of knowledge or even the use of knowledge that distinguishes the outstanding performer, but rather the cognitive skills that are exercised and developed in the process of knowledge acquisition and use that constitute occupational competence. In other words, the information processing skills related to learning, recall, and forgetting are not so important to success as the conceptual skills that enable one to bring order to information chaos that characterizes one's everyday environment. (p. 2)

Three main cognitive skills related to competent performance in a wide array of occupations (Klemp, 1977):

1. The ability to see broad thematic consistencies in diverse information and the ability to organize and communicate those differences.

2. The ability to conceptualize the many sides of a controversial issue: the ability to understand the underlying issues and the many perspectives on it and to resolve the conflict for him/herself and other people.

3. The ability to learn from experience.

Klemp's findings are critical to all professionals, not only to volunteer administrators. He has experimentally verified what has long seemed intuitively apparent to the astute observer: the competent professional is one who can make sense out of information, conceptualize, and learn from experience. But the progression from the identification of the "true" marks of a competent professional, to ways to assess an individual's relative abilities in these cognitive areas has only just begun.

Paper and pencil tests have long been criticized as they so inadequately measure the richness of thinking and behaving. Direct observation is difficult to implement due to expense and control factor. The subjective qualities of "common sense", "ability to relate well to people" to "conceptualize" and "to learn from experience" are commonly outside of the range of currently available testing devices.

Yet, because our technology of ability measurement is not yet refined enough to get at these larger, more consequential characteristics of people functioning in their professional environment does not mean we must abandon all attempts to evaluate performance. Until more refined techniques are available, the compilation of a portfolio documenting skills is one alternative currently available. It requires the applicant to show evidence of a skill through the production of actual working materials that have exercised that skill.

Analyzing one's skills, compiling documentation to verify the application of these abilities is a key ingredient to learning from experience. The Performance-Based Certification Program offers the applicant a structured format for this very vital learning process. It encourages and enables an individual to assess his/her experience and to learn from that experience. The Performance-Based Certification Program assists the development of the conceptual skills essential to competent professional performance. Developing a portfolio that compiles and verifies the learning that has resulted from the experiences is no doubt more valuable to the applicant who must do the compiling than to the evaluator who must review the material. The importance of assessing job related knowledge and skills through portfolio documentation is especially critical for professionals who have acquired job-knowledge in non-traditional ways. It is the process of compiling the portfolio around key competencies in volunteer services administration that is the crux of this Certification Program.

For more information about the AAVS Performance-Based Certification Program for Volunteer Administrators, write AAVS c/o Martha Martin, Executive Secretary, P.O. Box 4584, Boulder, CO 80306.

Footnotes

*Licensure is the process whereby a governmental agency grants permission to an individual to engage in an occupational practice. It is generally not a voluntary practice. Both licensure and certification are considered credentialing practices.

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Staff/Board Relations

by Delwyn A. Dyer
Oscar M. Williams

Organizations, especially voluntary organizations, run most effectively and efficiently when staff and board members work creatively together for efficient delivery of the organization's service or product. The appropriate mix is what William Conrad calls "dynamic tension: between the interests and judgements of the board as they represent the community and the programmatic judgement of the staff as they pursue the purposes and goals of the organization through activity and programs.

Many organizations in America begin in an ad hoc way. A handful of individuals interested in response to a particular problem voluntarily associate themselves for the purpose of problem solving. In the beginning the staff or human resource pattern is almost always volunteer. As the organization grows, what had been a totally democratic effort where all members had equal responsibility for program direction and policy changes to a representative form of governance. A board, commission or council now directs the affairs of the organization. As the organization gets more complex in its program response, it grows into a combination of paid staff and volunteer effort. When paid staff are added, the role and function of the board, the organization and the volunteer change, often creating new problems.

Not all volunteer boards begin as described above. Some boards are created in support of efforts under the direction of staff and programs created by legislative or other governmental action. In these cases, we think of these boards or committees as advisory. Again, problems arise as staff and boards struggle to become useful and productive with each other.

This article sets aside the question of whether the Chief Executive is hired by the board (i.e.: Governing Board) or whether the board is initiated by the Executive in support of program and organizational development (Advisory). It does so under the realization that Boards have important functions to perform that cannot be performed by staff, and visa versa.

To highlight these roles and functions, they will be presented according to areas of "tension" most often stated by board members and staff as they work together.

To engage the reader in thinking about these issues, arguments will be presented on either side and then the author's personal beliefs will be stated.

BOARD TRAINING

The Executive's View

The Chief Executive must be concerned about the quality of the board and its ability to make goal and policy decisions that are appropriate for the growth and effectiveness of the organization. The Chief Executive should play an active role in organizing and presenting board training. The Chief Executive needs to be certain that the training

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includes information that will prepare the board members to make those decisions most supportive of the executive's efforts on behalf of the organization.

The Board's View

The board is responsible for the organization. It is responsible to the community and the membership. It must make decisions to reflect the views and values of these publics. Consequently, it should decide the type of training it needs.

The Authors' View

A major responsibility of a board is that of Human Resource Development. This includes development (training) for board and staff alike. This obligation can never be consciously fulfilled without the board members having a clear understanding of their own needs in relationship to the mission of the organization and the rigours of its undertaking. The training of board members is the responsibility of board and most specifically the chairperson of the board. The Chief Executive can very much assist in developing the training plan and in providing those programmatic information sets that will be useful for the board.

The roles and responsibilities of the board, in the final analysis, must be clear: It is the Board's--and the Board's alone--sole responsibility for defining the mission and establishing the policies of the organization based on the input from the many publics it represents and serves. Such responsibilities do not, and indeed must not, eliminate the active concern and participation of the board's Chief Executive officer. The function of this officer must be to facilitate the board's training, not direct it. The concern of the Chief Executive, rightly enough, must be for the quality of the board and its ability to make policy decisions appropriately for the growth and effectiveness of the organization, but this concern should not be based solely on what the Chief Executive himself/herself believes to be best for the organization.

The training of the board members should be a task undertaken primarily by the board members involving trusted and competent resource persons either within or without the organization and carried out under the board's direction. The Chief Executive can and should be most supportive of such an effort.

NOMINATIONS TO THE BOARD

The Executive's View

In order that the Executive can be sure that individuals selected will support the kind of programs the agency currently has underway, it is most important that the Chief Executive take the primary role in identifying appropriate individual's to serve on the organization's board. Most particularly the new board members should come from the cadre of trusted volunteers active and proven in program delivery--those who "understand" the organization and its purpose.

The Board's View

Board members should nominate their own members. After all, to accomplish any worthwhile task people must be able to work together. Who knows better than the board member those individuals with whom they work best.

The Authors' View

Most organizations whose board members are not appointed by an external agency, generally have prescribed within their by-laws the method by which members are selected for board membership. The important task of selecting for board membership should not be left to the Chief Executive or to the board members alone. Each must have active input. Board nominations are the responsibility of an on-going committee in the board that are concerned about having a "board bank" of potential members. When vacancies do occur, through expiration or resignation, the board has a pool of candidates to choose from that would provide the best balance for the board in relation to: client representation, community resource access, understanding mission and purpose, and those other important ingredients that make for a board that either governs or provides quality advice to the voluntary association.

Informed and active boards are as critical to the organization as good staff and volunteers. All members, board and staff, should search for persons (1) aware and supportive of the organization's mission, (2) possessing skills needed by the organization, (3) representative of the population and/or client system utilizing the products and/or services of the organization, and (4) who has time available to give in support of the organization mission.

PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT

The Executive's View

The Chief Executive is responsible for developing all program efforts and supervising and managing those on behalf of the organization including fund raising, program service, fiscal responsibility and personnel management. The board need not concern itself with these matters. The Executive is a professional.

The Board's View

The board is created to develop and/or implement the programs of the organization. Unless it does this, it defaults in a major area of its responsibility.

The Authors' View

The board's view in program development is to establish achievable goals and parameters of those goals. The Chief Executive, in collaboration with other staff members, has the responsibility of developing, managing and delivering all program activity as it relates to the delivery of the organization's services or products. On the other hand, the board has responsibility for work which interfaces the organization or agency with the community or with other agencies in the community. The board should also take an active role in the fund raising and recruitment of board members. Indeed, many believe these to be primarily board responsibilities. While day to day fiscal management is the responsibility of the Chief Executive, the board needs to be certain that there are appropriate procedures for the dispersement and accountability of funds and that personnel matters are dealt with in the best interest of the organization's guidelines and society's concerns.

Program development is an aspect of resource development. It includes such functions as fund raising, property acquisition, personnel administration, and image building. These functions must be provided for by the board. The line of demarcation regarding board and staff responsibilities is not clearly marked. For many practical reasons, it need not be. Fund raising, for example, may be a definite function of the board, yet, a staff position may be created for a grants person. The Chief Executive because of connections with professional societies and colleagues may be in an excellent position to identify funds and programs.

PROGRAMS AND PROCEDURES

The Executive's View

The Chief Executive is in the position of knowing which programs are needed and the best way to get these delivered. Yes, the Chief Executive and his/her staff need to have the freedom to decide on what programs the agency should deliver and how they should be organized.

The Board's View

Why should the board be held responsible for programs and procedures developed by the staff? Programs and procedures should be developed by the board if it is going to be held responsible for their implementation in the organization and the community at large.

The Authors' View

While it is generally agreed that staff has the responsibility for creation and maintance of a program delivery system, it is not its prerogative to independently decide which programs. The responsibility for program selection rests with the board which should solicit staff input and counsel. The board has the responsibility for seeing that programs and procedures are developed that will enhance the mission of the agency. Boards that neglect this responsibility all too often discover that staff--paid and volunteer--have devised programs and procedures designed to achieve goals and purposes not defined by the mission of the organization. In these instances, the board is left to bear any negative consequences.

An additional important function boards have in relation to program is to get agreement from the community that this program is needed and deserving of support. Another important function of the board is to attract clients who could benefit from the program. In this regard, a board can provide useful counsel to staff on the perceived appropriateness of the proposed delivery system.

In summary, no program or procedure should be implemented without the board's knowledge and without their understanding of how it compliments the mssion of the organization.

On the other hand, staff's responsibility in the total area of deciding on program and procedure must be acknowledged. That responsibility includes the identification of programmatic needs and the implementation of these programs once their broad parameters have been established.

ORGANIZATION OWNERSHIP

The Executive's View

The organization belongs to the staff and most specifically to the Chief Executive. Who else works full time at it; who else worries and sweats over the lack of resources or the crises that seem to arise almost daily? It would be nice if one could get the board to take some of this responsibility, but most just won't.

The Board's View

The ownership of the organization must lie with those highly selected persons who are mandated to direct the resources, prestige and collective powers of the body to the accomplishment of the ends set before it. The board is the head and must take ownership--for good or for ill--for the achievements of the organization.

The Authors' View

Both board and staff should feel a part of the organization professionally, neither should feel that the organization belongs to them personally. The achievement of this level of feeling requires constant effort and sensitivity. All must feel they are part of a great organization engagd in important work. Board members can take pride in maintaining an effective and useful organizaiton, but must always give due credit to staff and program volunteers who deliver the organization product or service. It is certainly appropriate for staff to feel ownership from a dedication and motivation point of view; however, it is not productive for the staff to think or behave as if it has "sole" or exclusive ownership.

A sense of organizational ownership must also be present in the community if the organization is to successfully fulfill its social or societal mission. Fostering this sense of community pride is a responsibility of the individual board members--but not theirs alone. Staff--paid and volunteer--must spread good words about benefits and services of the organization to the community.

In reality, the organization must belong to the community. All community members associated in any way should take great pride in ownership. For it is the community's resources which are being utilized, and the service or product is for the citizen's benefit.

STAFF SUPPORT TO COMMITTEES OF THE BOARD

The Executive's View

The Chief Executive must provide staff support to committees of the board. Staff are there not to do the work of the committee or unduly influence their decision, but rather to provide information about the current operation of the agency in the area under study and provide the secretarial function for the committee.

The organization, board and staff, must always be aware of the human resource requirement of the agencies/organizations program and service delivery side and utilize staff in the most efficient way. Staff support to committees must be decided jointly by the Chief Executive and the Board Chairperson with these programs and planning commitments in mind.

The Board's View

The board and its committee should be free from staff interference. The information it needs from the organization can be gotten from the Chief Executive or the members. Why should nosey staff be allowed to meddle in board business?

The Authors' View

In this instance we agree with the view of the Executive as outlined above. Staff can and should support the work of the board and board-established committees. Committees permit the organization to utilize a representative sample of its membership to explore concerns that are more effectively explored by a small working group. Such a group may require the knowledge or skills of resources outside its own membership. Staff persons often possess these skills or knowledge and can be of great service to the board.

Staff support to the board does not infer staff membership on the board. It is important that staff assigned to committees of the board remember that the communication (formally speaking) flows through the committee chairperson to the board and its chairperson. The chairperson of the board communicates with the chief executive officer. It is inappropriate for staff members to carry their grievances with the Executive to the board members engaged in the committee's work or to carry grievances to the Board Chairperson about the lack of board member productivity on the committee. In each case, the staff's redress is through the Chief Executive.

GUARANTEEING THE QUALITY OF THE STAFF

The Executive's View

Quality of staff is the responsibility of the Chief Executive. The board should not be involved in evaluation or supervision of staff.

The Board's View

The board is ultimately liable for the activity or inactivity of the staff. Never should it allow itself to become saddled with incompetent staff selected by its Chief Executive.

The Authors' View

It is generally accepted that the board should have a key role in the selection and supervision of the Chief Executive and that in turn, the Chief Executive is responsible for all other staff. The Board has a very important role of assuming that the Chief Executive is as competent as he/she can be through prior experience, on-the-job growth, or special new training.

The quality of the staff begins with the board assuring the quality of the Chief Executive. A Chief Executive must be selected based on several critical factors. These factors include: professional ability, commitment to the organization's mission, interpersonal skill, and the organization's ability to pay. Obtaining such a Chief Executive is considered by many to be the most important function of the board. For most boards, the employment of the top administrator is the only direct hiring it can appropriately do. This individual is the link between the board and staff. He or she must interpret to the staff the intentions and policies of the board.

Once the board has filled the position of Chief Executive, he/she should be allowed to administer the duties and responsibilities of the position. The Chief Executive's guidelines and job description should clearly set forth what is expected.

The quality of the staff other than the Chief Executive is primarily a responsibility of the Chief Executive. Unless illegal or serious violations of employment practices are being committed, the board should not interfere.

The Chief Executive should exercise extreme care to assure that staff of the highest quality possible is selected for the positions within the organizaiton. Once secured, this staff should be encouraged to remain professionally up-to-date through refresher courses, in-service training, professional seminars, and the like. Clearly defined positions and job descriptions as well as alert management and fair administrative practices are essential.

SUPERVISING AND EVALUATING STAFF

The Executive's View

Staff hiring and firing, staff counseling and supervision and staff personnel or program conflict resolution is the responsibility of the Chief Executive. At no time should board be involved in or concerned with these matters.

The Board's View

The Board is remiss if it does not supervise and evaluate the staff. It is the boss. "What the boss supervises and checks, gets done", is the appropriate response to those persons desiring to have their organization move ahead. Unless the board supervises and evaluates the staff, the staff will become lax.

The Authors' View

The activities of the Chief Executive should be supervised by the board. Questions regarding lesser staff members should be referred to the Chief Executive Director. The board is obligated to hear staff grievances that come to it through the proper channels.

Routine hiring, firing, evaluation, and counseling should be left to the Chief Executive to be done in accordance to board-approved personnel policies.

The board's personnel policies should clearly set forth the promotion and evaluation procedures. These procedures and their criteria should be perceived by the staff as fair objective and achievable. The personnel policy should spell out the grievance procedures as well.

The board should insure that procedures are adopted whereby staff can have conflict resolution relative to program competition. Such a set of procedures often eliminates the temptation of staff to go past the Chief Executive to the board or of board members to by-pass the Chairperson and work with staff on concerns about programs or behavior.

SUMMARY

Effective organizations require qualified staff, trained volunteers and committed board members anxious to give full attention to the work of the organization.

Each entity has unique and specific functions. Each function is as important as any other and requires input from the many individuals who possess knowledge or information about it.

Those organizations having clear assignment of function and role behaviors and agreed upon ways for others to support that function seem most effective and useful to the communities they serve.

No doubt the reader has experienced "tensions" not covered in this article. The authors have found it helpful to present opposing views or board and staff. Perhaps the reader could add to the list.

The authors arrived at the viewpoints articulated above after intensive search for the appropriate functions for staff and board regardless of the organizational structure or purpose.

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Developing Effective Volunteer Services

by Nancy Hedrick, M.A.

The equivalent of one person working full-time for over thirty years - 70,000 hours - has been devoted in a period of ten years at Prairie View, a rural comprehensive mental health center in the heart of Kansas. Over 350 persons have contributed time, talent and energy in a volunteer program to supply emotional support to patients, i.e. persons with "problems in living". How has time, talent and energy been mobilized and sustained through the years? This article is an attempt to answer that question; it is an effort to clarify guidelines for setting up and maintaining an effective volunteer program in a community mental health center. The program model presented here could be altered to be used in other institutional settings such as a general hospital psychiatric unit, a hospice, or a church.

HISTORY

Prairie View Mental Health Center, established 25 years ago, as a private psychiatric hospital today is a non-profit 43-bed psychiatric hospital and a comprehensive mental health center serving three counties on a contractual basis to the extent that the combination of private fees, insurance and public money allows. It is sponsored by the Mennonite churches but aims for close cooperation with the community and seeks to blend these two dynamics with the concern and skills of the staff and volunteers to make available a comprehensive program.

Prairie View is committed to a community philosophy that the less a person who is experiencing problems in living is separated from his or her support system, of family and friends, the more quickly a sense of well-being can be regained. Prairie View attempts to utilize community resources and talents through an active volunteer program to reinforce this philosophy.

The volunteer program utilizes volunteers in every treatment modality. It is a service oriented program, providing human resources, not financial resources. Volunteer participation is not in lieu of paid staff participation but rather an additional dimension of participation enriching the treatment program.

Today 77 persons volunteer on a regular basis. This is a ratio of one volunteer to every two full-time paid staff members. Volunteers bring diverse experiences and talents to the treatment program. Sixty volunteers are females, 17 males. Age ranges from 18 to 77. Thirty-four are housewives, 8 college students, 13 retired persons, 22 employed persons (secretaries, insurance executive, SRS case worker, teachers, school counselor, nurses, factory foreman). Volunteers come from six Kansas counties, several from foreign countries who are visiting in the area. Each in his or her own unique way with one common interest - caring - provides a link in a community support network.

ORGANIZATION OF A VOLUNTEER PROGRAM

Since its inception Prairie View has utilized volunteer talent, but it was not until 1968 that an effort was made to mobilize volunteers in an organized volunteer program. It is important in organizing a volunteer program that the Director be a staff member who is in contact with all aspects of the center and

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who knows the local community. The Director of Personnel is a logical person to direct the volunteer program as volunteers are a human resource just as employees are. After designating a staff person to initiate an organized program a task force of professional staff invited all staff members to suggest volunteer needs and express concerns about initiating such a program. After five months of meeting every other week, a definite need for a volunteer program was determined with full backing of the staff.

To involve the community in planning the program, an advisory committee representing the three contact counties was appointed by the County Commissioners. The goal of the volunteer program as defined by staff and the committee is twofold: the volunteer should symbolize to the patient contact with the outside community and in reverse the volunteer should represent to the public the concept of a mental health center and its needs. A volunteer program should lessen the center's "isolation" from both directions.

The committee members serving three year terms, meet monthly with the Volunteer Director. The members act as advisors in developing and sustaining a systematic volunteer program.

An organized plan for utilizing human resources is as essential in working with volunteers as it is in working with staff members. The plan utilizes job planning, recruitment, application, placement, orientation, ongoing training, evaluation and explicit policies and record keeping.

The Volunteer Services Committee initially recruited 30 volunteers. Through theyears volunteers themselves have been the best recruiters; their appeals are based on enthusiasm from their own volunteer experience. No public appeal for volunteers via the media has been made.

The application process is similar to the hiring process with interviewing, screening and references.

Volunteer placement requires care and skill. The volunteer's interest must be matched with the institution's needs. Asking a very capable person to carry out trivial responsibilities is deadly in a volunteer program. A volunteer is placed from the beginning in a position that makes immediate use of education and experience. After assessment of institutional need and the volunteer's qualifications placement is made based on a realistic assessment of time the volunteer is able to give. Each volunteer is assigned to a staff supervisor.

Orientation includes an overview of the Prairie View history, program and philosophy. The fact is stressed that the volunteer by virtue of giving time and talent is supplying an ingredient which paid personnel cannot provide - companionship and concern which have no price tag. The importance of confidentiality is also stressed.

On-the-job training and performance evaluation is the responsibility of the supervisor. The supervisor-volunteer relationship is important. The volunteer is encouraged to share feelings with the supervisor regarding the volunteer's experience. Evaluation with the supervisor is made after an initial three-month commitment is completed. If the experience has not been mutually satisfactory, the volunteer has an acceptable way to withdraw or be placed elsewhere.

Ongoing training includes annual classes for volunteers (three one-half day sessions) dealing with topics of developing skill in working with patients and personal growth. The Volunteer Services Committee plans the topics. Discounts for workshops offered by the center are often granted to volunteers. The professional library is available to volunteers.

Record keeping is similar to record keeping for personnel including application and vita, time records, quarterly reports and annual reports, current roster and schedule of placement. Ongoing record keeping reveals an overview of the program's development. For example, tenure can be analyzed: 4 of the current volunteers started in 1969, 6 in 1970, 3 in 1971, etc. The continuation of the volunteer in service reflects how well the needs of the volunteer and the program have been met.

Volunteers are involved in roles in every treatment modality. In Creative Arts the role is to assist by interacting with patients verbally and through craft media. Even if a volunteer works on a personal craft project, it is therapeutic if a sense of satisfaction is imparted to the patient. In the Day Center the volunteer acts as receptionist, socializes with patients and in some instances participates in group therapy. A volunteer is assigned to a particular patient in a one-to-one relationship in the companionship role. Assignments are made in the inpatient, day patient and aging programs. A tea once a month for inpatients, day patients and a rotating portion of the staff is provided by a group of volunteers. A volunteer acts as clerk and receptionist at the Medication Clinic. Volunteers participate in socialization groups and in groups in the alcohol and drug abuse program. Volunteers in music provide music for the weekly worship service, group sessions with children and are on call to give private piano lessons to patients. Volunteer librarians take responsibility for the Prairie View professional library. In psychodrama sessions for children and adults, volunteers play supporting roles. On-call volunteers make posters, take pictures for displays, and act as hosts for large gatherings.

Not all volunteer roles have been successful. An attempt was made to develop an ongoing musical group for inpatients. The lack of continuity in musical talent due to patient turnover and short inpatient stays made this volunteer effort not feasible. Furnishing transportation has not been a satisfying role for volunteers.

GUIDELINES FOR A VOLUNTEER PROGRAM

Emerging from the Prairie View experience several guidelines appear to be important.

Separate a service volunteer program from a fund raising program. The two most essential resources to any institution are human resources and financial resources. A volunteer who is interested in working directly with patients may not be interested in participating in fund raising projects and vice versa. To mix the two objectives without being atune to the volunteer's needs detracts from achieving the full potential of patient related service and fund raising.

Capitalize on the volunteer-supervisor relationship. The supervisor's support is essential in planning and sustaining a volunteer role. The volunteer needs to feel a part of the treatment team, needs to share concerns in working with patients with someone who is knowledgeable, needs feedback that he or she is doing a good job. A close working relationship between the volunteer and the supervisor is the key to an effective volunteer program.

Provide institutional recognition and other rewards for volunteers. In the Prairie View program each volunteer who serves 25 hours or more a year is recognized at a volunteer awards banquet. Certificates are given to those serving 25 to 100 hours, engraved silver plates for 100 to 200 hours, an engraved silver bowl for 200 or more hours. Accumulated hours are recognized by 1040-2080 club membership. A volunteer who has worked the equivalent of one-half a year full time (1,040 hours) is awarded a 1040 plaque and for the equivalent of one year full-time work (2,080 hours) is awarded a 2080 plaque. Public recognition helps give the volunteer identification with the institution.

Tangible evidence of recognition such as awards, though symbolic of the appreciation for the volunteer service, in the final anaysis is subordinate to intangible rewards. The highest recognition a volunteer can have is a feeling of being needed, the supervisor's thank you at the end of the assignment, the center's acceptance of the volunteer as a vital part of the total program as shown in the daily attitude of staff and the administration. By administering a volunteer program in a similar way to the personnel program, investing in training and supervision, recognition is given to the fact that the volunteer is viewed as a human resource just as a paid staff member. The attitude of considering the volunteer as a valuable human resource helps the volunteer to use capacities to the fullest to obtain not only individual satisfaction but also satisfaction of being part of the work group.

In analyzing who benefits from a volunteer program, hopefully the patients, volunteers, staff members, and the community benefit. The patients benefit by volunteer participation in knowing that members of the community care enough about them as persons and are accepting enough to give time and talent. Such caring has made significant contribution to many person's lives and has been a part of the healing which has occurred. Volunteers serve as role models of persons who are successfully coping with society. Staff members benefit by experiencing the support and empathy that volunteers provide. The center itself gains in that volunteers who feel useful and who experience personal growth take back to the community their enthusiasm and interest thus lessening the gap between the center and its constituents. The community benefits by gaining understanding of mental health concerns by volunteers taking to the community their interest and spirit of the work which is being done. Volunteers benefit by the opportunity for personal growth and learning.

The sense of participation and involvement of patients, staff and volunteers fulfills the goal of the program and contributes towards lessening the center's isolation from the patient's perspective and also from the community perspective.

Guidelines for Contributors

Volunteer Administration welcomes articles from administrators, faculty, board members, volunteers, agency staff members, and anyone else interested in sharing knowledge and experiences dealing with practical concerns, philosophical issues and applicable research.

Those who wish to submit manuscripts are encouraged to do so according to the following guidelines.

1) Manuscripts should be five to twenty pages in length, with some exceptions.

2) Footnotes should appear at the end of the manuscript followed by references listed in alphabetical order.

3) Manuscripts should be typed doubled-spaced on 8½" x 11" paper.

4) Unpublished manuscripts will be returned to the authors with comments and criticism. Published manuscripts will not be returned to the authors.

5) The authors should send a cover letter authorizing Volunteer Administration to publish the article submitted, if found acceptable, and a brief biographical sketch.

6) The author should not submit the article to any other publisher during the period when it is under consideration by Volunteer Administration.

7) The review process for a submitted article usually takes six weeks to three months. Each article will be reviewed by at least two consulting editors and an Association editor.

8) Authors of published articles will receive two complimentary copies of the issue carrying their article.

9) Send three copies of the article to:

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Development of a Scale to Measure Attitudes Toward Volunteers

by Pierre Woog, Ph. D.[2]

When the W. K. Kellogg Foundation supported Adelphi University's Center on Volunteerism the accepted proposal stated that as one evaluation strategy a scale would be found, or constructed, that related to volunteers' "self-image" and would be used in a pre-post format as a measure of the project's impact. This study reports the attempts to secure such a scale, the subsequent construction of the scale, evidence of the scale's utility and recommended use for the scale.

In an attempt to secure an existing scale a computer search of Psychological Abstracts 1967 through March 1978 was done. The descriptors used were: "volunteer personnel," "volunteer civilian personnel," "self-concept", and "self-perception". This search netted eleven studies, none of which included relevant scales. Inquiries were made in writing and by telephone to sources such as the National Information Center on Volunteerism and the National Center for Voluntary Action. Also personal inquiries were made to nationally known individuals in the field of volunteerism. These efforts failed to uncover any existing scales. It was then determined that a scale would have to be constructed. All those communicated with stressed the need for such a scale. For example, one letter stated, "You have embarked on a very important study, and also a VERY COMPLICATED ONE.

These efforts at a literature search not only pointed to the need to develop a scale but much information, including articles and bibliographic references, was gathered that would be used to construct items to build a scale. The literature stressed two points related to volunteerism. First, the amorphous character of volunteerism and second, the heterogeneous nature of the volunteer population. The scale needed to elicit attitudes that could be perceived within and generalized to countless settings. Volunteerism is interwoven into the fabric of all our social and cultural enterprises. It is not unique to any of our descriptive demographic benchmarks such as age, sex, geography, education, or even, enterprise. Thus, any scale would have to be widely generalizable and yet be sensitive enough to stimulate a respondent's attitude. One such scale is Kogan's (1960), "Attitude Toward Old People Scale." Kogan developed a scale that was generalizable enough to cut across a most vague and heterogeneous construct, the aged, and yet was sensitive enough to discriminate attitudes among a wide variety of persons and perspectives. The scale has had a remarkable record as an evaluative and diagnostic tool (Woog and Goldman, 1975).

Kogan's scale uses a seven-point Likert format ranging from "strongly disagree" (1) to "strongly agree" (7) omitting a neutral point (4). This was done in order to help the respondent "take a stand". It is composed of thirty-four items, each of which contains

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a positive or negative statement regarding the aged. Scoring reverses positive items so that a single score results with a low score indicating more positive attitude. To construct a scale to measure attitudes toward volunteers the same format was chosen with a minor scoring modification that results in a high score indicating a more positive attitude towards volunteers.

The first draft of the scale was composed of forty-four statements each intended to present a positive or negative image of the volunteer. Respondents were asked the degree to which they agreed or disagreed with the portrayal. The scale instructions established a context of what the respondent felt "people" generally believed. This context was established in order to reduce "socially acceptable" responses and thus minimize the "fakability" of the scale. Items were found from Selvidge (1978), Frost (1977), Durrette (1977), Barberto and Hall (1977), Ekstrum, Harris and Lockheed (1977), McCarty (1976), Carter and Peterson (1976), and Hodge and Johnson (1970). The initial collection of items was then categorized; a list of categories with sample items, positive and negative, follows.

TABLE I

CATEGORIES AND POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE ITEMS
FROM ATTITUDES TOWARD VOLUNTEERS SCALE

Category	Positive	Negative
Professional - Volunteer Relations	The best delivery of services is by a volunteer-professional team as each brings different knowledge and services to serve the client.	It is generally thought that when volunteers provide direct services to clients, the professional gives up the reward of direct contact with the client.
Motivations for Volunteering	People volunteer because helping others adds to one's daily living.	It is believed that a person volunteers because of guilt feelings.
Characteristics of Volunteers	Most people believe that volunteers are as responsive to supervision as are paid staff.	It is generally thought that since volunteers only work a few hours a week they are not as committed as the professionals.
Results of Volunteerism	Provision should be made for listing volunteer work on employment application forms.	People believe that when a volunteer doesn't show up, it makes no real difference.

The items in the Kogan format, were then utilized in five different settings in order to result in a scale which had sufficient evidence of validity and reliability and an efficient number of items. Validity evidence is an attempt to demonstrate that what you think you are measuring is, what you are measuring. Reliability evidence relates to the stability of the measure. If you measure something inconsistently than you cannot do so accurately. Thus you lose validity. A measure must show evidence of both reliability and validity in order to be of any use. The next two sections of this paper specify how evidence of validity and reliability were obtained. This presents the evidence that allows such a scale to be used.[3]

Reliability Strategies

The scale was administered to two distinct populations in a test re-test design in order to estimate stability of scores. The first group was comprised of members of the COV Community Advisory Board, 16. This group represents a sophisticated population in the field of volunteerism. All the respondents were managers of volunteer programs and/or had an extensive record of volunteer activity. The scale was administered in May and June of 1978 with a thirty-day interval between testings. In addition to responding to the items, the respondents were asked to note any questions they had about format and/or content of items. These comments were later used for qualitative validity analysis.

The second group used for reliability study was undergraduate education majors taking a summer course in education methods, 20. They were distinctly younger than the first group by an average of twenty years per individual and all of them professed a naiveté in the field of volunteerism. The scale was administered in a test re-test design with a four-week interval between testings. This group was asked to respond to the items but was not requested to comment on form or content. The results of these reliability studies will be reported later.

Validity Strategies

There were three distinct validity strategies each responding to a different question. The first asked the question, "Will a panel of experts in volunteerism agree with the substance of the item--do they make sense?" Items were given for reaction to the members of the Community Advisory Board, the COV staff and to Sarah Jane Rehnborg of Rehnbridge Associates: Consultants in Volunteer Management. All items that they suggested as being inappropriate were listed.

The second question was: "Can it be empirically demonstrated that the items cast as negative and positive are so?" Twenty, master level registered nurses were asked to respond to the items by indicating whether they thought the items presented a positive or negative image of the volunteer. Items with at least a seventy-five percent agreement with the original designation, or a validity coefficient of at least .87, were deemed empirically valid. Of the original forty-four items, thirty-three met this criterion.

The third question was: "Is the scale valid enough to identify hypothsized differences--can it be used in hypothesis testing?" This is the most stringent test of a measure (Cronbach and Meehl, 1956).

During the summer of 1978 Sarah Jane Rehnborg presented a one-day seminar to masters level students taking a course in pursuit of their educational certification in supervision at Slippery Rock College. The students ranged in age from thirty to forty-five, used volunteers in their professional work, but were judged to be relatively naive in the area of volunteerism. The title of the guest seminar was, "Volunteers Today". About a week prior to the day of the presentation the original form of the scale was sent to each student. Each was asked to bring the completed form to class. Of the twelve participating students, eight did so. At the close of the presentation the scale was readministered. It was hypothesized that as a result of the presentation, i.e. of intervention, students would demonstrate significantly more positive attitudes, as measured by the scale, toward volunteers than prior to the intervention. The data was analyzed using a "t" test methodology. Although the number of participants was small (8), and the intervention was of short duration, a significant change in the hypothesized direction was found. This notably limited empirical study, using the scale for the purposes of hypothesis testing, was encouraging as a demonstration of the validity of the scale.

Resultant Scale

As a result of the content validation strategies, the validity co-efficient study and the panel of experts, five forms of the test emerged all from test administrations using the original draft form. These are as follows:

Form A. The original draft of the scale resulting in forty-four items.

Form B. The original draft deleting all items that did not meet the seventy-five percent criteria or were judged by experts to be substantively deficient (inappropriate) resulting in twenty-nine items.

Form C. The original draft deleting all items that were judged by experts to be substantively deficient (inappropriate) resulting in thirty-three items.

Form D. The original draft deleting all items that did not meet the seventy-five percent criteria resulting in thirty-three items.

Form E. The original draft deleting all items that were commonly identified using the seventy-five percent criteria and were judged by experts to be substantively deficient (inappropriate) resulting in thirty-seven items.

The goal was to select the one form that demonstrated the greatest degree of empirical validity and reliability and yet was the most efficient. As such, the empirical strategies, which inlcuded both reliability studies and the validity study using a predicted hypothesis of change, were analyzed independently for each of the five forms. Two questions were paramount. First, did the scale, no matter what form, demonstrate a sufficient level of evidence of reliability and validity to be judged to have usefulness? Second, did one form emerge that showed a greater degree of evidence and was efficient?

Table II presents the results of analyses of the scale for each of the five forms. For the reliability studies the means and standard deviations for each test administration and the resultant coefficient of reliability (r) using a Pearson product moment analysis are reported. For the validity study pre and post means, standard deviations, and the resultant probability level of "t" for each of the five forms are reported.

These analyses suggested the following findings:

-- All forms for both reliability studies showed respectable levels of reliability, all greater than .68, for an attitude scale to be administered to groups rather than individuals.

-- Both groups in the reliability study, although very different in composition form one another, derived comparable means and standard deviations. This comparability held up when compared to the post-test means of the validity sample but not for the post-test standard deviations, all of which were greater.

-- For the validity study all forms resulted in higher post-test scores. However, only forms B and E were significantly greater at probability less than .05.

-- Form B of the scale resulted consistently in the higher reliability coefficients, greater than .72, and was the most sensitive in finding a significant difference between pre and post administration (probability, .0134).

TABLE II

RESULTS OF TWO RELIABILITY AND ONE VALIDITY STUDY

FOR ALL FIVE FORMS OF THE ATTITUDES TOWARD VOLUNTEERS SCALE

Format	A(44)		B(29)		C(33)		D(33)		E(37)	
	Group 1*	2**	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Test 1 Means	195.81	191.6	143.4	140.4	156.3	154.4	155.9	158.3	172.5	175.6
Test 1 Standard Deviations	20.48	23.2	15.8	16.1	22.1	18.8	18.9	20.6	22.8	21.7
Test 2 Means	190.68	194.3	140.8	142.5	150.0	156.2	153.4	154.3	166.9	177.2
Test 2 Standard Deviations	25.83	26.31	16.8	16.7	21.2	19.4	20.2	21.1	23.9	19.6
Test re-test Reliability (r)s	.698	.694	.732	.721	.687	.694	.696	.714	.684	.686

* N = 16

** N = 20

	Group 1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2	1	2
Validity Study***	Pre Test	Post Test	Pre Test	Post Test	Pre Test	Post Test	Pre Test	Post Test	Pre Test	Post Test
Means	180.50	200.63	124.13	142.13	143.25	159.25	143.88	159.38	157.38	176.00
Standard Deviations	32.2	31.0	23.0	24.3	33.0	30.0	29.3	2.0	32.3	30.9
"t" test probability	0.354		0.0134		0.0512		0.0720		0.0204	

*** N = 8

These findings pointed towards use of Form B as the revised version of the scale. This version was also the most efficient in that it had the least number of items. What emerged was a short and simple scale with evidence of validity, content and empirical, and reliability. Although the scale needs more validation with greater numbers and more diverse groups and a great deal more item anlayses, it would seem that at this juncture it can make a contibution to measuring persons' attitudes toward volunteers.

The scale has been used now for its original intent. It has been administered to a sample of 177 college freshmen, 121 faculty members and 382 lay volunteers. Eventually, these three groups will be re-administered the scale in the fall of 1980 and the responses will be compared to the currently collected responses. It is hoped that there will be a positive change which will reflect upon the impact of COV. However, even this pre data shows two interesting findings that, hopefully, will lead to further research. First, the average, mean, scores of the three groups show an interesting difference; students, 146, volunteers, 145 and faculty members, 139. Obviously there is a difference in attitudes, as measured, between students and volunteers as compared to faculty members. Second, when the data was collected for faculty members and students it was categorized by department or major. For faculty members little difference was found across departments. For students, however, it was found that a number of students, 35, either did not respond to listing a major area or stated that they were "undecided". The mean for these two groups was 137, substantially less than for the overall Freshmen, 146. This finding is certainly intriguing.

Hopefully, future use of the scale will prove its utility in many diverse settings such as exist in the field of volunteerism. One possible use is that of an evaluation tool in order to measure the effects of programs and/or training experiences. Another use is as a diagnostic tool wherein a group is given the scale and then it is used for discussion purposes such as how attitudes are formed, or specifically when problems appear as uncovered by the scale actions can be planned in order to ameliorate those problems. Finally, the scale can be used to investigate research problems that seek to compare attitudes of various groups and try to discover reasons for differences in attitudes.

The scale in its entirety follows. It should be noted that depending upon the group to whom it is administered the identifying questions will vary. The enclosed form was used for the students. For example when the form was used for volunteers the identifying questions looked like this:

NAME____ DATE________________________

ATTITUDES TOWARD VOLUNTEERS SCALE

Before you respond to the scale please indicate the following:

Have you ever heard of Adelphi University's CENTER ON VOLUNTEERISM (COV)? Yes____

No____

If you responded yes, please indicate how you heard of COV.

____

Sex:

Male_________

Female_______

Age:

Younger than <u>25</u> __________

25 - 35 __________________

36 - 55 __________________

56 or older ______________

How many <u>hours per week</u> do you volunteer work for this agency?_________________

What is the total number of <u>hours per week</u> that you are engaged in voluntary activities?

____

Please check one of the following:

- Volunteer activity is my main source of work. _____
- As a retired person volunteer activity is my main source of work. _____
- Other paid employment is my main source of work. _____

However, after the identifying questions of interest are structured the rest of the form from the title on, should remain intact.

NAME____DATE________________

MAJOR____

CLASS STANDING____________________________________

WOOG"S ATTITUDES TOWARD VOLUNTEERS SCALE

On the following scale, please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement. Circle the number which you believe best describes your feelings, using the following scale.

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Slightly disagree
5. Slightly agree
6. Agree
7. Strongly agree

---

1. People believe that a woman volunteers to assist her husband and/or children.

   1 2 3 5 6 7

2. It is believed that a person volunteers because of guilt feelings.

   1 2 3 5 6 7

3. Professionals believe volunteers don't have the knowledge and/or skills necessary to wrok with clients.

   1 2 3 5 6 7

4. It is generally thought that when volunteers provide direct services to clients, the professional gives up the reward of direct contact with the client.

   1 2 3 5 6 7

5. People believe that when a volunteer doesn't show up, it makes no real difference.

   1 2 3 5 6 7

6. Retired people can find real meaning to life through volunteer work.

7. It is generally thought that since volunteers only work a few hours a week they are not as committed as the professional.

   1 2 3 5 6 7

8. It is generally thought that voluntary agencies misappropriate funds.

   1 2 3 5 6 7

9. Professionals believe that volunteers lack perspective and tend to make snap judgments.

   1 2 3 5 6 7

10. People believe that if volunteers are trained to provide services that professionals are now providing, it will mean a loss of professional jobs and prestige.

1 2 3 5 6 7

11. People realize that volunteers are a necessary part of American Society.

1 2 3 5 6 7

12. Professionals need training in the skills of conducting successful volunteer programs.

1 2 3 5 6 7

13. Most professionals believe that volunteers lack commitment to agency policies.

1 2 3 5 6 7

14. Most people believe that volunteers are as responsive to supervision as are paid staff.

1 2 3 5 6 7

15. Volunteers should be able to receive college credit for their volunteer work experience.

1 2 3 5 6 7

16. People volunteer because helping others adds to one's daily living.

1 2 3 5 6 7

17. People believe that volunteering by women serves to reinforce the second class status of women because it does not further their financial independence.

1 2 3 5 6 7

18. People think that because volunteers don't get paid they come and go as they please.

1 2 3 5 6 7

19. People view the typical volunteer as a white, middle class, married woman between the ages of 25 and 44.

1 2 3 5 6 7

20. After all is said and done, volunteers do not have to cope with the real problems of everyday workers.

1 2 3 5 6 7

21. The best delivery of services is by a volunteer-professional team as each brings different knowledge and services to the client.

1 2 3 5 6 7

22. People believe individuals volunteer to gain social status and recognition.

1 2 3 5 6 7

23. Most people believe that individuals volunteer because they have nothing better to do with their time.

1 2 3 5 6 7

24. Professionals believe that volunteers don't remain with the agency long enough to justify the time and effort necessary to properly train and supervise them.

1 2 3 5 6 7

25. The reward for voluntary service is not what you receive for it but what you become by it.

1	2	3	5	6	7

26. When discussing volunteers, people say that volunteers come and go but problems remain.

1	2	3	5	6	7

27. Because of their flexible schedules, volunteers can offer services to clients outside professional working hours.

1	2	3	5	6	7

28. Provision should be made for listing volunteer work on employment application forms.

1	2	3	5	6	7

29. Volunteerism gives young people opportunities to accept social responsibility through community service work.

1	2	3	5	6	7

The scoring is as follows: For items 6, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 21, 25, 27, 28, and 29 the specific number circled is entered in the left-hand margin as it appears. For items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 13, 17, 18, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, and 26 the scoring is reversed and entered in the left-hand margin. Reverse specifically means that if 1 was circled a 7 is entered, if 2 a 6, if 3 a 5, if 5 a 3, if 6 a 2 and if 7 a one. For example, if for item number 3 a a person circled 2 you would enter a 6 in the margin. Once all the scores, either intact or reversed, have been entered in the margin all 29 are added together. This sum is the score on "Woog's Attitudes Toward Volunteers Scale".

It is hoped that anyone who choses to use the scale will communicate the results to this author in order to continue to validate the scale and to begin to develop appropriate norms. What is now available is a short, simple methodology in the form of an attitude scale in the field of volunteerism.

Footnotes

[1]This scale was constructed under the auspices of Adelphi University's Center on Volunteerism (COV) which is sponsored by the W. I. Kellogg Foundation.

[2]Grateful thanks for assistance in research are due to Patricia Callow, Lisa Lieberman, Susan Staiano, and Bess Vogel. In addition I wish to thank Lynn Brooks, coordinator, and Rhoda White, assistant coordinator of COV, and Sarah Jane Rehnborg of Rehnbridge Associates.

[3]For broad discussion of validity and reliability a good source is Jum Nunnally, PSYCHOMETRIC THEORY, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1967.

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Bringing Consumers On the Board: Viewpoint

by Roger Godsey-Bell

Dear Mr. Whitmore:

It is with mixed feelings that I accept your invitation to join the Board of Directors. I understand that United Way has mandated more "consumers" on the Board. The vast majority of the "consumers" have "jobs," and not "positions" and cannot leave their work to attend your luncheon meetings. Being recently retired, I am one of the few who can attend and I therefore accept that you meet the letter, if not the spirit, of the United Way requirement.

It occurs to me that this letter is beginning to sound hostile. Perhaps I am a little cynical but not hostile. For years the board has been extremely efficient. Funding, staff, and services have increased significantly. I should know; in my closet is every newsletter and every annual report of the association. I have watched six executive directors and twenty-two years go by.

I am sure that you will be surprised to know that twenty years ago, I was chairman of the board. Back then, except for one physician who occasionally came, the whole board consisted of "consumers." We met in each other's homes each month on whatever evening we happened to choose. There was coffee and pastries and we talked for hours. We read the minutes of the last meeting when we had them, but there was no "call to order," no official adjournment, and no motions in between.

Godsey-Bell is the director of Consultation and Education at the Good Samaritan Hospital in Dayton, Ohio.

We did a lot of work, however. First, we raised money. The Community Chest would hardly talk to us about funding a program until we had a program, and we could not have a program without funding. We also discussed the kind of programs we felt were needed. We must have said the same things over and over at every meeting, but that was important. There were no staff, no office, and no clear, long range plans. All that held us together was a dream, and that dream needed to be reaffirmed constantly.

Then we received Community Chest funding and dreamers and bake-sale bakers were no longer so valuable. We needed someone who understood budgets. We needed professionals and businessmen who could talk to the board of the Community Chest as near equals. We needed people who knew about job descriptions, income tax witholdings, by-laws, etc.

As we joined the Community Chest, people like that became interested in joining our board. Soon board meetings began to move regularly from old to new business, and people were amending amendments to motions. The bake-sale bakers felt unnecessary and quickly left the board. Their feelings were mixed to have worked themselves out of a job.

The dreamers held on. Their grand dreams were far from fulfilled, in spite of significant gains which they were proud of. Each month among the motions and the calls for questions, they tried to interject the dream. Gradually ruling out of order, calling for questions, and limiting debate forced all but the most persistant dreamer first to sit quietly for the proper time (which never came) and then to leave the board. The one or two hold-outs were eventually assaulted with phrases like "my time is too valuable to sit and listen to those who enjoy hearing the sound of their own voice." The people being referred to were not mentioned by name, but everyone knew. Eventually they too sat quietly, and then left.

I was one of the first to sit quietly but one of the last to leave. For the past fifteen years I have volunteered my time when I could to various special activities and I have watched. You have been doing a good job, a lot has been done, but our dreams are far from being fulfilled.

Two times in recent years you have asked us our dreams. In the newsletter you called them "needs assessments". We were to indicate our dreams with check marks in little boxes and with small print in the space provided. You once even had a hearing where we could tell our dream in three minutes or less.

It has been my experience that, like vinegar and oil, "consumers" and professionals do not mix or do not stay mixed without continual and vigorous effort. Each needs to remind itself constantly of the importance of the other.

While I certainly have not agreed with every decision the board has made in the past few years, you certainly have provided the brains and the muscle to make the agency grow. But, where is its soul?

Sincerely yours,

A Consumer Off the Board

The Educational Needs of Administrators of Volunteer Services; a survey

developed by AAVS Research Committee;
Roger Godsey-Bell, Chairman

What skills are most useful to an administrator of volunteer services? What are the areas in which these administrators want more training? In what kind of setting do they want this training?

VOLUNTEER, AAVS, and colleges around the country would like to know the answers to these questions. If you can spare 15 minutes of your time, you can help to answer them.

For each question below, please mark your answer on the answer sheet at the end. The results will be published in VA.

For each of the skills listed below you are to indicate how useful that skill is to you personally and how much you feel the need for training in that skill. A skill may be very useful, but if you already have mastered the skill, you would not presently need training in it.

For each of the skills you will reply on the insert with one of the code numbers below:

1. very useful skill, training very needed
2. very useful skill, training needed
3. very useful skill, training not needed
4. useful skill, training very needed
5. useful skill, training needed
6. useful skill, training not needed
7. not a useful skill to me

SKILLS

1. recruiting
2. recognition/retention of volunteers
3. interviewing/screening/placement
4. program planning
5. program evaluation/record-keeping
6. PR/use of media/marketing services
7. program administration in general

SKILLS

8. staff/volunteer relations, building better
9. legal issues relating to programs/insurance
10. lobbying/public policies
11. understanding human motivation/behavior
12. conducting meetings
13. recruiting and using special volunteers (e.g., males, blacks, students)
14. relating to minorities (elderly, black, etc.)
15. training volunteers
16. public speaking
17. consulting or using consultants
18. supervising volunteers
19. conducting research
20. grantsmanship
21. relating to United Way
22. understanding Title XX
23. budgeting/accounting
24. writing for journals
25. managing my time to best advantage
26. defining goals and objectives
27. conducting needs assessments
28. a working knowledge of the literature in volunteer administration
29. making brochures, newsletters, etc.
30. developing effective boards
31. firing volunteers or staff
32. coping with stress
33. conflict management
34. organizing workshops/conferences
35. group processes
36. effective listening
37. writing resumes, obtaining better employment
38. long-range planning
39. board/director relations
40. creative problem solving
41. personnel policies
42. effective slide presentations
43. assertiveness training
44. history/philosophy of voluntarism
45. policy and procedures manuals

46. business communications

47. CETA

48. IRS and Charities

49. Annual reports

50. multi-agency collaboration

SOURCE OF TRAINING

51. If there were a national conference 500 miles away next month with training in the three skills you need most, could you attend?

    1. yes, probably
    2. no
    3. maybe, depending upon cost
    4. maybe, depending upon timing

52. If there were such a conference in your state's capitol? (same codes)

53. If there were such a program sponsored by a local organization (VAC) at minmal cost? (same code)

54. If the program were in the continuing education department of the nearest college?

55. If there were a four-year degree program in volunteer administration offered at the nearest four-year college, would you enroll? (same codes)

56. A certificate program (non-credit) by the nearest college? (same codes)

57. A masters degree program (same codes)

RESPONDER PROFILE

58. What national (or international) organizations in volunteerism do you belong to?

    A. AAVS only
    B. AVAS only
    C. ASDVS only
    D. NICOV only
    E. AVB only
    F. CVS only
    G. AAVS and AVAS
    H. AAVS and ASDVS
    I. AAVS and NICOV
    J. AAVS and AVB
    K. AAVS and CVS
    L. AVAS and ASDVS
    M. AVAS and NICOV

N. AVAS and AVB
O. AVAS and CVS
P. ASDVS and NICOV
Q. ASDVS and AVB
R. ASDVS and CVS
S. NICOV and AVB
T. NICOV and CVS
U. AVB and CVS
V. more than 2, including AAVS
W. more than 2, not including AAVS
X. other national only
Y. none

59. Education

1. below high school
2. high school to two years college
3. two years to BA
4. BA/BS only
5. BA, less than MA
6. MA or above
7. business or technical school

60. Your annual income from the field of volunteer administration

1. less than 2,500, or volunteer
2. 2,500 to 4,999
3. 5,000 to 7,499
4. 7,500 to 9,999
5. 10,000 to 12,499
6. 12,500 to 14,999
7. 15,000 to 17,499
8. 17,500 to 19,999
9. 20,000 to 22,499
10. 22,500 up

61. Sex

1. female
2. male

62. Ethnic Group

1. white
2. black
3. Spanish-surname
4. Oriental
5. American Indian
6. other

63. Have you attended a workshop/class in the field in the past year?

0.	none	5.	five
1.	one	6.	six
2.	two	7.	seven
3.	three	8.	eight
4.	four	9.	nine or more

64. Is your program mainly urban, suburban, or rural?

1.	urban	4.	all three
2.	suburban	5.	state-wide
3.	rural	6.	not applicable

65. What is the first digit of your postal zip code?

If outside the U.S., use "X".

PLACE ANSWERS IN THE GRID BELOW AND MAIL TO:

Association for the Administration of Volunteer Services

P.O. Box 4584

Boulder, CO 80306

(cut along dotted line)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39
40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52
53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65

COMMENTS____

EDITORIAL STAFF

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